

THE ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF
BURNOUT, WORK ENGAGEMENT AND WORKAHOLISM

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ABSTRACT

THE ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF BURNOUT, WORK ENGAGEMENT AND WORKAHOLISM

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The purpose of the present study is to find the relationship between characteristics of working life such as job demands (e.g. workload), and job resources (e.g. colleague support) and job attachments of employees, such as burnout, work engagement, and workaholism. Moreover, the effects of work characteristics on physical health, organizational commitment and work-family balance are investigated. Additionally, the relationship between three major employee attachment styles to work, namely, burnout, workaholism and work engagement was examined. Psychometric qualities of the main study scales were established through a pilot study. Data for the main study were collected from 266 Turkish hotel and health care service employees. The results of regression analyses showed that job demands have effect on burnout and work engagement; whereas job resources are related to increased workaholism and decreased burnout. Work engagement predicted physical well-being, increased

organizational commitment, and work-family harmony whereas burnout had a negative effect on these outcomes. Workaholism was related only to organizational commitment. Mediation analyses showed that burnout mediated between job demands, and resources and perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony, whereas work engagement mediated only between job resources and the above consequences. A proposed job stress framework was tested through Job Demand and Resources (JD-R) Model. Structural Equation Modeling results exhibited good fit to the model, thus providing support for employee well-being aspect of JD-R Model. The analyses also showed that burnout, workaholism and work engagement are different constructs. Implications for managers, limitations of the study and suggestions for future studies were presented.

Keywords: Burnout, Work Engagement, Workaholism, Work-Family Balance, Job Demands-Resources Model

ÖZ

İŞ TUTULMASI, TÜKENMİŞLİK VE İŞKOLİKLİĞİN NEDENLERİ VE SONUÇLARI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, iş hayatının iş talepleri (örn. iş yoğunluğu) ve iş kaynakları (örn. iş arkadaşlarından destek) gibi belirli özelliklerinin çalışanların işe ait bağlılıkları (Tükenmişlik, İş Tutulması ve İşkoliklik) üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektir. İlave olarak, iş özelliklerinin algılanan fiziksel sağlık, örgütsel bağlılık ve iş-aile dengesi üzerindeki etkileri de çalışılmıştır. Çalışmada kullanılacak ölçeklerinpsikometrik özelliklerini incelemek üzere bir pilot çalışma yapılmıştır. Esas çalışma için veriler 266 Türk otel ve sağlık çalışanından anket formu aracılığı ile toplanmıştır. Yapılan Regresyon analizlerinin sonuçlarına göre, iş taleplerinin tükenmişlik ve işkoliklik üzerinde anlamlı etkileri olduğu bulunmuştur. İş kaynakları ise tükenmişlik sendromunu azaltmakta ve iş tutulmasını artırmaktadır. İş

tutulması daha iyi bir sađlık halini, örgütsel bađlılıđı ve iş-aile ahengini yordarken, tükenmişlik sendromu ise tam tersi deđerler göstermektedir. İşkoliklik, bu çalışmada sadece örgütsel bađlılık ile anlamlı ilişki göstermiştir. Tükenmişlik sendromu, iş kaynaklarının ve iş taleplerinin algılanan sađlık, örgütsel vatandaşlık ve iş-aile ahengi üzerindeki etkisini dolayımmlarken; iş tutulması ise sadece iş taleplerinin bu deđişkenler üzerindeki etkilerini dolayımmlamaktadır. Önerilen bir İş Talepleri-Kaynakları Modeli bu çalışmada Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli ile test edilmiş ve önerilen model destek bulunmuştur. Bu çalışma ayrıca işkoliklik, iş tutulması ve tükenmişlik sendromunun farklı kavramlar oldunu göstermiştir. Sonuçlar incelenmiş ve detaylı olarak tartışılmıştır. Son olarak, işyeri yöneticileri için ipuçları, çalışmanın kısıtlılıkları belirtilerek, gelecek çalışmalar için öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Tükenmişlik Sendromu, İş Tutulması, İşkoliklik, İş-Aile Dengesi, İş Talepleri-Kaynakları Modeli

To My Dearest Family,

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

People spend considerable amount of their time at work. As a matter of fact, time is not the only resource spent by people. They also spend their energy and invest their emotions in their work. In turn, their occupations provide meaning and structure to their lives (Jahoda, 1982). In this sense, a healthy attachment of people to their jobs would clearly contribute to their well-being as well as resulting in desired levels of performance. In the contemporary working context, jobs pose primarily mental and emotional demands, rather than physical ones (LeBlanc, de Jonge, & Schaufeli, 2008). These sustaining demands are likely to lead to impairment in physical, as well as mental health. However, people can also feel estranged, and alienated at work.

Besides being a source of stress, workplace may also contribute to the well-being of individuals as they spend a considerable amount of time working. Research in this area has so far been interested in job-related consequences of employee well-being (Nelson & Simmons, 2003).

Neither the antecedents of work characteristics and employee attachment styles nor the non-job related outcomes are studied as much as the work outcomes. Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to examine the antecedents and consequences of three types of employee attachment (both positive and negative); burnout, work engagement and workaholism.

In the modern world, increasing working hours blur the borders of home and work, thus, resulting in one affecting the other. The competitive environment of working life creates an imbalance in terms of job demands and job resources. This imbalance can have an influence in determining the attachment of an individual to his/her work. Moreover, different types of employee attachment may demonstrate different kinds and levels of work or non-work related outcomes. The imbalance that can stem from various causes of demands and resources in work life is the main reason of occupational stress. Working conditions such as workload, working time, feedback, or money that are not distributed with justice impair the well-being of employees. Research shows that (Nelson & Simmons, 2003) employees do not feel estranged to their jobs if the jobs are meaningful and manageable for the employees. Moreover, empirical evidence has shown that that if the work has opportunities for development and hope in it for the employees, the commitment level increases (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The lack of certain job resources can also result in estrangement from the job, or in other words, burnout. In case of burnout, the imbalance between job demands and resources stands. Burnout was found to be related to several negative outcomes from physical symptoms to organizational outcomes. These will be discussed in relevant section. However, it must be stressed out that imbalance between the job demands and resources are a solid indicator of job stress, which can determine the type of employee attachment (burned out, engaged or workaholic employees), and in turn can result in personal (i.e. cardiovascular disease) or organizational (i.e. turnover, organizational citizenship behavior) outcomes (Schaufeli, Taris, & van Rehenen,

2008). Furthermore, one of the solid contributors of work-life imbalance is the amount of stress experienced at work. Nelson et al. (2003) assert that job stressed is determined by the amount of demands and resources within an organization and the amount of stress can influence employees to experience different levels of health condition (low back pain etc.) and organizational outcomes (turnover intention, low performance etc.). Nonwork life can also be influenced by the aspects of working life. Frone (2003) argues the roles in home domain can simply be affected by the job conditions (i.e. childcare or marital estrangement).

The present study aims to explore the influence of job demands and resources on three kinds of work attachment styles, namely, burnout, work engagement, and workaholism. Moreover, the outcomes of these three work attachment styles are investigated through a work and nonwork fashion. The examined outcomes will consist of perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony. All the relationships are tested on an employee well-being model, which is shown on Figure 2. The model is tested by structural equation modeling and the goodness-of-fit of the proposed model is checked for possible modifications.

1.2 Job Demands-Resources Model

The relationship between the conditions of workplace and its affects over employees' well-being has been under examination since the early 1960s. Prevalent models defining this relationship were mostly interested in the negative outcomes of working conditions. It is only after the 1990s, especially with the influence of positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), that not only the negative outcomes but also the positive consequences of work conditions are studied. The job

stress model which was used in this study, the Job Demands-Resources Model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), was also inspired by the positive psychology.

Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R) is inspired from earlier models such as Job Demands Control Model (Karasek, 1979) and Demands-Control-Support Model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Both of the models (JD-C and DCS Models) can be credited as the pioneers of current job stress models, because of their influence. Their contribution as combining the work characteristics with personal characteristics is still influential in today's paradigm. The job stress model which is used in this study, the JD-R Model, also stems from and has a lot in common with the prevalent models, which are Vitamin Model (Warr, 1990), Job Demands-Control Model and Demands-Control-Support Model (Le Blanc et al., 2008). The biggest strength of JD-R Model is that it has eliminated the limitation of the prevalent models and merged the strengths (van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, de Witte, & Lens, 2008).

According to JD-R, job demands are, basically, the physical, social or psychological aspects of the job that required sustained physical or mental effort from individuals. Certainly, the sustained efforts have costs for employees. These costs can be exemplified as fatigue/injury (physical) or emotionally (mental) exhaustion. For instance, a call-center worker can be emotionally exhausted by dealing with the problems of unhappy customers, whereas a hotel housekeeper can feel physically exhausted when the hotel is fully booked and the rooms are to be tidied daily. The level of job demands are also decisive and significantly related to negative outcomes such as burnout, turnover, counterproductive behavior or health problems (Bakker,

Demerouti, de Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008; Roelen, Koopmans, Graaf, van Zandbergen, & Groothoff, 2007).

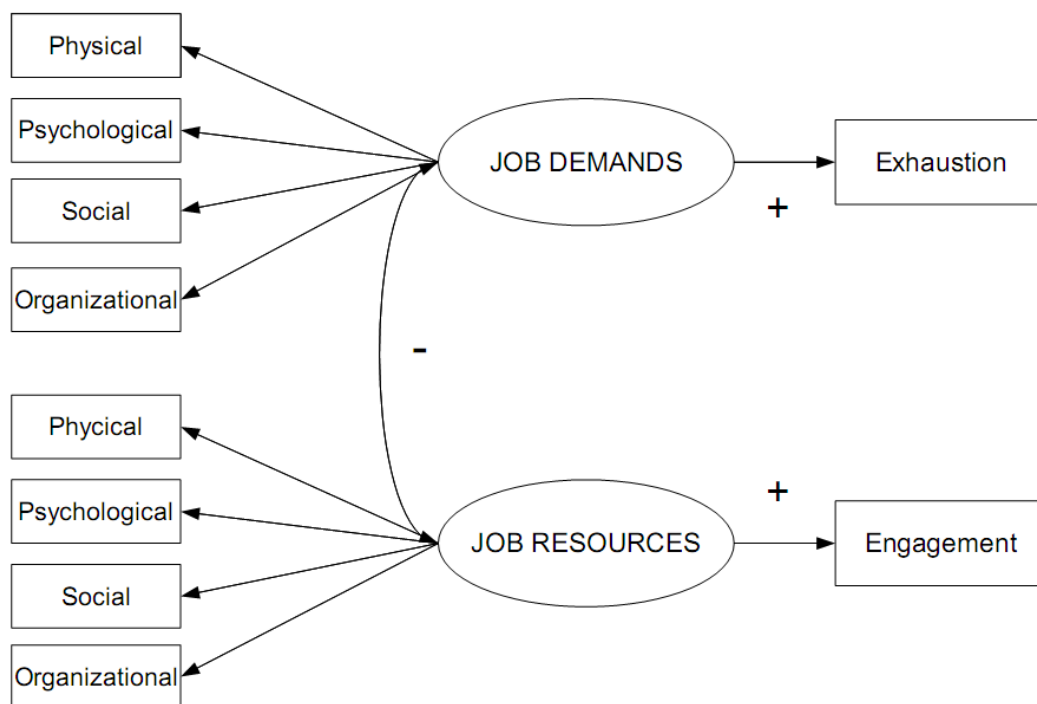


Figure 1. Job Demands-Resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). Source : Demerouti et al. (2001)

Job resources can be defined as the benefits of work to reduce the job demands, which are functional to fulfill the tasks and duties in work and reinforce personal development (Hakanen, et al., 2008). Data show that these resources are crucial for yielding work engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Job resources are important to deal with the sustaining job demands; because they provide extrinsic motivation to employees and help to exhibit productive job behavior. As can be seen from the figure, job demands are related to a negative

consequence, which is exhaustion. Exhaustion is a very important negative job strain and is also the core dimension of burnout (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003). Sustained job demands do not only negatively affect the job outcomes but also impairs health especially for the blue collar workers (Karasek et al., 1990).

The level of stress in the changing working life can be considered as the cause of health impairment. This relationship, further, suggested as a complex multi-faceted structure. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) suggest that burnout mediates the relationship between job demands and health problems. In contrast, job resources motivate employees positively, thus they are found to be related to work engagement, organizational commitment and the decreased turnover intention. However, their mediation proposal is also valid for engagement, as they argue that work engagement mediates the relationship between job resources and positive job outcomes.

A large number of studies have found the job demands and resources are related to work engagement and burnout (Bakker et al., 2003; Schaufeli et al., 2004; Roelen et al. 2007; Xanthopolou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). Hakanen et al. (2008) have conducted a longitudinal study to demonstrate the effects of JD-R on burnout, work engagement, organizational commitment and depression; and the results were consistent with the literature. Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, and Lens (2008) have found significant relationship between job demands and burnout.

Therefore, literature strongly suggests that one of the consequences of job stress and sustaining job demands is the burnout.

1.3 Work Attachment Styles

The relationship between the individuals and the organizations is a widely studied phenomenon. It has been found that the affect and benefit which the employees pose towards their organization is a solid indicator of the level of this relationship. The research, which has been going on since early 1970s, shows that employees might have a negative attachment, or in other words disenchantment, to their works if their expectations are not compensated by their organizations. On the other hand, a healthy and positive relationship between the individuals and the organizations is very frequently seen. Another widely seen type is the kind of employees who spend excessive amount of time at work and spend a massive cognitive amount to their work, but do not feel joy by doing so. These three types are the most widely seen kind of employee attachment styles, namely burnout, work engagement and workaholism. In this section, the comprehensive definitions and empirical data for their antecedents and consequences are provided.

1.3.1 Burnout

People cannot always constitute a healthy bond to their professional, in other words, working lives. It is not a rare consequence that employees feel distressed, tired and not willing to go to their work. Moreover, more serious consequences may arise as a result of this unfavorable relationship, for instance the impairment of mental and physical health or the deteriorated relationship with family members (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The use of burnout term has been present since the 1970s (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). After its introduction to the literature, burnout has received the attention of the researchers and emerged as the “bad” end of employee *attachment* (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Therefore, burnout can also be regarded as disattachment. Burnout consists of three interdependent dimensions. These three dimensions are as follows: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (cynicism) and perceived reduction in personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Among these dimensions, exhaustion is the most widely examined and mentioned one. In fact, we can argue that exhaustion refers to burnout in social representation.

The most widely used burnout tool, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) has been adopted to many occupations and translated into many languages. Almost in all cultures, the three subdimensions of burnout were found relevant to negative job outcomes. Also job strains were found to be indicator of burnout in almost all research (Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002; Budak & Sürgevil, 2005; Fujiwara, Tsukishima, Tsutsumi, Kawakami, & Kishi, 2003). This provides burnout phenomenon and MBI survey an international validity and reliability.

In Turkey, burnout research was mainly conducted with the participation of the healthcare service workers. Majority of the burnout data were collected from either nurses or doctors. The norms exist for them as well as the health care service workers (Ergin, 1995). Unal, Karlidag, and Yologlu (2000) found significant relationship between burnout and reduced work and life satisfaction among doctors. Ardic and Polatci (2008) reported that chances for personal development and enhancing job characteristics are effective in reducing burnout. Budak and Suvergil (2005) reported

that exhaustion is correlated to values and workload; efficacy is correlated to reward and control; and depersonalization is correlated to value control and workload.

Burnout does not only have negative influence on employee well-being, but also shows negatively affects on work outcomes. There are undesired outcomes of burnout such as reduced performance or absenteeism (Maslach et al., 2001). Reduced organizational commitment is also another negative outcome of burnout. Employees question their commitment and future when they encounter sustaining job demands and feel distressed. This is not a coincidence. The data also support that burnout has negative effect on organizational commitment (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Hakanen et al. (2008), as well, found that increased burnout diminishes the level of commitment significantly. As a result, burnout has a great impact over counterproductive behavior.

Majority of the burnout research concerns the health and counterproductive work behavior in the literature (Maslach et al., 2001). There is a dearth of research related to the effects of burnout on non-work domain. The effect of burnout was expected to be negative on work-family balance as burnout threatens the work-family harmony and contributes to the conflict level. For example, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2005) found that married couples transfer their burnout to each other. That is to say, the experienced burnout even affects the partner of an individual. Hakanen et al. (2008) also found that the increase in burnout negatively affects the harmony in families.

As job demands related to negative outcomes for the employees and the organization, resources people receive at work was expected to have positive outcomes for both

employees and the organization. One of the consequences of resources is work engagement. Work engagement results from the resources and in turn result in better outcomes for the person and the employees.

1.3.2 Work Engagement

Maslach et al. (2001) suggested that work engagement can be seen as the opposite end of burnout. According to Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002), engaged workers are those who display "...positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption, is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work" (p.74).

Bakker and Demerouti (2007) found that job resources were essential to help employees constitute a positive state of mind towards the work because work resources help employees cope with job demands and enable chances for personal development and functional in goal achievement. Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum (2006) supported this aspect in their study which was conducted among the women managers of a Turkish bank. The results showed that job resources, such as autonomy, recognition and value fit predict work engagement significantly. Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris (2008) pointed out that the engaged employees possess

positive affect and emotions towards the work; display a superior physical and mental health; are prone to create their own job and personal resources; and are likely to transfer their engagement to their colleagues and their spouses. In this sense, the presence of work engagement is highly beneficial both for the organizations and for the employees. Data show that work engagement is related to several desired outcomes. It is found that work engagement is associated with organizational commitment (Schaufeli et al., 2001, Demerouti et al., 2001), spending quality time out of work (Schaufeli et al., 2001), more favorable marital status (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), good health (Demerouti, Bakker, de Jonge, Janssen, & Schaufeli, 2001).

Compared to other aspects in work involvement and employee well-being, work engagement has a shorter past. This short past leads people to have ambiguous ideas about work engagement. Engaged employees are found to be happily engrossed with their works and enjoy their existence in their workplaces. From this point of view, confusion in between work engagement and workaholism arise. Empirical data have put clear the distinction between workaholism and work engagement with the inclusion of “feeling driven” dimension (Spence and Robbins, 1992). They introduce work enthusiasts as the kind of employees who do not feel themselves as driven to work. This definition is similar to work engagement concept. On the other hand Spence et al., (1992) defines workaholics as those who have a high feeling of driven to work, even in their free time. A comprehensive definition of workaholism is to be done at the following section.

1.3.3 Workaholism

The term workaholism was coined by Oates (1971) to stress the fact that people have strong urge for working compulsively on the job. Therefore, in his book, Oates was the first one to combine workaholism with certain characteristics and consequences, mainly the negative consequences. In time, workaholism received several other explanations, such as excessive amount of time spent in workplace (Mosier, 1983), the attitude of individuals towards their work (1977), a fatal pathology (Fassel, 1990) or a desired work outcome by the organizations (Burke, 2001; Ng, Sorensen & Feldman, 2007).

To measure workaholism, basically, three scales were developed. One of them is that of Spence et al. (1992), which is abbreviated as WorkBAT. Their study showed that workaholics exhibited higher levels of time committed, perfectionism, unwillingness to delegate responsibility, job stress and health complaints than non-workaholics.

However, the workaholic triad was not supported by many other studies. Especially, the cross-cultural results barely supported the three typologies of WorkBAT (Kanai, Wakabayashi, & Flings, 1996; Burke & Koksal, 2002; McMillan, Brady, Driscoll, & Marsh, 2002; Ersoy-Kart, 2005). Furthermore, Burke and Koksal (2002) and Ersoy-Kart (2005) did not find support for use of Spence and Robbins's scale in Turkey.

Another widely-used scale was developed by Robinson (1989) as Work-Addiction Risk Test (WART) with five subscales, namely, Compulsive Tendencies (dealing with working hard and difficulties in relaxing after work), Control (referring to annoyance when having to wait for something or someone or when things do not go one's way), Impaired Communication/Self-Absorption (dealing with putting more

energy into one's work than into relationships with others), Inability to Delegate and Self-Worth (concerned with the degree to which one is interested in the results of one's work rather than the work process itself). Despite the fact that WART evaluated workaholism from a broader perspective; Turkish data (Burke & Köksal, 2002; Ersoy-Kart, 2004) was unable to support the all dimensions' existence.

Ng et al. (2007) pointed out that cross-cultural data was not able to show a concrete consensus over the three-dimensional workaholism model of Spence and Robbins (1992) or five dimensional model of Robinson (1989). This led researchers to develop a stronger scale to assess workaholism. Schaufeli and Taris (2004) developed another scale named the Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS) based on WART (Robinson, 1989) and WorkBAT (Spence et al., 1992). DUWAS has two core dimensions, namely, working excessively and working compulsively. Working excessively (WE) dimension is originated from WART and stands for the "Control Tendencies" factor. Working Compulsively (WC) dimension, as for, was originated from WorkBAT and stands for the "Drive" factor. DUWAS also contents an Overwork (OW) dimension and has 4 more questions to determine the actual working duration of the participants. Data show that the psychometric properties of DUWAS exhibit strong results (Schaufeli, Taris, & Bakker, 2006; Schaufeli, Taris, & van Rhenen, 2008).

So far, workaholism was explained as a type of attachment influenced by personality factors, such as perfectionism (Spence et al., 1992), stressful or dysfunctional childhood/family experiences, achievement related traits (Ng et al., 2007), and inner drives like feeling driven or compulsion (Schaufeli et al., 2007). The most recent

study to assess the relationship between job demands & resources and workaholism found that high job demands are related to workaholism whereas no relationship was found between resources and workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2007). On the other hand, the empirical data suggest that workaholism leads to positive organizational outcomes (job satisfaction, career satisfaction, better performance and extrinsic career success) however poor social relationships (distrust in coworkers, reduced marital satisfaction, work-life conflict etc.) and physical conditions (Ng et al., 2007, Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann., 2000, Robinson & Post, 1997).

The researchers have been examining workaholism concept for more than 25 years. The business sector is becoming more competitive and the employees try to do their best in order to maintain their position in a safe place. Consequences of the innovations of technology leads employees to stayed in touch with their works for a longer duration. Employees henceforth can follow their tasks and duties in their works via mobile phones, laptops, and such equipments. Some workers also run their tasks and duties from their homes by only turning up for two or less workdays in their workplace. Market's increasing demands are another factor to force people work more due to the increasing workload. These circumstances lead us to different and new horizons of employee attachment. As well as, the consequences of different types of attachment lead to several work-based and life-based outcome. Following sections will focus on the outcomes of the three main employee attachment styles of this research, burnout, work engagement and workaholism.

As mentioned in this section, the work attachment style is a solid predictor of potential organizational and individual consequences. Data strike the strong

relationship with the fit of the individual to the organization and the positive/negative outcomes of the level of this fit. In this sense, the way which the employees exhibit their emotions and feelings is a very good signal for the employers to possess reliable, long-lasting and effortful employees. The following section will focus on the specific organizational and non-organizational outcomes of burnout, work engagement, and workaholism. The specific organizational consequence is the level of organizational commitment, since this concept is associated to several productive outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behavior, reduced intention to quit etc. The non-organizational consequences to be analyzed are perceived health and work-family harmony. These outcomes are intended to be analyzed because they are strongly associated with an individual's quality of life, which they spend outside the work.

1.4 Outcomes of Work Attachment Styles

In the previous section, the work attachment styles, which are investigated in this study, were explained in detail. The following section will consist of certain consequences which are particularly analyzed throughout this research. The empirical support for the relationships between the attachments styles and consequences also takes place in this section.

1.4.1 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is defined as the employee's strong psychological attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The strong psychological attachment description stayed constant among the definition of the researchers since

its presentation. Nevertheless, some other researchers focused on the investment latitude of commitment. In other words, the more an individual invests his/her job, the stronger commitment would be constituted (Becker, 1960).

Later, organizational commitment was proposed as a three-dimensional model by Meyer and Allen (1991). Among these three dimensions, Affective Commitment (AC) stood for the employee's positive emotions and the positive work outcomes of the employee, whereas Continuance Commitment (CC) stood for the employee's commitment to the organization in order to avoid the negative consequences of leaving. Therefore, it is more related to negative job attitudes and outcomes. The third dimension, Normative Commitment (NC), rather dealt with the moral commitment of the employee. Following researches were unavailable to support the psychometric properties of NC, thus organizational commitment is mostly suggested as a two-dimensional construct (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Organizational commitment display differences in terms of cross-cultural data. Wasti (2002) argues that the reason is the cultural values. She further exemplifies her argument with several cultural theories (see Hofstede, 1980; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1995). Wasti (2002) defines Turkey as a predominantly collectivistic country and suggest that organizational commitment works as a two-dimensional concept in this culture. Looking at the model below, a difference among the commitment styles of workaholics and work engaged employees can be predicted.

Research shows that burnout has a negative impact on organizational commitment (Maslach et al., 2001). In their review, Maslach et al. (2001) argue that data support the negative relationship between burnout and organizational commitment in

prevalent research. In their meta-analysis, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) found that burnout dimensions shared 5 to 27% of the variance with job dissatisfaction and decreased organizational commitment. On the other hand, the “positive end” of burnout was found to have a positive correlation with work engagement.

Nevertheless, it should be emphasized that work engagement is a different concept than organizational commitment. Work engagement is solely related to the work itself; however, organizational commitment is concerned over the individual-workplace dynamics (Bakker et al, 2008). Despite the fact that these two concepts are proposed to be independent, their congruence may encourage future researchers to study their interdependent structure (Schaufeli et al., 2001, Demerouti et al., 2001). Workaholic employees, on the other hand, were found to be career committed rather than being committed to their organizations (Schaufeli, Taris, & Bakker, 2006). In addition, Burke and Koxsal (2002) report a low positive relationship between workaholism and organizational commitment.

1.4.2 Work-Family Balance

The change in labor also reflects to family domain significantly. One very simple example is the number of women, who are represented in working life. This issue is also a concrete indicator of traditional family domain’s change. The Bureau of Labor Statistics in the US reported that almost 50% of women in the USA are taking active roles in labor. This proportion was 46% in 2000, and 41% in 1970 (cf. Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley 2005).

Work–family conflict is defined by Greenhaus and Beutell, (1985) as a form of interrole conflict in which the demands of work and family roles are incompatible in

some respect so that difficulties of participation in one role lead to difficulties in participation in the other role. Work–family conflict consists of two different dimensions: these are work-to-family-conflict and family-to-work-conflict (Cullen & Hammer, 2007). The former occurs when work interferes with family, for example when work demands like staying for a long time at work prevent performing well at home demands. The latter occurs when family demands like having a small child prevent performing well at work (Voydanoff, 2005). The direction of WFC is particularly meaningful. It has been pointed that individuals tend to experience more Work Interfering Family (WIF) than Family Interfering Work (FIW). Moreover, researchers have argued that same domain outcomes can be affected by conflict originating in one domain. That is, work-to-family conflict can affect work outcomes and family-to-work conflict can affect family outcomes (LaPierre, & Allen, 2006).

Frone's (2003) definition of work–family balance includes four separate components: work-to-family conflict, family to work conflict, work-to-family facilitation, and family-to-work facilitation. It is unclear how each component relates to how satisfied a person feels with the integration of his or her work and family role demands and whether all four components need to be at ideal levels (i.e., low conflict, high facilitation) for the person to feel satisfied.

The issue of balancing work and family demands is one of today's fundamental concerns for both individuals and organizations. Work–family conflict has become an increasingly popular topic of organizational research. In recent years significant attention has been given to the interference between individuals, family and work roles, which has been studied under the general rubric of work–family conflict

(WFC). Career and family are two of the most important aspects of adult life. Since the role expectations in these domains are incompatible, taking part in both these areas often causes conflict and stress for the individual (Gutek, Scarle & Klepa, 1991). Demands in the family domain have also increased, in part because of rises in the number of dual-earner couples, single-parent families, and families facing concurrent child care and elder care demands and there is a cultural changing toward more intensive parenting (Driscoll, 2003). Achieving a satisfactory balance between work and family in the face of these rising demands represents an important career value for many employees, one that affects decisions such as choice of occupation, employer, and job as well as attitudinal outcomes, including job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and job involvement (Behson, 2002).

Several studies showed that that work-family conflict was related to high work demands (Yang, Chen, Choi & Zou, 2000), long working time (Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, Parasuraman 1997), working on the weekend (Carlson & Perewe, 1999), high job involvement (Parasurman & Simmers, 2001). In their four year longitudinal study, Frone, Russell, & Cooper (1997) found that work-family conflict may also cause serious health symptoms such as depression, impaired physical health and alcohol use. The findings of Burke and Greenglass (1999), which indicates a relationship between work-family conflict and psychological distress, are also consistent with Frone et al.'s. Eby et al., (2005) also suggest job resources, basically those that are related to supportive organizational culture, such as work support (Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987), supervisory support (Nielson, Carson, & Lankau, 2001), are operative in reducing work-family conflict.

Prevalent data show that work engagement and work-life balance affect each other positively. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that positive state of one domain affects the other domain positively (positive spillover). Schaufeli et al. (2001) also proposed that engaged employees have a more favorable and joyful social life. Bakker et al. (2005) investigated a crossover effect (the transfer of attitudes among individuals) among married couples and found that married couples crossover their engagement to work towards each other and have a similar level of work engagement. They also found that burnout has is being crossed over as well as work engagement, meaning that if one part of the marital acquaintance suffers exhaustion or cynicism, the other part also starts to have same emotions towards the work. In several research, workaholism was found to affect family life negatively (Ng et al, 2007) such as marital estrangement, reduced marital satisfaction and work-life conflict and purpose in life (Bonebright et al., 2000).

1.5 Present Research

This research designed to define the antecedents and the consequences related to being engaged, workaholic, and burned out employees. The antecedents were examined as the resources (e.g. coaching) and demands (e.g. changes at work) which are present at working conditions. The outcomes, on the other hand were investigated in terms of perceived health of the individuals, the level of commitment to the organization and last, but not least, the work-family balance, or in other words, work-family harmony. There is little data in the literature to examine the effects of these variables; however, the data only take few of these variables at one time (Hakanen et al., 2008). According to the literature review conducted during this research, no

study was found to investigate the effects of all these variables. Therefore an employee well-being framework was proposed and tested through Structural Equation Modeling.

According to the proposed framework, the job demands and job resources exhibit a negative correlation. Demerouti et al. (2001) argues that job resources help employees coping with sustaining job demands. In other words, the job resources would increase as the job demands decrease, or vice versa (i.e. JD-R model, Xanthopolou et al., 2007). Bakker and his colleagues (2003) suggest that the job demands and job resources are generally conflicting work characteristics and the imbalance between each other is a predictor of job stress. Therefore, in this study it is expected that there would be a negative relationship between job demands and job resources.

Second, the increase of job demands, such as workload or emotional dissonance would lead the employees to burnout. The job demands also are expected to be related to workaholism, since workaholic scores are based on overwork, working excessively and working compulsively. On the other hand, job resources are the most important basis of a healthy commitment of an employee to his/her job. Employees feel that they must have what they deserve from the job, not only financially but also emotionally. It is the job resources which increase the enthusiasm that an employee feels towards working (Hakanen et al., 2008). Thus, more job resources are needed for a successful attachment of employees to their works. In this sense, job resources could predict work engagement and the decrease or absence would predict burnout (Xanthopolou et al., 2007).

Empirical findings prove that physical health is being threatened by hard working conditions. People suffer a wide range of psychosomatic complaints from low-back pain to depression as a result of sustaining job demands. Burnout is found as a solid indicator of health complaints (Maslach et al., 2001). Literature also argues that workaholism has negative impact on health as well (Kanai et al. 1996; Spence et al., 1992) Therefore, it is expected that burned-out and workaholic employees would report a less favorable perception of their health whereas, engaged workers would report a more favorable perception for their health.

Organizational commitment is a desired employee attitude towards his/her organization, which predicts lower levels of turnover, higher performance and other desired attitudes such as organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it is important for the organizations to maintain the commitment of the employees to their organizations. In this sense, it is expected that engaged workers would report higher levels of organizational commitment whereas burned out employees would report “uncommitment” (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Further, a very low or no relationship is expected between workaholism and organizational commitment because personal interviews with workaholics show that they are more career committed than organizationally committed.

An individual’s attachment to his/her work is an important determinant of his/her non-work satisfaction. This is called spillover effect and can be distinguished into two, namely, positive spillover or work-to-life enhancement and negative spillover or work-to-life conflict. What employees go through in an exhausting working day could interfere with his/her relations with his/her family. On the other hand,

happiness in work could simply affect the non-work life. A satisfied worker is more likely to be satisfied in his/her non-work context.

Prevalent data prove both burnout and workaholism is negatively correlated with work-family balance. Robinson and Post (1997) explored the family functioning of self-identified workaholics and found negative relationship with many of the family functioning. Workaholics had low scores on family's problem solving ability, affective involvement in family, communication among family members and unsurprisingly, general family functioning.

Bonebright et al. (2000) found that nonenthusiastic workaholics significantly had more work-life conflict and significantly less life satisfaction. Robinson, Carroll and Flowers (2001) suggest that spouses of workaholics have higher levels of marital estrangement and less positive affect than the spouses of nonworkaholics.

Nevertheless one exception for workaholism must be underlined. Workaholism can be a consequence of an unsatisfactory non-working life. A person could choose the way to compensate his/her unhappiness in home life (i.e. high home demands) in work. Nevertheless, it can be indicated that this could only occur if perceived job resources were high for said person. Under these circumstances, unfavorable work-life harmony could be an antecedent of workaholism whereas it could be a consequence of burnout.

The job demands and resources were found to be operative over the study outcomes, which are perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony (Demerouti et al., 2004). On the other hand, work attachment styles, which are burnout, work engagement, and workaholism are found to be strong determinants of

these consequences as well. When the strong relationship between job demands and resources and work attachment styles are taken into account, three meditational relationships are expected to occur within these variables.

Burnout was found to be associated with sustaining job demands and lack of job resources (Xanthopolou et al., 2007). The negative outcomes of burnout were also demonstrated in the relevant burnout section before. Therefore, it is expected that burnout would mediate the effects of job demands & resources over perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony.

Hypothesis 1: Burnout mediates the relationship between two antecedents; job demands and job resources; and three outcome variables, perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony.

Schaufeli, Taris and van Rehenen (2008) suggest that work engagement is the positive end of burnout; however has no relationship with the job demands dimension. This is because job demands may also be perceived as beneficial for personal growth as long as they are kept on a certain level. On the other hand, work engagement was found to be strongly related to increased job resources, better health, more commitment to the organization and more balanced work-family interaction. Therefore it is expected that work engagement would mediate the effects of job resources over health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony.

Hypothesis 2: Work engagement mediates the relationship between job resources and three outcome variables, perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony.

According to Spence and Robbins (1992) workaholics perceive that their work has excessive amount of demands and they spend more time to execute the demands of their jobs. Also they differentiate the work enthusiasts from workaholics on basis of the joy taken from the work. Workaholics have a lower amount of joy taken from the work because they do not feel their jobs possess enough resources for their growth. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, workaholics report a worse perception of health and reduced balance in their family-work interaction. As Lee et al. (1996) suggest that workaholics are more career committed than organizationally committed. According to these findings, workaholism is expected to mediate the relationship between job demands and perceived health & work-life harmony. No relationship was expected between job resources to workaholism and workaholism to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Workaholism mediates the relationship between job demands and outcome variables; perceived health and work-family harmony.

The literature lacks the data to exhibit the mediation among these constructs; therefore this study aims to enhance the JD-R Model with several proposed mediational relationships. The organizational attachment styles are emerged to be effective predictors of work and non-work outcomes in the literature. Therefore, it is expected them to mediate the significant effects of job demands and job resources over physical health, organizational commitment and work-life harmony. As the defined model displays the whole construct to be tested, the mediational conditions to be taken into account are enumerated in three orders.

In a research design, Schaufeli, Taris and Bakker (2006) examined the differences between work engagement and workaholism. They showed that workaholism and work engagement are two distinguished concepts. In addition, despite the fact that both workaholics and work engaged employees work more, harder than the other workers, they enjoy more, perform better; workaholics are more associated with poor well-being. Similarly, Schaufeli et al. (2008) also found that these concepts were distinct yet correlated constructs and were all predicted by variables from long working hours, and quality of social relationships, perceived health, job characteristics and work outcomes.

The changes in the nature of work is leading people to spend more time with their jobs, describe themselves through their jobs and spend less time with nonwork activities. This situation threatens the employee well-being. For example, Burke and Mathiessen (2004) argue that workaholism is one of the biggest antecedents of burnout. Another example, stated by Landsbergis (2003) was that, occupational accidents and injuries, musculoskeletal disorders, psychological and behavioral disorders and cardiovascular diseases may appear as a consequence of low employee well-being. Therefore, in this study, it is expected that workaholism, burnout and work engagement will be intercorrelated, however will lead to different kind of outcomes, proving that these are interdependent constructs.

As a result of these predictions, the proposed employee well-being model, which is to be tested through structural analysis, embodies as follows (Strict lines indicate positive, dotted lines indicate negative relationships. No lines indicate no relationships):

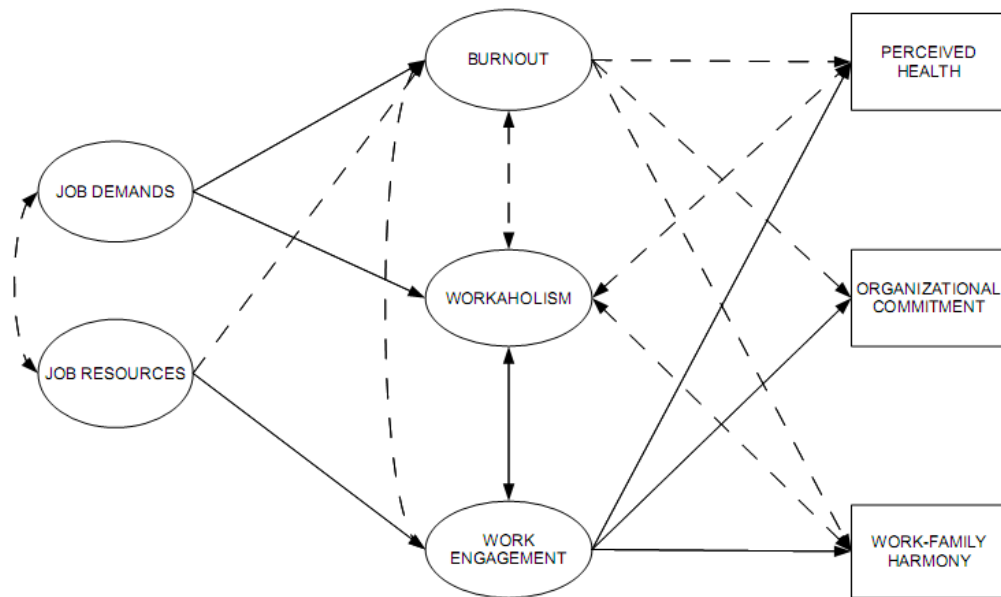


Figure 2. The expected relationships of components.

The study was aimed to be administrated to health care and hotel employees. The pilot study was completed with the participation of the health care service employees since the standardization of the previous scales were completed with this profession. The reasons why the hotel employees are aimed have several purposes. First, almost every professional department exists in hotel offices. Second, hotels are places where there are hard working conditions in terms of service quality. Third, since hotels are places where the service continues 24 hours, excessive working conditions are also often confronted. Healthcare servers were included to the study for the pilot study service. Once the pilot study was completed, the rest of the data was collected from hotel employees.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1 Sample

This research is done by the voluntary participations of different hotel employees and healthcare service employees in Turkey. A total of 314 surveys were distributed in 7 hotels and 1 hospital in Istanbul and Ankara and 266 surveys were collected. 161 participants were male (60.5%) and 78 were female (29.3%). Among the participants, 117 employees were graduated from university or higher (43.9%). On the other hand, 112 completed their education until high school or lower (42.1%). The mean age of the participants was 32.8 (SD = 9.29) years. Participants reported that they are in their current organizations for 7.2 (SD = 7.8) years and they have been in working life for approximately 13 (SD = 8.5) years. The questionnaires were delivered personally. Only 4 participants have submitted the questionnaires via internet. The anonymity of the answers was ensured before the application of the questionnaire.

Among the full sample, a total of 91 surveys were distributed to the healthcare service employees (nurses and doctors) in a hospital in Istanbul for the pilot study. 82 completed questionnaires were returned (return rate of 90 %). Among the 82 individuals 40 were male (48.8%) 67 completed their education with a better degree than university (77.3%). Mean age was 36.9 (SD = 9.6), mean tenure in the current organization was 13.2 (SD = 8.8) and mean years which were spent in professional career were 16.2 (SD = 8.7).

2.2 Measures

Demographic Information: Participants were asked to fill in some demographic information in order to control several acting covariates, such as age, gender, tenure, position and the number of the subordinates. Moreover, a further significant relationship which may arise between the major acting variables (such as job demands & resources, work engagement) and demographic characteristics are intended to be analyzed. Therefore, it was aimed to explore if a demographic characteristic explains a significant amount of variance among a major variable. The demographic information questionnaire took place at the last page of the whole survey.

Job Demands and Resources: In this study, the Turkish version of Job Demands and Job Resources scale which was developed by Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) was used. The scale assesses both job demands and job resources by four subscales. Job demands were evaluated by the level of workload, the level of emotional demands, emotional dissonance and organizational changes. There are 4 items to evaluate workload. A sample item is *“How often do you have to work extra hard in order to reach a deadline”* and the internal consistency is .86. Emotional demands are assessed by 6 items and it has an internal consistency of .77. A sample item for this latitude is *“In your work, are you confronted with things that personally touch you”*. Emotional dissonance is evaluated by 5 questions and *“During your work, how often should you express certain feelings towards (internal or external) clients, which do not resemble the feelings you truly feel yourself”* is a representative item (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .83$). Last, organizational change possess 7 questions (i.e. *“In your current job*

position, have you been confronted with reorganization”) and has an internal consistency of .82.

Job resources are also assessed by four subscales. These are autonomy, colleague support, supervisory support and opportunities for personal development at work.

First job resource, autonomy is assessed by 3 items and the internal consistency of this subscale is .81. A sample question for autonomy assessment is “*Can you participate in decision-making regarding your work*”. The second job resource to be assessed is the colleague support. In this survey, colleague support is evaluated by 3 items. “*Can you count on your colleagues to support you, if difficulties arise in your work?*” is a representative item for this subscale and the items display a satisfactory internal consistency ($\alpha = .80$). When we talk about organizational support, it is very dangerous to neglect the supervisory support and just evaluate colleague support. In this sense, 5 items were added to the questionnaire to assess supervisory support, or in other words, coaching. “*My supervisor informs me whether he/she is satisfied with my work*” is a representative item for this subscale, which displays an internal consistency of .92. Last, but not least, 3 statements to evaluate opportunities for personal development at work was included to the job resources scale. A sample item for this subscale is “*In my work, I have the opportunity to develop my strong points*” and the internal consistency of the scale is .87. The items are formed in statements or questions and all items are rated on a Likert-type scale from 1 (never) to 5 (always).

The job demands and resources scale did not have a Turkish version before.

Therefore, the scale was translated and back translated by three other graduate students and conceptual equivalence was maintained. Afterwards, a pilot study was

conducted to establish the reliability and the validity of the scale. All of the components yielded internal consistencies higher than .66 on 82 participants.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES): The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) and aims to evaluate the engagement level of employees by 17 items. The scale contains statements which are rated by the participants from 0 to 6, 0 meaning that the individual have never felt the way that the statement suggests and 6 meaning that the individual always feels the way that the statement argues. The scale has specific items to evaluate particular underlying dimensions of work engagement, namely, dedication, absorption and vigor. Vigor is assessed by six items ($\alpha = .92$). An example item is “*At my work, I feel bursting with energy.*” Dedication is assessed by five items and an example is “*I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose*” ($\alpha = .91$). Last, absorption is assessed by six items and an example item is “*Time flies when I'm working*” ($\alpha = .90$).

The scale was developed by rephrasing some of the Maslach Burnout Inventory items as positive. In this sense, some of the underlying dimensions can be corresponded reversely by the burnout dimensions. For instance, dedication can be matched with cynicism whereas; vigor can be matched with exhaustion.

Since its development, UWES has arisen as one of the most utilized work engagement scales in the literature. The reason is its statistical power and cross-cultural applicability. First of all, the factorial validity of the three-factor model fits better with the data than one-factor model in several studies done in the Netherlands, Spain and Portugal (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli, Taris & Van Rhenen, 2008).

The intercorrelations of the dimensions are found to be exceeding .65 (Demetroui et al., 2001). The scale has been translated into 23 languages, from Turkish to Afrikaans, and was found to be statistically as powerful each time. Therefore, in this study, the UWES will be used as the main work engagement assessor.

Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS): Schaufeli and Taris (2004) developed the Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS) which was originated from both the Work-Addiction Risk Test (Robinson, 1989) and WorkBAT (Spence et al., 1992). DUWAS has two core dimensions, namely, working excessively and working compulsively. Working excessively (WE) dimension is originated from WART and stands for the “Control Tendencies” factor (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .82$). A sample item for WE is *“I find myself doing two or three things at one time such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while taking on the telephone”*. Working Compulsively (WC) dimension, as for, was originated from WorkBAT and stands for the “Drive” factor (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .84$). A sample item is *“I find myself thinking about work even when I want to get away from it for a while”*. DUWAS also contains an Overwork (OW) dimension and has 4 more questions to determine the actual working duration of the participants (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .82$). A sample item is *“I go to work while feeling ill”*.

DUWAS has 20 items to be rated on a 4-point likert scale (1-(almost) never, 4-(almost) always). There are 4 more questions to assess the actual working duration. DUWAS has a relatively different type of scoring key. Each dimension has different salient weights and the results are assessed according to the results of the norm groups.

Similar to Job-Demands Resources Questionnaire, DUWAS was also translated into Turkish in the present study accordingly. The internal consistencies of dimensions are as follows: overwork .69; working excessively .70; and working compulsively .66.

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI): Developed in 1981 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), Maslach Burnout Inventory has been the most widely used burnout inventory that is used in the literature (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Original survey contains 22 items and the individuals rate their feelings towards the statements on a 7 point Likert-type scale. Low scores refer to low levels of burnout; whereas individuals who scores high would represent the high levels of burnout. The Turkish version of the scale was adapted by Ergin (1992) and is also the most utilized burnout inventory in the Turkish sample studies (Çapri, 2006). However, the Turkish version of the scale is rated on a 5 point Likert-type scale (0 to 4). The Turkish version displayed satisfactory psychometric characteristics, all components exhibiting higher reliability scores than .65 ($\alpha_{\text{exhaustion}}$.85; α_{cynicism} .65; and $\alpha_{\text{inefficacy}}$.72).

The scale assesses burnout through three dimensions of the topic, namely, emotional exhaustion, cynicism (also indicated as depersonalization in some studies) and reduced professional accomplishment. Exhaustion is assessed by 9 items and an example item is *“I feel emotionally drained from my work”*. The internal consistency of the emotional exhaustion dimension is $\alpha = .83$. Cynicism is assessed by five items and an example item is *“I feel I treat some colleagues as they were impersonal objects”*. The internal consistency of these 5 items is .75. Last, reduced professional accomplishment is assessed by eight items and an example item is *“I have not*

attained important goals with my work". Cronbach alpha score of reduced professional accomplishment items is .88 (Çapri, 2006).

Work-life Harmony: In this study, as mentioned before, the work-to-family interference will be examined. Hence, only the work-to-family enhancement and work-to-family conflict subscales of Work-Family Balance Scale (Bıçaksız, 2009) will be used. The scale consists of 11 statements and is rated on a 5 point Likert-type scale. 6 items assess work to family conflict and WFC dimension displays an internal consistency of .75. A sample item is "*İşimle ilgili sorumluluklarım aile hayatımı etkiliyor*". 5 items investigate the work to family enhancement and yields an internal consistency of .63. A sample item for WFE is "*İşim sayesinde, evle ilgili sorunlarımı farklı açılardan görebiliyorum*". WFE scale was developed by Apaydin (2004) and was also used in the study of Bicaksiz (2009) with satisfactory psychometric characteristics.

Organizational commitment: In order not to collect redundant data, short scale of Meyer and Allen Survey can be used. This scale consists of two 6-item subscales of CC and AC, recommended by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). This 12-item questionnaire is rated on a 7-point likert scale (1-strongly disagree, 7-strongly agree) and displayed acceptable reliability coefficients in previous researches, .83 for AC and .78 for CC (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007). A Turkish version of organizational commitment scale is adapted by Wasti in 1999 and is the most widely used organizational commitment scale in Turkey.

General Health Questionnaire - 12: General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) was originated by Goldberg (1972) and aims to assess the psychosomatic complaints of

individuals. It is a self-report survey and consists of 12 questions. The original survey consists of 28 questions; however, short version yielded strong cross-cultural reliability and validity. The questionnaire is scored on a 4 point Likert-type scale (0-1-2-3). The questionnaire was translated into Turkish by Kılıç (1996) and the questionnaire yielded satisfactory reliability and validity scores (.74 and .84 respectively).

2.3 Procedure

In this study, the Job Demands and Resources Scale (Xanthopolou et al., 2007) and the Dutch Work Addiction Scale (Schaufeli & Taris, 2004) were translated into Turkish. Both scales were asked from the developers of the scales and used by permission.

Once the scales were obtained, a multi-rated translation procedure was run. Three I/O psychology master students participated to the translation procedure. Each master student translated the scales and sent the surveys to each other via e-mail.

Afterwards, all three graduate students rated the quality of each and every translated sentence by considering the conceptual equivalence. Next, a pool was formed which consisted of the best rated items. At the last stage, the surveys were completed by the items which gained the best marks by all raters. Last, a pilot study was employed to examine the psychometric effects of translated scales. A total of 82 health care employees participated to the full study and were asked to complete the whole survey.

The translated scales were combined with the other scales which were used in this study. As a result, the full questionnaire consisting of previously available scales (MBI, UWES, GHQ, Organizational Commitment Scale and Work-Family Balance Scales) and the translated scales (Job Demands & Resources Scale and DUWAS) was generated. In addition, the demographic characteristics questionnaire, which consists of questions such as age, gender, education level, department, career length, tenure and number of subordinates. The aim to use the remaining scales was a possible combination of the pilot and the main sample. The full questionnaire can be found at the Appendices Part (Appendix A-K).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

The results are given in two parts. In the first part, the results of the pilot study will be reported. The results of the main study are presented in three sections: (1) Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of DUWAS; (2) the relationships between the constructs of this study, in other words, bivariate correlations; (3) particular model testing through the proposed hypothesis; and (4) the structural testing of the frameworks as a whole.

In the first section, the significant correlations, the means, standard deviations and the internal consistencies of the constructs are presented along with the results of some of the proposed hypotheses. In the second section, the psychometric properties of Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS) are examined. DUWAS previously did not have a Turkish version and was translated for this study. Therefore, in this study, the factor structure of the questionnaire was investigated. The figures to show item-correlations and reliabilities are presented. In the third section, the regression analyses results of singular paths were presented. In the fourth section, the proposed model, as a framework, is tested. The framework's construct is examined in detail by structural analysis.

3.1 The Results of the Pilot Study

The internal consistencies of the translated scales were examined in the pilot study phase. All the subscales yielded internal consistencies higher than .62. Only “overwork” dimension of DUWAS had a very poor alpha score (.44), therefore it

was marked as a problematic dimension among all other scales. The reliability properties of each scale will be given at the results part of the main study since an analysis done with 82 individuals might be misinterpreted or be misleading.

Only two items were discarded due to their very low correlations with the items of rest of the scale. In DUWAS, the first item “Fazla mesaiyi sevmem”, which means “I dislike overwork” was eliminated because this particular item decreases the internal consistency of overwork dimension to .21. This is not surprising when Turkish language characteristics are taken into account. In Turkish, negatively formed questions create ambiguity when answering. Both extreme answers may be perceived as the same meaning by the message taker. A second question is usually asked to confirm the meaning and reduce the ambiguity. When this item is taken into account both “never” and “always” responses may be perceived similar by the participants. This idea has also been supported by some participants’ verbal feedbacks. The second item that was discarded is the 13th item of organizational commitment questionnaire. The item is “Eğer bu kuruluşa kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim”, which means, “If I haven’t given so much for this organization, I would consider working somewhere else”. This item was discarded because it reduced the internal consistency of the continuance commitment scale to .55.

3.2 The Results of the Main Study

In this section, the result of the main study, including the proposed hypothesis and the CFA Analysis of DUWAS will be presented.

3.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS)

In this section, the factorial structure of DUWAS was investigated. As told earlier, DUWAS was translated into Turkish for this particular study and the factorial structure of DUWAS is being investigated for the first time. The original model that DUWAS assesses is a tridimensional model. Schaufeli and Taris (2004) originated Working Excessively dimension of DUWAS through Control Tendencies of Work Addiction Risk Test (WART – Robinson, 1999). On the other hand, Working Compulsively dimension was originated through the drive dimension of WorkBAT (Spence & Robbins, 1992). There are 4 additional items to assess overwork and working hours each.

The pilot study results showed reliable internal consistencies for each and every dimension of DUWAS. Only overwork dimension yielded an alpha score of .44, which was noted as a problematic construct. The rest of the scales, WE and WC yielded .64 and .66 alpha coefficients respectively. Therefore the data collection process continued without changing the survey.

The results of the full sample internal consistencies resemble to the pilot study results (see table 2). The only excluded item, “I dislike overwork” raised the reliability of overwork dimension, nevertheless, did not improve the reliability of the scale to an acceptable level. The confirmatory factor analysis began with the reported concerns.

SEM results indicated a poor fit of the data to both tridimensional and unidimensional models. However, the tridimensional model exhibited a better fit

Table 1. Comparison of Proposed and Modified Frameworks

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>GFI</i>	<i>AGFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>NNFI</i>
Unidimensional Model	152	472.24*	.82	.78	.10	.64	.60
Tridimensional Model	149	456.88*	.83	.79	.09	.66	.61

* $p < .05$

Df = Degrees of Freedom, GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Comparative Fit Index

indices compare to the unidimensional model. Table 1 presents the fit indices for both models. The applied tridimensional model yielded slightly better fit indices, χ^2 (149, N = 266) = 456.88, $p = 0.05$, CFI = .66, NNFI = .61. The relative fit indices were also better, GFI = .83, AGFI = .79, RMSEA = .09. Therefore a tridimensional model was used in this study. The factor loadings of the items are reported in Figure 11 (see Appendix L).

3.2.2 Correlations between All Measured Variables and Descriptive Statistics

This section contains the correlates among every measured variable. In addition, descriptive statistics and the internal consistencies of the constructs also reside in this division. All correlations, means, standard deviations and the internal consistencies are presented in Table 2.

As can be seen from the table, increase in age is associated with increased in autonomy, perceived efficacy, and vigor and continuance commitment. Increased education is significantly related to more change at work, less perceived opportunity for personal development, more emotional exhaustion, decrease in vigor and absorption and decrease in continuance commitment. The higher educational degree

an individual has; the lower work-family harmony he/she reports. The tenure of an employee, in other words the amount of time spent in current organization, was related to increase in emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout, decrease in overwork dimension of workaholism and increase in continuance commitment. On the other hand, career of an employee, in other words the amount of time spent in professional working life, was related to increased efficacy, compulsive working behavior, and dedication to work and both types of organizational commitment.

Work demands, which is one of the two measured antecedent of three kind of employee involvement was related to several variables. Workload exhibited association with two other work demands; emotional demands and changes at work. It also had a positive correlation with autonomy. Increase in workload was related to increase in emotional exhaustion, cynicism, working excessively, and absorption. On the other hand workload had a negative relation with work-family harmony. Changes at work, emotional demands and emotional dissonance were all positively interrelated. Emotional demands and dissonance also were positively correlated to exhaustion, efficacy, depersonalization, overwork, working compulsively and working excessively.

As for changes at work dimension, it was only not correlated to efficacy and working compulsively constructs but the rest. Emotional demands and changes at work were related to impaired health and work-family balance whereas emotional dissonance shows no relation. Last, changes at work were also related to decrease in affective commitment.

Work resources variables displayed positive and very significant relations among each other. Autonomy was related to increase in efficacy affective commitment and balanced work-family interaction. Colleague support, supervisory support and opportunities for personal development were negatively related to burnout constructs. Increase in colleague support was positively related to working compulsively. All of the job resources (autonomy, colleague support, coaching, and opportunities for personal development) were significantly and positively related to all of the work engagement dimensions (vigor, dedication and absorption). Colleague support and opportunities for personal development were also related to better health perception. Colleague and supervisory support and personal development opportunities in an organization were positively related to both ways of organizational commitment. Last, just like autonomy; the rest of the job resources variables had positive correlation with work-family harmony.

Emotional exhaustion, inefficacy (reduced personal accomplishment) and depersonalization (cynicism) dimensions of burnout were all positively correlated to each other. Reduction in efficacy was related to reduction in working compulsively. Increased exhaustion was related to increased overwork and increased excessive working. On the other hand, increase in emotional exhaustion was related to decreased vigor, dedication, absorption, affective and continuance commitment and impaired health and work-life balance. Similar to emotional exhaustion; inefficacy and depersonalization were also negatively correlated all the rest of the

Table 2. Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations and the Reliabilities of the Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Age	-												
2. Gender	.06	-											
3. Education	-.08	-.30**	-										
4. Tenure	.68**	-.05	-.04	-									
5. Career	.87**	.14*	-.30**	.73**	-								
6. Workload	.14*	-.11	.09	.21**	.13	(.66)							
7. Emotional Demands	.16*	.05	.04	.11	.15*	.32**	(.73)						
8. Emotional Dissonance	-.08	.02	.11	-.02	-.03	.08	.36**	(.74)					
9. Changes at Work	-.08	-.11	.19**	-.09	-.11	.25**	.30**	.14*	(.75)				
10. Autonomy	.14*	-.01	.06	.08	.11	.15*	.12	.02	.05	(.66)			
11. Colleague Support	.01	.05	-.02	-.05	.01	-.11	-.06	.07	.06	.31**	(.75)		
12. Supervisory Support	.00	.07	-.03	-.09	.01	.00	.00	.02	.05	.33**	.38**	(.92)	
13. OPD	.08	.12	-.19**	-.02	.13	.04	-.07	.05	.10	.35**	.30**	.48**	(.83)
14. Emotional Exhaustion	.04	-.03	.19**	.14*	.01	.31**	.35**	.16**	.34**	-.06	-.28**	-.26**	-.40**
15. Inefficacy	-.14*	-.11	.09	-.02	-.18**	-.05	-.12*	-.17**	.05	-.25**	-.30**	-.18**	-.35**
16. Depersonalization	-.01	.05	.12	.03	-.02	.22**	.40**	.18**	.38**	-.09	-.28**	-.14*	-.22**
17. Overwork	-.08	.00	.06	-.15*	-.05	.10	.25**	.27**	.16**	.09	.01	-.03	.00
18. W. Compulsively	.12	.00	-.08	.03	.16*	.10	.24**	.24**	.03	.03	.13*	-.01	.02
19. W. Excessively	.09	-.11	.02	.10	.11	.21**	.34**	.21**	.23**	.11	.03	.05	.05
20. Vigor	.07	.01	-.15*	-.06	.09	.05	-.02	.11	-.08	.23**	.27**	.32**	.41**
21. Dedication	.13*	.12	-.21**	-.05	.17**	.08	-.04	.10	-.05	.26**	.28**	.30**	.53**
22. Absorption	.15*	.01	-.09	-.02	.13	.15*	.06	.12	.00	.20**	.16**	.27**	.37**
23. Perceived Health	.12	-.05	.06	.10	.08	.11	.15*	-.08	.14*	-.06	-.16*	-.09	-.26**
24. Affective Commitment	.08	-.04	-.02	.10	.14*	.02	-.12	.07	-.14*	.22**	.23**	.21**	.29**
25. Continuance Commitment	.15*	.04	-.17**	.20**	.26**	.02	.05	.12	-.02	.04	.14*	.12*	.21**
26. Work-Life Harmony	.10	.05	-.27**	.06	.16*	-.19**	-.15*	-.06	-.17**	.14*	.28**	.27**	.40**
Mean	32,88		3,38	7,17	13,08	3,21	2,38	3,03	2,51	3,69	3,85	3,41	3,86
Standard Deviation	9,29		.96	7,80	8,57	.82	.72	.85	.76	.97	1,03	1,15	.97

Table 2. Continued

Variables	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
14. Emotional Exhaustion	(.88)												
15. Inefficacy	.17**	(.79)											
16. Depersonalization	.71**	.17**	(.77)										
17. Overwork	.15*	-.13*	.21**	(.26)									
18. W. Compulsively	.05	-.32**	.08	.42**	(.64)								
19. W. Excessively	.26**	-.13*	.28**	.51**	.57**	(.65)							
20. Vigor	-.44**	-.33**	-.35**	.13*	.21**	.13*	(.80)						
21. Dedication	-.49**	-.38**	-.38**	.13*	.17**	.13*	.78**	(.82)					
22. Absorption	-.29**	-.23**	-.22**	.21**	.31**	.26**	.76**	.75**	(.79)				
23. Perceived Health	.34**	.26**	.29**	-.01	-.07	.09	-.36**	-.31**	-.21**	(.81)			
24. Affective Commitment	-.41**	-.39**	-.32**	.04	.22**	.07	.44**	.46**	.31**	-.40**	(.72)		
25. Continuance Commitment	-.22**	-.18**	-.08	.02	.27**	.20**	.28**	.30**	.28**	-.17**	.39**	(.76)	
26. Work-Life Harmony	-.53**	-.28**	-.38**	-.13*	.08	-.07	.39**	.43**	.31**	-.32**	.43**	.24**	(.77)
Mean	1,18	1,26	.78	2,35	2,71	2,35	4,57	4,57	4,22	2,07	5,00	4,98	3,40
Standard Deviation	.82	.67	.78	.62	.55	.51	.93	1,08	1,00	.55	1,06	1,34	.71

Note. OPD = Opportunities for Personal Development; W. Excessively = Working Excessively; W. Compulsively = Working Compulsively; Gender 1 = Women 2 = Men; Level of Education 1 = Primary School, 2 = Secondary School, 3 = High School, 4 = Bachelor's Degree, 5 = Master's Degree or Higher; Job Demands and Job Resources 1 = Never, 5 = Always; Burnout 0 = Never, 4 = Always; Workaholism 1 = (Almost) Never, 4 = (Almost) Always; Work Engagement 0 = Never, 6 = Always (Everyday); Perceived Health 1 = Better than Usual, 4 = Much Worse than Usual; Affective & Continuance Organizational Commitment 1 = Absolutely Disagree, 7 = Absolutely Agree; Work-Family Harmony 1 = Absolutely Disagree, 5 = Absolutely Agree. Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in parenthesis. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 3. Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations and the Reliabilities of the Major Constructs

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Age	-												
2. Gender	.06	-											
3. Education	-.08	-.30**	-										
4. Tenure	.67**	-.05	-.04	-									
5. Career	.87**	.14*	-.30**	.73**	-								
6. Job Demands	.03	-.05	.17**	.06	.03	(.81)							
7. Job Resources	.04	.09	-.07	-.06	.06	.05	(.88)						
8. Burnout	-.05	-.05	.19**	.08	-.08	.37**	-.42**	(.87)					
9. Work Engagement	.13	.04	-.16*	-.04	.14*	.05	.44**	-.50**	(.92)				
10. Workaholism	.08	-.06	-.01	.04	.12	.37**	.06	.09	.25**	(.80)			
11. Perceived Health	.12	-.05	.06	.10	.08	.12*	-.18**	.40**	-.32**	.01	(.81)		
12. Organizational Com.	.13*	.00	-.11	.17*	.23**	-.02	.30**	-.46**	.46**	.22**	-.36**	(.79)	
13. Work-Family Harmony	.10	.05	-.27**	.06	.16*	-.21**	.37**	-.55**	.41**	-.03	-.32**	.42**	(.77)
Mean	32,88		3,38	7,17	13,08	2,72	3,66	1,12	4,45	2,48	2,07	4,99	3,40
Standard Deviation	9,29		.96	7,80	8,57	.52	.79	.58	.92	.45	.55	.97	.71

Note. OPD = Opportunities for Personal Development; W. Excessively = Working Excessively; W. Compulsively = Working Compulsively; Gender 1 = Women 2 = Men; Level of Education 1 = Primary School, 2 = Secondary School, 3 = High School, 4 = Bachelor's Degree, 5 = Master's Degree or Higher; Job Demands and Job Resources 1 = Never, 5 = Always; Burnout 0 = Never, 4 = Always; Workaholism 1 = (Almost) Never, 4 = (Almost) Always; Work Engagement 0 = Never, 6 = Always (Everyday); Perceived Health 1 = Better than Usual, 4 = Much Worse than Usual; Affective & Continuance Organizational Commitment 1 = Absolutely Disagree, 7 = Absolutely Agree; Work-Family Harmony 1 = Absolutely Disagree, 5 = Absolutely Agree. Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in parenthesis. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

other variables. Only, there was no relation between depersonalization and continuance commitment.

3.2.3 Correlations between Major Study Variables and Descriptive Statistics

As for the major study variables, the relationships did not appear different than the earlier section. All the correlations are presented in Table 3. According to the analysis, increased age was related to increase in organizational commitment. The increase in education level was positively correlated to increase in job demands, burnout, better work-family interaction and decrease in work engagement. Tenure and career were positively related to organizational commitment and career is also related to work engagement. Longer career was also related to better work-family harmony.

As the job demands increased, burnout increased as well. Also increased job demands had relation with high levels of workaholism. On the other hand, the increase in job demands impaired perceived health and work-family balance. Job resources, contrary to job demands, was related to low levels of burnout and high levels of work engagement. The increases in job demands were also related to more favorable health perception, organizational commitment and better work-family harmony. Job demands and job resources were uncorrelated. Thus, the first path was not supported. From the view of job demands and resources to involvement types; job demands were uncorrelated to work engagement whereas job resources are uncorrelated to workaholism.

The three types of job involvement types exhibited relations close to expected. Burnout was negatively correlated to work engagement and uncorrelated to workaholism. Burnout was also negatively correlated to well-being in terms of health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony. Work engagement was positively correlated to workaholism. This relationship was an interesting finding and will be interpreted in the results part. Increase in work engagement led to all desired consequences such as better health, more commitment to organization and positive work-family relationship. Workaholism only showed a significant relationship with organizational commitment and the direction of the relationship was positive.

As for the outcomes, perceived well-being, organizational commitment and work-family balance all were intercorrelated positively.

3.2.4 Hypothesis Testing for Proposed Paths and Particular Regression Analysis

In this part, the relations of major study variables will be examined through a series of regression analysis. Multiple regression analysis will be employed to test the effects of independent variables on dependent variables. In this section, mediation proposals will also be examined. The tables and figures to exhibit the actual relations will be presented.

Before starting the analysis, basic data screening steps were fulfilled. Also, no difference between pilot sample and the hotel employee sample was found for any variables. The analysis was finally started with 266 subjects. In addition,

bootstrapping was employed in every regression analysis. The bootstrapping was set on 1000 bootstrap samples by default on PASW Statistics 18 application.

Hypothesis 1 which examines the meditational effect of burnout, a series of multiple regression analyses were applied. As for testing this mediation, the steps of Baron and Kenny (1986) was considered. The steps of Baron and Kenny (1986) are as follows:

- a) The independent variable must predict the dependent variable significantly.
- b) The independent variable must predict the mediating variable significantly.
- c) The mediating variable must predict the dependent variable significantly.
- d) When the mediating variable is placed in the equation simultaneously with the independent variable, the effect of independent variable on the dependent variable must decrease.

These widely accepted steps are employed for testing the entire proposed hypothesis in this study. To start with the analysis of burnout antecedents and consequences, first of all the effects of job demands and job resources was examined. Hypothesis 1 suggested that burnout would mediate the relationship between two antecedents, job demands and job resources, and three consequences, perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family balance. Hypothesis 1 was tested in 3 steps. In each step, one consequence was taken into analysis. To start with, the first consequence is taken as perceived health.

Results of this regression analysis showed that job demands ($\beta = .39, t = 7.67, p < .001$) and job resources ($\beta = -.44, t = -8.71, p < .001$) predict burnout significantly. The relationship between burnout and perceived health was found significant ($r = -.46, p < .01$) previously. Job demands ($\beta = .13, t = 2.19, p < .05$) and job resources ($\beta = -.19, t = -3.11, p < .01$) also predicted the perceived health significantly. The relationship between job demands and job resources explained 5% of the total variance of perceived health. However, when a sequential regression analysis was run, the direct effect of job demands and job resources on perceived health, when burnout is entered as the mediator, decreased. Both job demands and job resources lost their significance, whereas burnout emerged as a solid indicator ($\beta = .40, t = 5.81, p < .001$). This model explained 16% of the total variance, making an 11 point improvement. Sobel test results also supported that this mediation is significant both for job demands ($z = 4.70, p < .001$) and job resources ($z = 5.11, p < .001$)

Table 4 Results of the Analyses for Testing Hypotesis 1 (first path)

	Beta	<i>t</i>	Sig.	R ²	R ² Change	Sig. R ² Change	<i>F</i>
Step 1				.050	.050	.001	6.84**
Job Demands	.13	2.19	.030				
Job Resources	-.19	-3.11	.002				
Step 2				.160	.110	.000	16.39**
Job Demands	-.02	-.32	.749				
Job Resources	-.01	-.18	.862				
Burnout	.40	5.81	.000				

Dependent Variable is Perceived Health

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

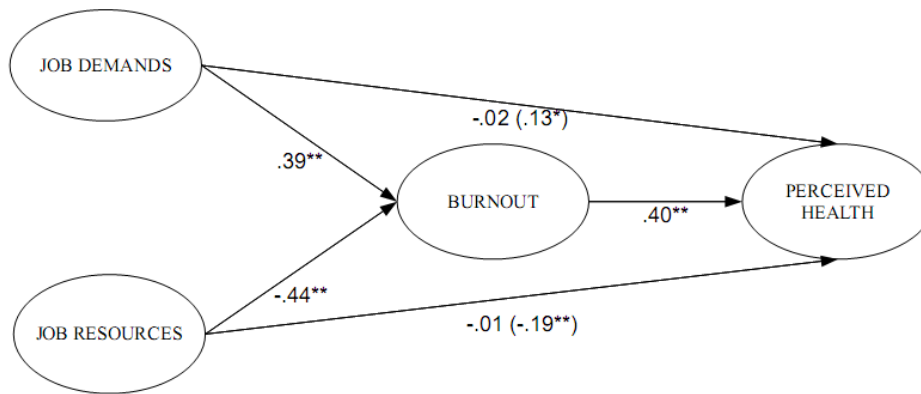


Figure 3. Mediation of burnout between job demands & resources and perceived health.

There was not a significant relationship found between job demands and organizational commitment (see Table 3). Therefore, the meditational effect of burnout over job demands was discarded. In this step, only the meditational effect of burnout between job resources and organizational commitment was examined. There is a significant relationship between job resources and burnout ($\beta = -.42, t = -7.52, p < .001$) as well as a significant relationship burnout and organizational commitment ($\beta = -.47, t = -8.31, p < .001$). Lastly, all three variables were entered in the same equation as job resources were entered in the first step and burnout in the second when organizational commitment is the dependent variable. The results showed that job resources predict organizational commitment significantly ($\beta = .30, t = 5.17, p < .001$) explaining 9% of the variance. When burnout was entered to the regression in the second step, the effect of job resources decreased, but maintained its significance ($\beta = .14, t = 2.28, p < .05$). The effect of burnout on organizational commitment was quite strong and explained 4% more of the total variance ($\beta = -.40, t = -6.64, p < .001$). Sobel test statistics show that the mediation is significant ($z = 4.46, p < .001$).

The results show that burnout partly mediates the effect of job resources on organizational commitment.

Table 5 Results of the Analyses for Testing Hypotesis 1 (Second Path)

	Beta	<i>t</i>	Sig.	R ²	R ² Change	Sig. R ² Change ²	<i>F</i>
Step 1				.092	.092	.000	26.72**
Job Resources	.30	5.17	.000				
Step 2				.223	.131	.000	37.62**
Job Resources	.14	2.28	.024				
Burnout	-.40	-6.64	.000				

Dependent Variable is Organizational Commitment

**p* < .05

** *p* < .01

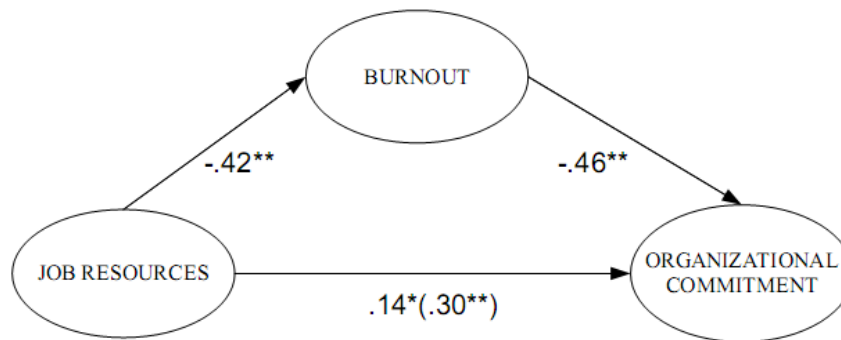


Figure 4. Mediation of burnout between job resources and organizational commitment.

As for the job demands and resources, burnout and work-family harmony (WFH), the meditational was tested as well. Both job demands ($\beta = -.24, t = -4.21, p < .001$) and job resources ($\beta = .39, t = 6.91, p < .001$) predict WFH significantly. Burnout also predicted WFH significantly ($\beta = -.55, t = -10.53, p < .001$). The prediction among job demands and resources and burnout was indicated earlier. When all of the variables were entered in the equation, the significance of job demands totally

disappeared. The significance of job resources was maintained but the effect of job resources was reduced ($\beta = .18, t = 3.31, p < .001$). The Sobel test results showed that the partial mediation of burnout over job resources was significant ($z = 6.56, p < .001$). For job demands, the Sobel Test results were also significant ($z = 5.09, p < .001$) proving the full mediation effect of burnout over job demands. Job demands and job resources accounted for the 19% of the variance, however, burnout contribute significantly, increasing the explained variance to 33%. To sum up, hypothesis 1 was partly supported.

Table 6 Results of the Analyses for Testing Hypotesis 1 (Third Path)

	Beta	<i>t</i>	Sig.	R ²	R ² Change	Sig. R ² Change ²	<i>F</i>
Step 1				.193	.193	.000	31.13**
Job Demands	.24	-4.21	.001				
Job Resources	.39	6.91	.001				
Step 2				.327	.134	.000	41.95**
Job Demands	-.06	-1.14	.225				
Job Resources	.19	3.32	.001				
Burnout	-.44	-7.18	.000				

Dependent Variable is Work-Family Harmony

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

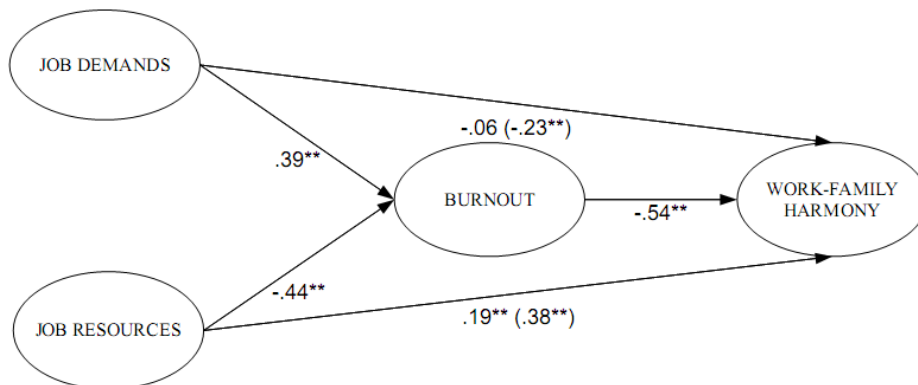


Figure 5. Mediation of burnout between job demands & resources and work-family balance.

For the meditational effects of work engagement, the same procedure was followed. First of all the relationship between job resources and workaholism was examined. The results show that the job resources predicted workaholism significantly ($\beta = .44$, $t = 8.00$, $p < .001$). Work engagement also predicted perceived health, as well ($\beta = -.32$, $t = -5.35$, $p < .001$). Once more, it must be stressed out that the health questionnaire was coded reversely. Therefore, low points on GHQ refer to more favorable health condition. In this example, the increased level of work engagement led to well perceived health. The relationship between job resources with perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family balance was presented in the mediation section of burnout as they are all significant. Last, the mediation analysis was employed. Results showed that when the work engagement was included to the regression in the second step, it dispelled the significance of job resources over perceived health totally. Moreover, work engagement still predicted perceived health significantly ($\beta = -.29$, $t = -4.44$, $p < .001$). The Sobel Test statistics showed that the full mediation is significant ($z = 6.06$, $p < .001$). The model accounted for the 10% of

Table 7 Results of the Analyses for Testing Hypotesis 2 (First Path)

	Beta	t	Sig.	R ²	R ² Change	Sig. R ² Change	F
Step 1				.033	.033	.003	8.76**
Job Resources	-.19	-2.96	.004				
Step 2				.102	.069	.000	14.79**
Job Resources	-.05	-.79	.424				
Work Engagement	-.29	-4.44	.000				

Dependent Variable is Perceived Health

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

the variance, with the 7 % improvement of burnout inclusion.

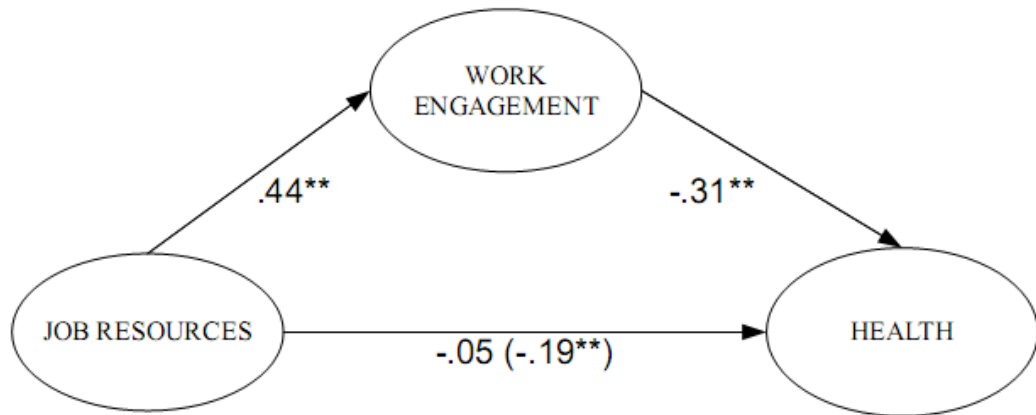


Figure 6. Mediation of work engagement between job resources and perceived health.

The second mediational expectation of work engagement was between job resources and organizational commitment. Results showed that work engagement predict organizational commitment significantly ($\beta = .46, t = 8.26, p < .001$). Previous analyses have shown that job resources predict work engagement and organizational commitment. Therefore, the mediational analysis was started. The results showed that there is a partial mediation between job resources and organizational commitment when work engagement was taken into account. The effect of job resources were still significant but the power was decreased ($\beta = .13, t = 2.10, p < .05$). The model increases the explained variance from 9% to 22% and Sobel Test results showed that this partial mediation is significant ($z = 5.67, p < .001$).

Table 8 Results of the Analyses for Testing Hypotesis 2 (Second Path)

	Beta	t	Sig.	R ²	R ² Change	Sig. R ² Change	F
Step 1				.092	.092	.000	26.63**
Job Resources	.30	5.18	.000				
Step 2				.219	.127	.000	36.76**
Job Resources	.13	2.10	.036				
Work Engagement	.40	6.53	.000				

Dependent Variable is Organizational Commitment

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

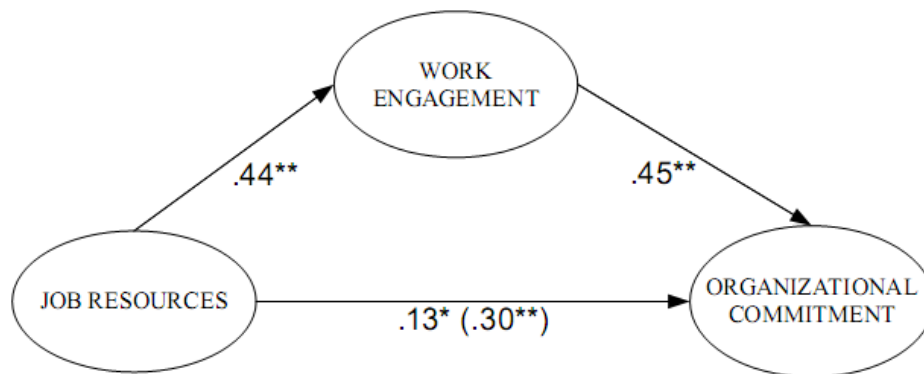


Figure 7. Mediation of work engagement between job resources and perceived organizational commitment.

For the final meditational analysis, the effect of work engagement over job resources and work-family harmony was tested. As mentioned earlier, the job resources predict work engagement and work-family harmony significantly. Therefore, only the relationship between work engagement and work-family balance was tested and it was found that work engagement predicts work-family balance significantly ($\beta = .41$, $t = 7.20$, $p < .001$). The mediation analysis showed that work engagement reduces the

effect of job demands ($\beta = .24, t = 3.88, p < .001$) but job demands maintains its significance. Sobel Test supported that the meditational model was significant ($z = 6.14, p < .001$) and this model accounted for the 20% of the variance, creating a 6% improvement. As a result, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Table 9 Results of the Analyses for Testing Hypotesis 2 (Third Path)

	Beta	<i>t</i>	Sig.	R ²	R ² Change	Sig. R ² Change	<i>F</i>
Step 1				.137	.137	.000	41.77**
Job Resources	.37	6.46	.000				
Step 2				.209	.072	.000	34.84**
Job Resources	.24	3.87	.000				
Work Engagement	.30	4.91	.000				

Dependent Variable is Work-Family Balance

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

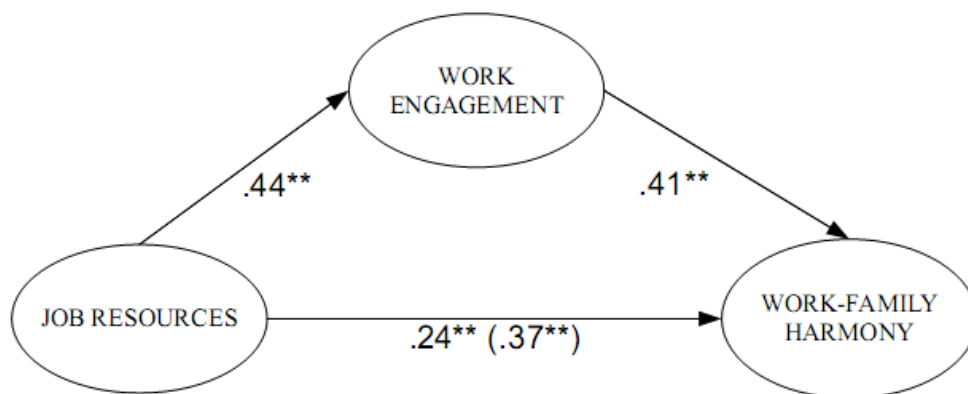


Figure 8. Mediation of work engagement between job resources and work-life harmony.

The regression analyses showed that there is not a significant relationship between workaholism and perceived health. No significant relationship was found either between workaholism and work-family harmony either. In this sense, Hypothesis 3 was rejected. A significant relationship was only found between workaholism and

organizational commitment ($\beta = .22, t = 3.65, p < .001$). Job demands also predicts workaholism significantly ($\beta = .37, t = 6.45, p < .001$). However, job demands do not predict organizational commitment. Hence, a possible unexpected meditational relationship was not tested due to the steps of Baron et al. (1986) and Hypothesis 3 was rejected.

3.2.5 The Structural Testing of the Framework

The framework was tested by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). For the analysis, LISREL 8.8 Students' Version (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1989) was employed. The analysis was conducted using the covariance matrix and the framework was defined as a whole in the analysis. Maximum likelihood estimation was employed to examine the structure of the framework. The goodness-of-fit indices were examined through χ^2 , Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI).

Last but not least, a proposed framework would show satisfactory goodness-of-fit indices and explain the antecedents and the consequences of burnout, work engagement and workaholism. According to the framework, a negative relationship was expected among job demands and job resources. Job resources would show a negative relationship with burnout whereas burnout would show a positive relationship. Burnout would predict less favorable well-being in terms of health, disattachment from organization and work-family conflict. Job demands would predict workaholism positively and just like burnout, a negative relationship was expected among workaholism to perceived health and work-family harmony. No relationship was expected between workaholism and organizational commitment.

Last, job resources would predict work engagement positively, and work engagement would show positive relations with perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family balance.

Table 10 presents the fit indices of proposed and modified frameworks. As seen in the table, the proposed framework shows acceptable fit indices; however the goodness-of-fit was not perfect. Results supported the hypothesized model, $\chi^2 (13, N = 266) = 47.71, p = 0.00$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .95. The relative fit indices were also acceptable, GFI = .96, AGFI = .88, RMSEA = .10, SRMR = .06. Sumer (2000) argues that values over .90 for GFI, AGFI, CFI and NNFI; and lower values than .10 for RMSEA indicate good fit of the model. In the proposed model, AGFI and RMSEA lacked these psychometric properties. Therefore, it can be argued that the framework was supported, however, necessitates further attention when interpreting.

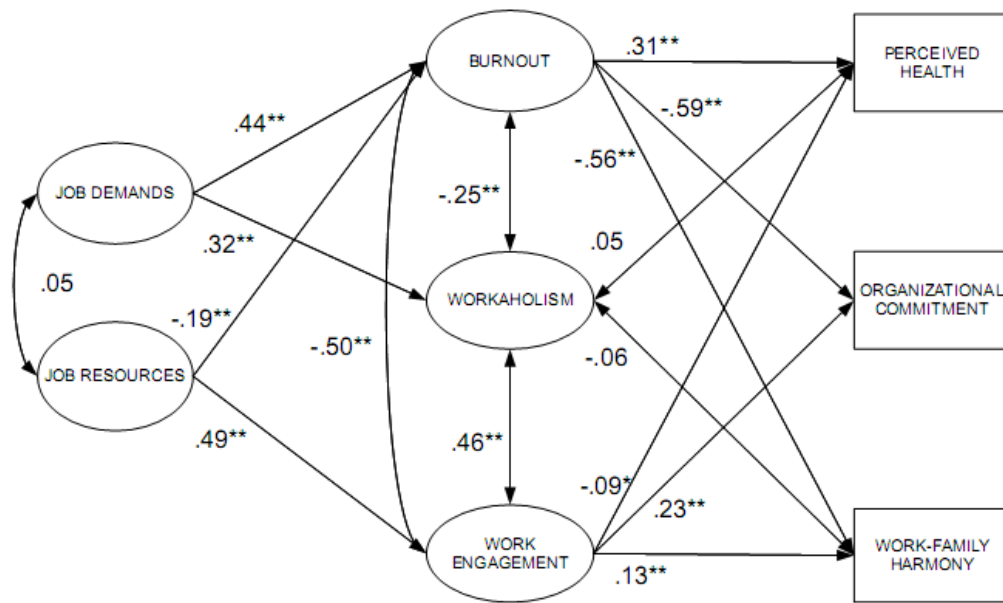


Figure 9. Regression weights of the proposed model . * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

Table 10. Comparison of Proposed and Modified Frameworks

	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>GFI</i>	<i>AGFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>NNFI</i>
Proposed Model	13	47.71**	.96	.88	.10	.95	.90
Modified Model	14	34.25*	.97	.92	.08	.97	.94

** $p < .001$ * $p < .005$

df = Degrees of Freedom, *GFI* = Goodness of Fit Index; *AGFI* = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index, *RMSEA* = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; *CFI* = Comparative Fit Index; *NNFI* = Non-Normed Comparative Fit Index

A second framework was tested according to the modification suggestions of the software. In the modified model, the relationship between job demand and resources was omitted. In addition, the paths from workaholism to health and work-family balanced were excluded and a new path from workaholism to organizational commitment was placed. The new fit indices presented better fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 (14, N = 266) = 34.25, p = 0.005, CFI = .97$. The relative fit indices were

also better, GFI = .97, AGFI = .92, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .05. The modified model increased the goodness-of-fit of the model significantly ($\chi^2 (1, N = 266) = 13.46 p < .001$). Therefore, the modified model will be discussed in the results section.

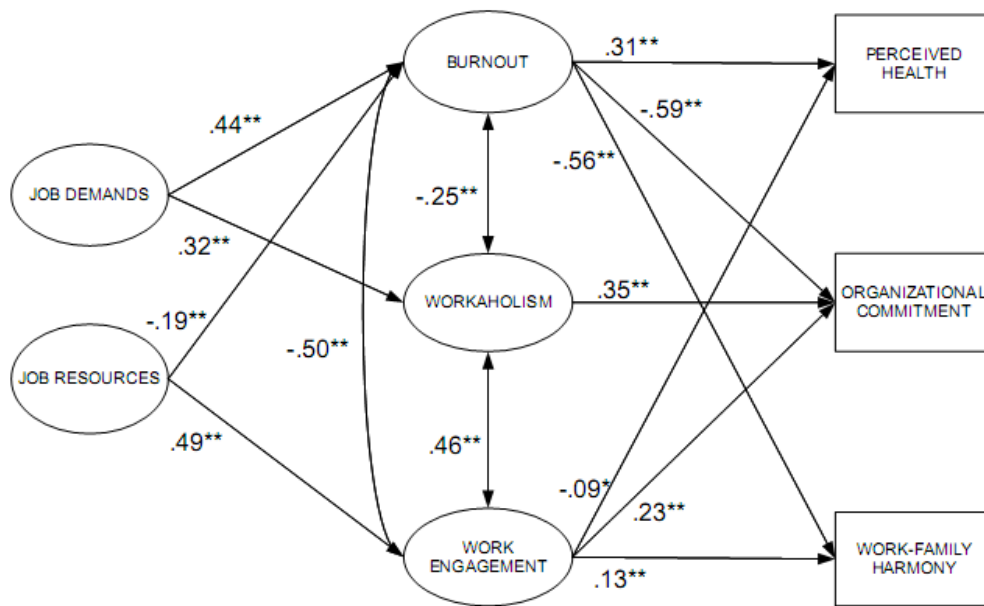


Figure 10. Regression weights of the modified model. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSIONS

The present study aims to enhance the literature of Job Demands-Resources Model, the relationship of JD-R Model with burnout, workaholism and work engagement and particular work outcomes such as perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony. The results of the study provide comprehensive evidence to interpret the relationships among these constructs and broaden the horizon of occupational health psychology. In this section, the results of this study are interpreted in detail, the contributions of the study are discussed and the limitations of the study are emphasized. Suggestions for future researchers and practical implications for the managers are also presented.

4.1 Evaluation of the Findings

The results of the study supported majority of the hypothesis. More importantly, the proposed framework exhibited a good fit. Thus, the results present concrete relationships among tested constructs. In this section, the findings will be interpreted solely and as a whole.

Contrary to the findings in the literature (Xanthopolou et al., 2007; Hakanen et al., 2008), there was no relationship found between job demands and job resources, hence one of the paths of the proposed model was not supported. Demerouti and colleagues (2001) advocate that job resources facilitate the employees to cope with sustaining job demands. This explanation is expected to be supported in this study, as well. However, the link between the two job characteristics appeared to be very

weak. One reason of this result might be that the selected job demands and resources are unrelated with each other in nature. The job demands used in this study were workload, emotional demands, emotional dissonance and changes at work, whereas the job resources are autonomy, colleague support, emotional support and opportunities for personal development. When each component is taken into account individually, only autonomy and workload show a negative and significant relationship. The rest of the demands and resources were not found related to each other. Xanthopolou et al. (2007) employed the same demands and resources and found relationship between one and other. A same domain of relationship was also expected in this research as well. The unrelated domain of job demands and resources may stem from the culture. It can be argued that the Turkish sample may not perceive the job demands and resources as conflicting figures, but natural content of jobs. Another plausible explanation is the difference of occupation between two studies. The study of Xanthopolou et al. (2007) was completed by electrical engineering and electronics company; whereas this study is conducted on hotel employee. In this sense, there might be difference in between these occupations in terms of job demands and resources.

The job demands and job resources predicted burnout significantly. As expected, there is a negative relationship between job resources and burnout, whereas a positive relationship between job demands and burnout. Job resources also predict work engagement significantly. These findings are consistent with the core of JD-R model. As seen in Figure 3, positive aspects of work lead to positive attachment of the employee. On the other hand, sustaining job demands cause employee to feel

exhaustion, therefore cause burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001). Hakanen et al. (2006) argue that job resources are seen as instrumental for the employees to achieve their tasks in work, as well as constitute engagement to their jobs. The results of this study supports this statement as job resources had high influence on work engagement. The results of Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) also are consistent with the findings of current study. Their sample reported a high association between high job demands and increased burnout as well. Likewise, decreased job resources predict burnout as well as low levels of engagement in their study. The support for the paths from job demands and resources to organizational attachment styles is highly important as they are consistent with prevalent research.

As can be seen from the results and the literature, increased job demands lead to either disengagement of the employee (burnout) or an unfavorable attachment (workaholism). On the other hand, job resources are solid indicators of work engagement and lack of resources, again, lead to burnout. The relationships among the mentioned job characteristics and attachment types are very strong, therefore must be interpreted meticulously. It is obvious that every job would possess some demands and resources in their context. However, balancing these two is a very important managerial issue. A perfect balance among two job characteristics leads to desirable job-organization-employee interaction. This is the fundamental argument of JD-R Model and the model is strengthened with the results of the current research. In the light of these findings, sustaining job demands threaten the desired attachment of employees, and may cause them to experience burnout or workaholism. To eliminate

these negative effects, job resources can be increased as increased job resources lead to lessen the burnout and increase work engagement.

The link between job demands and workaholism is as important as the links to work engagement and burnout. JD-R Model previously concerned the work engagement and burnout; and significantly fewer studies examined the relationship between workaholism and job demands. For example, Taris et al. (2008) and Beckers et al. (2004) found significant relationships between job demands and workaholism; however these studies were not conducted in the JD-R Model. The present study results are the first findings to be completed in the domain of JD-R Model, thus, expand the current model to a new horizon. The relationship between job demands and workaholism is, certainly, not a surprise. The survey to assess workaholism, DUWAS, consists of dimensions those are directly related to job demands (overwork and working excessively). Nevertheless, the working compulsively dimension is a concrete factor to distinguish burnout and workaholism, since both are predicted by job demands. Moreover, no relationship was found between workaholism and job resources, whereas there is a negative relationship of job resources with burnout and a positive relationship with work engagement. This is an evidence to suggest that work engagement, burnout and workaholism are not of the same kind but three different kinds of attachments (Schaufeli et al., 2007). To demonstrate the difference of each work attachment style, a table is shown below:

Table 11. The Summary of Found Relationships of Burnout, Work Engagement and Workaholism

	Burnout	Work Engagement	Workaholism
Job Demands	+	0	+
Job Resources	-	-	0
Better Health	-	+	0
Organizational Commitment	-	+	+
Work-Family Harmony	-	+	-

Snir and Harpaz (2004) argue that workaholics possess different personality characteristics than do engaged workers. The work engagement constructs also show high correlation with the workaholism constructs. Especially, absorption shows very high association with all three workaholism dimensions. Schaufeli et al. (2007) noticed the same relationship in their study and they interpret this finding characterizing workaholism as reluctance to disengage from work and compulsory indulgence in work. This definition is a successful approach to clarify the personality characteristics of workaholism. Among three dimensions of workaholism, overwork appeared as the weakest indicator. Two explanations can be made about this finding. First, personality characteristics of workaholism might be a better indicator of workaholism than the job demands. Therefore, the questions, concerning excessive and compulsive working might be used as the concrete dynamics of the phenomenon. Second, the overwork scale yielded a very poor internal consistency. Therefore, a second study in Turkish language is needed to strengthen the relation of overwork and workaholism.

Burnout was found to be related to impaired health in many studies. Obviously, the exhaustion level is one of the most significant predictors of impaired health (Bakker

et al., 2003). In this study, exhaustion also appeared as the core dimension of burnout, showing very strong relationships with every proposed variable. The rest of the burnout components, which are inefficacy and depersonalization, also exhibited very significant associations with unfavorable health condition. As expected, work engagement showed a positive and significant relationship with perceived health. Both of the findings are consistent with the literature. In this sense, it can be argued that constituting a healthy relationship with work also enables physical health.

An unexpected finding was the insignificant relationship between workaholism and perceived health. This finding is contrary to the previous literature in which workaholism was a concrete indicator of impaired health, cardiovascular heart disease and even death. Smoking, alcohol abuse, insomnia, cardiovascular heart disease and myocardial infarction are found to be related to hard working conditions (Karasek et al., 1998, Le Blanc et al. 2008). Even though, in the industrial societies, the death incidents caused by cardiovascular diseases decrease (Liao & Cooper, 1995); the number of cardiovascular disease cases has not decreased . In Japan, there is even a word, *karoshi*, which means “death from overwork”. However, in this study, there was no relationship between these two variables. One plausible explanation might be that, the present study used non clinical data. The low level of workaholism within this sample might have distorted the relationship of workaholism construct with the rest of the variables. Especially a negative relationship between workaholism and health was strongly expected. The absence of this relationship should be remarked by following researchers. Nonetheless, at least a weak but significant relationship would have appeared between two constructs. A second

explanation might be the poor statistical characteristics of the DUWAS - Turkish Version since the dimensions had low internal consistency reliabilities. This fact should be taken into account by the future researchers. Therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution.

Organizational commitment is, as expected, related to both burnout and work engagement, which supports the prevalent data in the literature (Hakanen et al., 2008, Wasti, 2002). Not surprisingly, work engagement led to more commitment to the organization whereas burnout predicted the vice-versa. This finding is important for the organizations to keep employees within the organization, who are willing to give more. The unexpected finding was the significant relationship between workaholism and organizational commitment. As told within the context of workaholism hypothesis, workaholics report more career commitment than organizational commitment. Yet, the significant relationship in this study can be interpreted as workaholics being also committed to the organization. This result supports the findings of Burke and Köksal (2002). Nevertheless, the finding that workaholism is related to high job demands is a reason to question the commitment of the workaholics. A realistic explanation would be that, workaholism is related to overwork and workload, thus workaholics report commitment to the organization to reduce the dissonance.

As for work-life harmony, the expected relations with burnout and work engagement are significant. Furthermore, job demands and job resources predict work-family enhancement significantly. Therefore, the balance between job demands and resources not only constitute a healthy employee profile, but also help employees to

create a healthy work-life balance. These findings are consistent with the literature (Bakker, Schaufeli, Demerouti, 2005). Bakker and Demerouti (2008) also found a crossover effect of work engagement among working couples. In this study, the healthy work-life balance, or work-family enhancement is labeled as work-life harmony. There are two reasons for this denomination. First of all, the burden between work and life is not as strict as before. People are highly accessible through numerous technological devices (cell phones, laptops etc.) and there is vital importance to set the balance in between two. The vice-versa is also valid. People may have to solve home problems when working or take care of the home issues when at work. In other words, there is not a concrete work life or home life definition. The two are not independent, and even further, within one and other. In this sense, the harmony between the two is essential in terms of constituting a healthy well-being. Second, the effect of positive psychology is expanding and to maintain the well-being instead of fixing the unfavorable is much more effective. In other words, taking care of the good aspect is proactive and will keep the unhealthy condition remote. Through the light of these information, work-life harmony may be applied as a suitable term to define the relationship among work and life, consisting both facilitation and conflict.

Workaholism did not present a significant relationship with work-family harmony. This result is quite surprising and unexpected. Bonebright et al. (2000) and Robinson et al. (2001) reported increased work-family conflict and marital estrangement, respectively in their studies. Once more, the low internal consistency indices of workaholism might have influenced these results.

The proposed relationship between workaholism and work-family harmony was one of the key aspects of this study. Only overwork dimension showed a significant association with work-family harmony and it is, as expected, negative. Working excessively and working compulsively components of workaholism did not predict work-family harmony. A plausible explanation is the probability of workaholics not sensing impairment in their work to family interference. Workaholics may tend to feel more family-to-work conflict than work-to-family conflict as they are satisfied with their work and organizations. Since only work-to-family conflict and work-to-family facilitation were investigated in this study, the actual variance of workaholism over work-life harmony might be unveiled.

In this study, there are more men participants than women participants. In traditional Turkish family structure, men are rated as responsible for working and women are responsible for performing house demands. Therefore, a second explanation for the insignificant relation between workaholism and work-family harmony is that, more men tend to think that they are not responsible for fulfilling the home demands. In other words, family demands do not interfere with their work demands, so they do not feel a conflict in their work-family relationship. Bicaksiz (2009) also argues that women tend to feel home responsibilities are more demanding than men. This argument supports the idea of Turkish family structure having less demands for men, hence for the sample of this study.

Some important outcomes have been found by the meditational hypothesis. The results show that burnout mediates the effect of job demands and job resources on perceived health (Schaufeli et al., 2004), organizational commitment and work-

family balance. Work engagement has the same effect on job resources. There is mediation between job resources with perceived health, organizational commitment and work-family harmony. The findings once more imply the importance of work attachment styles. It can clearly be seen that burnout and work engagement mediate the effects of job demands and resources. Therefore, theoretically, it can be argued that job demands and resources are essential to determine the work attachment style, and the work attachment style strongly influences the consequences which are related to work and life. These results are important in terms of expanding JD-R domain. The findings help us to interpret the effects of job demands and job resources more accurately. The close relationship of burnout and work engagement leads to similar but reverse results (Schaufeli et al., 2004). However, the expected mediation effects were not found for workaholism. In this sense, the effects of workaholism are needed to be studied more. For example, Kanai et al. (1996) and Spence et al. (1992) suggest that workaholism has negative effect on health; however it was not supported in this scale. Future research is needed to elicit the relationship between the two. Further, a possible mediation can occur between the personality traits and work outcomes when workaholism is tested as the mediator. In addition, work-family conflict can be the reason instead of a consequence of workaholism. Thus, family/home-to-work conflict models can better explain the antecedents and consequences of workaholism.

4.2 Contributions of the Study

This study provides several important contributions to the existing research in many points. First of all, the JD-R Model is given support with the results of the study. As the previous research suggests (Demerouti et al., 2004), job resources facilitate

individuals to have a better attachment to their organizations. On the other hand, sustaining job demands cause employees to feel estranged and disenchanted from their jobs and result in counterproductive behaviors and reduces the quality of social life.

Second, the job demands and job resources questionnaires were also translated into Turkish in this study to provide Turkish literature two new scales with high psychometric properties. Hence, the future researchers can employ JD-R Model in their studies with the adopted scales. The importance of job demands and job resources for the working and non-working life were analyzed and interpreted in detail. The acting role of the two are highly essential to constitute the engagement of employees, therefore must be taken into serious consideration.

Third, the study clearly exhibits the differences of workaholism, burnout and work engagement. Schaufeli et al. (2007) argued that these kinds are interdependent constructs and this is the first study to test their argument. As a result, all these three kinds of attachment were found related to each other but independent concepts. They possess different antecedents and consequences, therefore profiling employees more accurately will lead human resources specialist to take different contributing factors into account. The difference among these three work attachment styles can also be seen at Table 11.

Fourth, this is the first study to test DUWAS in Turkish sample. Previously, only 2 studies were found to examine workaholism (Ersoy-Kart, 2002; Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum, 2006) and they employed WorkBAT and WART in their studies respectively. DUWAS is the ultimate workaholism assessor in the literature and takes

its power from the strengths of previous scales and its strong theoretical background. In this sense, enriching Turkish literature with a new workaholism survey is very important. As well as the inclusion of DUWAS to Turkish literature, this study also enhances DUWAS with cross-cultural data. Therefore, the cross-cultural differences or similarities of workaholism can be studied in a larger domain.

Fifth, previous studies in Turkey only assessed workaholism solely, but did not exhibit its relationships with other attachment types. This study does not only investigate the cultural differences of workaholics in Turkey standards; but also compare their characteristics with the characteristics of burned out and engaged employees.

Sixth, this study compares work and non-work outcomes of the specified employee types. Previous studies mainly focused on the work outcomes of either workaholic employees or the burned out & engaged workers. This study combines all three types together and tests the consequences in a combined fashion. Moreover, the work-family balances of engaged employees are significantly studied less than burned out or workaholic employees. This study proposed to enhance the positive psychology research, therefore, unveil the unknown of desired outcomes. Burnout appears as one of the worst consequences of unpleasant working conditions. However, since the research on work engagement is less, little do we know on the desired consequences of engagement. The results of this study show that engaged workers report better health conditions, higher levels of commitment and more favorable work-family harmony. The effects of job resources are also clearly stated. In this sense, the

importance of positive psychology and work engagement are stressed out in Turkish sample domain.

Seventh, the meditational relationships found in this study are essential. Since the JD-R model was first emerged, the relationship of job demands and resources with work attachment styles (mainly work engagement and burnout) and with work (commitment, organizational citizenship behavior etc.) and nonwork life (crossover effect among married couples) have been studied. In this study, the meditational effect of work engagement and burnout over job demands and resources were clearly demonstrated. These finding improve the theoretical understanding of work attachment styles phenomenon. By the findings of this study, the importance of work engagement is put forward. After all, engaged employees posit better health conditions, become more committed to their organizations and have a more favorable family life, however, the influence of job demands to constitute work engagement is significant.

Last but not least, this study offers literature a new term, work-life harmony. Previous terms, work-life conflict and work-life enhancement share variance but not fully cover the meaning of work-life harmony. Work-life conflict is the role clash between the two domains whereas; work-life enhancement offers a facilitation of the roles in both domains. However, the work-life harmony term takes both domains into account together and suggests that they are integrated rather than dependent. In other words, they share a so big amount of variance that they are nested. Conflict and enhancement is the natural outcome because they are so combined that it is not

possible to separate one and other. In this sense, the harmony among two is the way to enable individual perform well in both domains and be satisfied.

4.3 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Researchers

This is a complex study with variables tested in multiple steps. The reason for testing such a complex design is to explain a big amount of variance in occupational health psychology and work-life balance. However, this study is not free from limitations. There are number of limitations to be taken into consideration when interpreting the results of this study.

First of all, the number of sample is relatively low compared to other studies in the literature. Applied SEM analysis provide more accurate results with the samples over 400 participants, therefore future researchers are encouraged to collect a higher number of case.

Second, three of the surveys, job demands, job resources and workaholism, did not have Turkish versions before this study. They were translated into Turkish and their psychometric values were tested for the first time in this study. In this sense, the results must be interpreted with caution, since the validities and reliabilities rely on only one study. Researchers, who are interested in this research field, are encouraged to use the questionnaires employed in this study to strengthen the psychometric characteristics of the instruments in numerous studies (Bakker et al., 2005).

Third, the psychometric properties of DUWAS seem to be poor. Especially, the overwork dimension needs to be revised to have a better workaholism scale. The psychometric values of DUWAS were acceptable in the pilot study; however, the

scale did not yield acceptable loadings at the full sample analysis. Therefore, this scale needs to be taken into a revision and the items needs to be discussed again to gain Turkish literature a fully-functioning workaholism scale.

Fourth, this study is important to draw attention on the importance of personality characteristics of workaholics for the future research. Burke, Mathiessen and Pallesen (2005) investigated the relationship between Big Five personality traits (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) and also general self-efficacy. Data showed that personality factors had a significant relationship with all three workaholism dimensions (work involvement, feeling driven to work and joy in work). In the analysis, the personality factors, except agreeableness, were significantly related to all three workaholism components. Therefore, future researchers are encouraged to take personality characteristics when doing research on workaholism.

Fifth, 21% of the sample abstained to report their demographic properties. This situation obstructed the researcher to do analysis regarding the demographic values. Although none of the hypothesis concerned over the psychometric properties of the participants, receiving additional information for acting demographic values would enhance the study. The reason for the participants to avoid reporting their demographic properties may stem from their concern for anonymity. Despite the fact that participants were ensured as their responses will be proceeded secretly, employees may sense a danger if their responses would be revealed by the managers. Future researchers are encouraged to maintain the anonymity of the responses more strictly.

Sixth, the home demands and home resources are missing in this study. The home demands and home resources are expected to play an active role in employee attachment. The literature is also severely in need of empirical evidence for the relationship from home to work. Therefore, future researchers are encouraged to include the home demands/resources (Hakanen et al., 2008).

Seventh, the study was completed by collecting self-report questionnaires. Even though the scales required information about different aspects and constructs, the measurement variance was singular. Spector (1987) suggests collecting the data through several different kinds of methods (i.e. self-report, supervisor rates, organizational records). By doing so, a research could be free from bias such as common method variance or the social desirability level of the raters/participants (Spector, 2006). An alternative method could have been to consult organizational health records to have more accurate relationships of health perception, or asking official and actual working hours to determine the effects of workaholism or job demands. Future researchers are encouraged to apply multi-trait multi method variance in their studies.

Last, a distinction among work-family and work-life must be drawn in the future. Since, family can be regarded as one of the most important aspects of non-work life; the term work-life is quite often interchanged with work-family term. Nevertheless, these are distinct concepts and may foster different outcomes. Today, there are individuals who work alone (separated from their parents and living single), who are living with their partners, but not married (unmarried couples), married couples without children, married couples with several children, divorced couples (with

children) etc. Each of these kinds may exhibit distinct relationship in their work-life harmonies; therefore the data in these domains is needed.

4.4 Implications for Managers

The results of the study present several implications for managers. First of all, the effect of job resources and job demands are decisive for the well-being of the employees. The increase in job demands seems to have several negative outcomes. These outcomes vary from the attachment style of the employee to negative work outcomes. The results show that job demands lead to burnout and workaholism. Burnout was found related to impaired health, therefore, the probability of absenteeism or turnover is increased if an employee experiences burnout. In addition, the work-family balance of burned out employees appear to be severely bad. As suggested earlier, home/family problems are hardly taken into consideration independently from work context. An employee, who experiences problems in his /her nonworking life, is likely to spillover these effects to the working life. Therefore, a significant decrease in performance is likely to be expected both because the problems that distracts the employee and the natural outcomes of burnout. Burnout also has a significant negative relationship with organizational commitment or in other words, burnout leads employees to have lower levels or commitment (Hakanen et al., 2008; Bakker et al., 2006). In this sense, it can be argued that burned out employees may have a tendency to quit from their organizations, thus may cause turnover.

Workaholism, which shows the same fashion with job demands, do not lead to expected negative outcomes (impaired health and work-family conflict). Further,

those who report high on workaholism show higher commitment to the organizations. The research shows that workaholics have unfavorable health and family conditions. Therefore, these relationships, which were not supported in this study, must be interpreted by the managers very carefully. Additionally, there is not a consensus on workaholics' organizational commitment level in the literature. In this research, the relationship between the two was found positively. This may show the managers that workaholic employees tend to quit their organization less than do the burned out employees.

As job demands, job resources may give managers practical ideas to apply in their departments or organizations. First of all, job resources decrease burnout and increase work engagement. The job resources assessed in this study are not economical matters. In other words, wage or bonuses are not taken as job resources in this study, even though they are the most powerful incentives. The job resources taken into account in this study are autonomy, colleague & supervisor support and opportunities for personal development in the organization. In this fashion, managers can enable to their employees sufficient job resources by simply making innovations and enhancements in these resources. The amount of feedback and support can be increased in a workplace, the employees can have more initiation on their tasks and the significance of their positions can be clarified and enriched by additional training. These are all low-cost but effective solutions to enable work engagement and decrease the burnout level.

Work engagement, contrary to burnout, is effective to increase the physical well-being of an employee, to obtain the organizational commitment and to end up with a

more favorable work-family balance. Increasing the work engagement in a workplace is as easy as increasing the job demands within that organization. The results show that all positive job outcomes are natural consequences of work engagement, thus proper job resources.

Last but not least, the implications of this study may be more suitable for hotel managers, since the research survey was completed mainly by the hotel employees. Hotels are places where employees operate for 7/24, thus possess many job demands in their contexts. Moreover, these demands are inconsistent because new demands may emerge as the visitors of the hotel vary. In this sense, possessing engaged employees in their organizations, dedicated, committed, healthy and not distracted by their non-work life may be what a large amount of managers' desire.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Items for Job Resources

Autonomy

1. İşinizi yaparken esnek olabiliyor musunuz?
2. İşin nasıl yapıldığı üzerinde kontrolünüz olabiliyor mu?
3. İşin yapılışında karar alma aşamasında yer alabiliyor musunuz?

Colleague Support

4. Lazım olduğunda iş arkadaşlarınızdan yardım isteyebilir misiniz?
5. İşte zorluklarla karşılaştığınızda iş arkadaşlarınızın size destek olacağına güvenebilir misiniz?
6. İş arkadaşlarınızın sizi değerli bulduğunu hissediyor musunuz?

Coaching

7. Amirim beni benden memnun olup olmadığı konusunda bilgilendirir.
8. Amirim işteki sorunlarım ya da isteklerime ilgi gösterir.
9. Amirim tarafından değer gördüğümü hissederim.
10. Amirim işte karşılaştığım sorunların çözümünde etkili olur.
11. Amirim bana karşı yakın ve sıcaktır.

Personal Development

12. İşimde güçlü olduğum yönlerimi geliştirebileceğim imkânlar var.
13. İşimde kendimi sürekli olarak geliştiririm.
14. İşim bana yeni şeyler öğrenme olanağı sunar.

APPENDIX B: Items for Job Demands

Workload

1. Hızlı çalışmak mı zorundasınız?
2. Yapmanız gereken çok fazla işiniz mi var?
3. Bir işi zamanında yetiştirmek için ne sıklıkla fazla mesai yapmanız gerekir?
4. Çalışırken üzerinizde zaman baskısı hissediyor musunuz?

Emotional Demands

15. İşiniz duygusal açıdan talepkar mı?
16. İşinizde size duygusal olarak dokunaklı olaylarla karşı karşıya kalır mısınız?
17. İşinizde duygusal anlamda dolgun durumlarla karşılaştığınız olur mu?
18. Çalışırken onları memnun etmek adına her şeyi yapmanıza rağmen yine de sürekli şikâyet eden müşterilerle karşılaşır mısınız?
19. İşinizde talepkar müşterilerle uğraşmak zorunda kalır mısınız?
20. Çalışırken hak ettiğiniz saygı ve nezakette davranmayan müşterilerle karşılaşır mısınız?

Emotional Dissonance

21. Çalışırken hislerinizi doğal görünmek adına ne sıklıkta bastırırsınız (örn. Kızgınlık)?
22. Çalışırken spontane duygularınızı ne sıklıkta göstermeye engel olursunuz (örn. Antipati)?
23. Çalışırken, müşterilerinize (iç veya dış) ne sıklıkla asıl hissettiğiniz

duygulardan farklı olan belirli duyguları göstermek zorunda kalırsınız?

24. Çalışırken, müşterilerinize karşı başka türlü hissetmenize rağmen ne sıklıkta olumlu duygular göstermek durumunda kalırsınız?

25. Çalışırken canınızı sıkan müşterilere ne sıklıkla anlayışlı davranmak zorunda kalırsınız?

Changes at Work

26. İş yeriniz değişikliklerin (örn: personel, ürün ya da süreç) olduğu bir yer midir?

27. Şimdiki iş pozisyonunuzda herhangi bir yeniden düzenlemeyle karşılaştınız mı?

28. Kendinizi iş yerinizdeki değişikliklere uydurmak zorunda mısınızdır?

29. Son zamanlarda iş yerinizdeki organizasyon yapısında bir değişiklik meydana geldi mi?

30. Son zamanlarda takımınızın yapısı değişti mi?

31. Son zamanlarda işinizin içeriği değişti mi?

32. İşinizde değişen görevlerle karşı karşıya kaldınız mı?

APPENDIX C: Items for Burnout

1. İşimden soğuduğumu hissediyorum
2. İş dönüşü ruhen tükenmiş hissediyorum
3. Sabah kalktığımda bir gün daha bu işi kaldıramayacağımı düşünüyorum
4. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların ne hissettiğini hemen anlarım
5. İşim gereği karşılaştığım bazı insanlara sanki insan değilmiş gibi davrandığımı hissediyorum
6. Bütün gün insanlarla uğraşmak benim için gerçekten çok yıpratıcı
7. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların sorunlarına en uygun çözüm yollarını bulurum
8. Yaptığım işten tükendiğimi hissediyorum
9. Yaptığım iş sayesinde insanların yaşamına katkıda bulunduğuma inanıyorum.
10. Bu işte çalışmaya başladığımdan beri insanlara karşı sertleştim.
11. Bu işin beni giderek katılaştırmasından korkuyorum
12. Çok şeyler yapabilecek güçteyim.
13. İşimin beni kısıtladığını hissediyorum
14. İşimde çok fazla çalıştığımı hissediyorum.
15. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanlara ne olduğu umurumda değil
16. Doğrudan doğruya insanlarla çalışmak bende çok fazla stres yaratıyor.
17. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanlarla aramda rahat bir hava yaratırım
18. İnsanlarla yakın bir çalışmadan sonra kendimi canlanmış hissederim.
19. Bu işte birçok kayda değer başarı elde ettim.
20. Yolun sonuna geldiğimi hissediyorum.
21. İşimdeki duygusal sorunlara serinkanlılıkla yaklaşırım.
22. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların bazı problemlerini sanki ben yaratmışım gibi davrandıklarını hissediyorum.

APPENDIX D: Items for Workaholism

1. Fazla mesaiyi sevmem.
2. İşime bu kadar bağlı olmamayı isterdim.
3. Aceleci ve zamanla yarışır gibi görünürüm.
4. İş arkadaşlarım paydos etseler dahi kendimi çalışır bulurum.
5. Yaptığım görevi sevmiyor olsam dahi sıkı çalışmak benim için önemlidir.
6. Sürekli meşgulümdür ve aynı anda pek çok iş yaparım.
7. İşimden bir süreliğine uzak kalmak istediğimde dahi kendimi işim hakkında düşünürken bulurum.
8. Yutabileceğimden daha büyük bir lokma ısırıp kendimi fazlasıyla meşgul ederim.
9. Yapmayı istesem de istemesem de yapmak zorunda hissettiren, sıkı çalışmama neden olan ve içten gelen bir mecburiyet hissine sahibimdir.
10. Kendimi hasta, rahatsız hissettiğimde bile işe giderim.
11. Çalışırken kendime belli zaman sınırları koyarım ve bu beni baskı altına sokar.
12. İçimde beni sıkı çalışmaya iten bir güç var.
13. Çalışmaya harcadığım zaman, sosyalleşmeye, arkadaşlarıma ve hobilerime harcadığım zamandan daha fazladır.
14. Çalışmadığım zaman kendimi suçlu hissederim.
15. Eğlenceli olmadığı zamanlarda bile kendimi çalışmaya zorunlu hissederim.
16. Hafta sonları çalışırım.
17. Kendimi öğle yemeği yerken not yazmak ve telefona bakmak gibi birden

fazla iş yaparken bulduğum olur.

18. İşteyken çalışmadığım zaman kendimi suçlu hissederim.
19. Çalışmadığım zamanlarda rahatlamak benim için zordur.
20. Eve iş götürürüm.

Çalışma Saatleri

- a. Haftalık resmi çalışma süreniz kaç saat? _____
 - b. Gerçekte haftada kaç saat çalışıyorsunuz (Fazla mesai dâhil edildiğinde)?

 - c. İşyerine gelip gitmek için günde ne kadar süre harcıyorsunuz? _____
 - d. Aşağıdan size uygun olanı işaretleyiniz
- Vardiyasız çalışırım.
 - Vardiyalı çalışırım.
 - Sadece gündüz vardiyaları
 - Sadece gece vardiyaları
 - Hem gündüz hem gece vardiyaları

APPENDIX E: Items for Work Engagement

1. Çalışırken kendimi enerji dolu hissedirim.
2. Yaptığım işi anlamlı ve amaç yüklü buluyorum.
3. Çalışırken zaman akıp gider, nasıl geçtiğini anlamam.
4. İşteyken güçlü ve dinç hissediyorum.
5. İşimle ilgili konularda şevk duyarım, çok hevesliyimdir.
6. Çalışırken işimden başka her şeyi unuturum.
7. İşim bana ilham verir.
8. Sabahları kalktığımda işe severek giderim.
9. Yoğun olarak çalıştığımda kendimi mutlu hissedirim.
10. Yaptığım işle gurur duyuyorum.
11. Kendimi işime kaptırırım.
12. Uzun zaman süreleri boyunca aralıksız çalışmaya devam edebilirim.
13. Benim için işim kapasitemi gelişmeye zorlayan büyük bir uğraştır.
14. Çalışırken kendimden geçerim.
15. İşimde zihnim çabuk ve güçlü bir şekilde toparlarım.
16. Kendimi işimden ayırmam zordur.
17. İşimde bazı şeyler yolunda gitmediğinde bile sebatkarımdır-yılmam.

APPENDIX F: Items for Perceived Health

1. Yaptığımız işe dikkatinizi verebiliyor musunuz?
2. Endişeleriniz nedeni ile uykusuzluk çekiyor musunuz?
3. İşe yaradığınızı düşünüyor musunuz?
4. Karar vermekte güçlük çekiyor musunuz?
5. Kendinizi sürekli zorluk altında hissediyor musunuz?
6. Zorlukları halledemeyecek gibi hissediyor musunuz?
7. Günlük işlerinizden zevk alabiliyor musunuz?
8. Sorunlarınızla uğraşabiliyor musunuz?
9. Değişik yönlerden baktığınızda kendinizi mutlu hissediyor musunuz?
10. Kendinize güveninizi kaybediyor musunuz?
11. Kendinizi değersiz biri olarak görüyor musunuz?
12. Kendinizi keyifsiz ve durgun hissediyor musunuz?

APPENDIX G: Items for Organizational Commitment

1. Kuruluşuma karşı güçlü bir aitlik hissim yok.
2. İstesem de, şu anda kuruluşumdan ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu.
3. Bu kuruluşun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.
4. Şu anda kuruluşumdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.
5. Bu kuruluşun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum
6. Bu kuruluşa kendimi “duygusal olarak bağlı” hissetmiyorum.
7. Buradaki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum.
8. Başka bir işyerinin buradan daha iyi olacağının garantisi yok, burayı hiç olmazsa biliyorum.
9. Bu işyerinden ayrıлып başka bir yerde sıfırdan başlamak istemezdim.
10. Kendimi kuruluşumda “ailenin bir parçası” gibi hissetmiyorum.
11. Bu kuruluşun bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.
12. Bu kuruluşun amaçlarını benimsiyorum.
13. Eğer bu kuruluşa kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim.
14. Zaman geçtikçe mevcut kuruluşumdan ayrılmanın gittikçe zorlaştığını hissediyorum.

APPENDIX H: Items for Work-Family Harmony

1. İşimde harcadığım zaman, ailemle geçirdiğim zamanın daha kaliteli olması için beni motive eder
2. İşte öğrendiğim şeyler, aile içi ilişkilerimde de daha iyi olmamı sağlıyor.
3. İşimin yarattığı stres, aileme karşı olan görevlerimi yerine getirmemi zorlaştırıyor.
4. İşimle ilgili sorumluluklarım aile hayatımı etkiliyor.
5. İş hayatımda geliştirdiğim problem çözme yöntemleri, ev hayatımda karşılaştığım sorunları daha etkili çözmeme yardımcı olur.
6. İşimin bana yüklediği sorumluluklardan dolayı ailemle ilgili yapmak istediğim bazı şeyleri yapamıyorum.
7. İşim sayesinde, evle ilgili sorunlarımı farklı açılardan görebiliyorum.
8. İşime harcadığım zaman, aileme karşı olan sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmemi zorlaştırmaktadır.
9. İşimde başarılı olmak, ev ve ailemle ilgili görevlerimi daha etkili bir şekilde yerine getirmek için bana güç verir.
10. İşten eve geldiğimde pozitif bir ruh hali içinde olmam evdeki atmosferi de olumlu etkiliyor.
11. İşim yüzünden, ailece yaptığımız planları değiştirmek zorunda kalırım.

APPENDIX I: Items for Demographic Characteristics

Yaş: _____

Cinsiyet: ___K _____E

İşiniz/Mesleğiniz: _____

Çalıştığınız Kurum: _____

Eğitim Durumunuz: _____

Ünvanınız: _____

Şu anki işyerinizde kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız: _____

Toplam kaç yıldır iş hayatındasınız: _____

Eğer yönetici iseniz kaç kişiden sorumlusunuz: _____

APPENDIX J: F

Bu çalışma, ODTÜ Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi bölümü öğrencisi Ümit Baran Metin tarafından yürütülen bir yüksek lisans tezi çalışmasıdır. Tez danışmanı ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü'nden Doç. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç'tir. Çalışmanın amacı, katılımcıların işlerine karşı olan tutumları ve iş-hayat dengelerinin karşılaştırılmasıdır. Çalışmaya katılım tamimiyle gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Ankette, sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamimiyle gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır.

Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda anketi uygulayan kişiye, anketi tamamlamadığınızı söylemek yeterli olacaktır. Anket sonunda, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız cevaplanacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için araştırmacı Ümit Baran Metin (Tel: 0535 663 11 20; E-posta:baranmet@hotmail.com ya da e159594@metu.edu.tr) ya da tez danışmanı Doç. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç (Oda: B-241; Tel: (0312) 210 31 85; E-posta: rey@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyad

Tarih

İmza

----/----/-----

APPENDIX K: Debriefing Form

Bu çalışma daha önce de belirtildiği gibi ODTÜ Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi öğrencisi Ümit Baran Metin tarafından yürütülen bir yüksek lisans tezi çalışmasıdır. Çalışmada iş taleplerinin ve iş kaynaklarının çalışanların işe olan bağlılıklarını nasıl etkilediği ve farklı çeşit iş bağlılıklarının iş-hayat dengesi üzerindeki etkilerinin belirlenmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

Mesleki Sağlığı Psikolojisi literatürü çok eskilere dayanmamakla beraber en sesi getirici kavramlardan biri olan Tükenmişlik Sendromu Maslach tarafından 1980'lerde çalışılmaya başlanmış ve çalışanların işyerindeki motivasyonunu azaltan, dolayısıyla da performans düşüşüne neden olan kavramları araştırmıştır. Pozitif Psikoloji'nin 2000'li yıllarda gelişmesiyle birlikte ise tükenmişliğin zıttı olarak İş Bağlılığı kavramı ortaya çıkmıştır. İş Talepleri-Kaynakları Modeli ışığında talep-kaynak dengesi sağlanan bir çalışanın işine bağlılığının artacağını söyleyen bu kavramın pek çok olumlu getiriyle sonuçlandığı görgül çalışmalarla desteklenmiştir. İşkoliklik ise kişinin kendini sürekli olarak çalışmak zorunda hissetmesi ve bunu bir takıntı haline getirmesi olarak özetlenebilir.

İş-Hayat dengesi 1980'lerden beri hem Türkiye'de hem de Dünya'da pek çok araştırmacı tarafından sıkça çalışılan bir kavramdır ve çalışılan zaman ile çalışma dışı zamanın birbiriyle olan ilişkisini inceler. Araştırmalar göstermektedir ki, hem iş yaşamı iş dışındaki yaşamı, hem de iş dışındaki yaşam iş yaşamını hem olumlu hem de olumsuz şekilde etkileyebilmektedir. Yani bir kişinin işyerinde mutlu olmasını sağlayacak tek şey işyerindeki olumlu koşullar değil aynı zamanda kişinin iş dışındaki yaşamında da mutlu olmasıdır.

Bu çalışmada, yerine getirilebilir iş taleplerinin ve çalışanın gelişimini sağlayan iş kaynaklarının çalışanın iş bağlılığını yordaması ve dolayısıyla da daha iyi bir iş-hayat dengesine sahip olması beklenmektedir. Tükenmişlik sendromu yaşayan veya işkolik olan

alıřanların ise iř-yařam dengelerinin iř baęlılıęı deneyimleyen alıřanlara oranla daha uyumsuz olması ngrlmektedir.

Bu alıřmadan alınacak ilk verilerin Mayıs 2009 sonunda elde edilmesi amalanmaktadır.

Elde edilen bilgiler sadece bilimsel arařtırma ve yazılarda kullanılacaktır. alıřmanın sonularını ęrenmek ya da bu arařtırma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak iin ařaęıdaki isimlere bařvurabilirsiniz. Bu arařtırmaya katıldıęınız iin tekrar ok teřekkr ederiz.

mit Baran Metin (Tel:05356631120; E-posta: baranmet@hotmail.com,
e159594@metu.edu.tr)

Do. Dr. Reyhan Bilgi(Tel: 0312 210 3185; E-posta: rey@metu.edu.tr)

APPENDIX L: DUWAS Factor Loadings (Figure 11)

