THE INFLUENCE OF HEAVY WORK INVESTMENT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION IN ROMANIA

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Abstract

Studying the phenomenon of heavy work investment in an emergent market (Romania) is necessary due to the frequent practice of employees working overtime, relatively reduced job satisfaction in contrast to their counterparts from developed markets, and comparatively low remuneration for the same work effort. Therefore, the aim of this research is to highlight the influence of heavy work investment forms (workaholism and work engagement) on job satisfaction and turnover intention. Based on the Attribution Theory, the authors conducted quantitative exploratory research among employees with tenured contracts in an emergent market (Romania). The data was gathered with the aid of an online questionnaire, being tested for reliability, validity, and internal consistency in SPSS, while the hypotheses were tested with the help of structural equation modelling (AMOS). The results show that job satisfaction is influenced by both work engagement and excessive working (workaholism). The more a person is engaged in their work activity, the weaker the turnover intention. Turnover intention is intricately linked to excessive working, a component of workaholism. From a managerial standpoint, this paper contributes to a better understanding of the way work engagement and workaholism influence work outcomes, highlighting possible ways of improving human resource management in organizations.

Keywords: heavy work investment, work engagement, workaholism, job satisfaction, turnover intention, Romania

JEL Classification: J28, J63

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Introduction

Heavy work investment is a phenomenon that occurs with increasing frequency among employees who allot an increased number of hours and great effort to their endeavours and daily tasks. Heavy work investment is conceptualized on the basis of Attribution Theory, which explains the dispositional and situational nature of heavy work investment generated either by internal predictors, such as passion or work dependency, or by external predictors, such as monetary needs or employer demands (Snir and Harpaz, 2012). Heavy work engagement may have positive outcomes for employees, materializing as improved work performance and increased job satisfaction. Nevertheless, it may also involve certain negative outcomes, such as workaholism (Oates, 1971; Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Snir and Harpaz, 2012; Harpaz, 2015), thus leading to decreased job satisfaction (Burke and MacDermid, 1999; Andreassen, et al., 2011; Del Libano, et al., 2012; Van Beek, et al., 2014). Low income as a counterbalance to work done (Raab, 2020), along with workaholism generates a lack of job satisfaction (Burke and MacDermid, 1999; Andreassen, et al., 2011; Del Libano, et al., 2012; Van Beek, et al., 2014). The low rate of job satisfaction constitutes a significant vector towards turnover intention (James, 2020) and decreased work performance (Watrous, et al., 2006). The identified studies address the influence of heavy work investment, explained through work engagement and workaholism, on job satisfaction and turnover intention, respectively. To implement these aspects, the authors conducted an empirical study through survey, employing an online questionnaire among employees with tenured contracts in an emerging market, namely Romania. The modelling contribution of the authors expand the studies regarding heavy work investment on the emerging markets, thus stressing the impact of excessive working on organizations – a widespread phenomenon on the emerging markets, wherein employees sometimes make considerable sacrifices in order to obtain rapid job promotions and higher earnings.

Based on these aspects, this research aims to answer the following questions: How does heavy work investment influence job satisfaction and turnover intention? Are there significant differences regarding the impact of work engagement and workaholism in generating job satisfaction and turnover intention, respectively? To implement these aspects, the authors conducted an empirical study through survey, employing an online questionnaire among employees with tenured contracts in an emerging market, namely Romania. The modelling contribution of the authors expand the studies regarding heavy work investment on the emerging markets, thus stressing the impact of excessive working on organizations – a widespread phenomenon on the emerging markets, wherein employees sometimes make considerable sacrifices in order to obtain rapid job promotions and higher earnings.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews the literature on heavy work investment, pinpointing the influence of its specific forms (workaholism and work engagement) and presenting the impact of these on job satisfaction and turnover intention, respectively. The hypotheses of this research are developed at the end of the section, along with the investigation model, to be analysed with the aid of structural equations. Section 3 describes the research context (Romania), presenting the design of the study and the analyses conducted to verify the validity and reliability of the collected data. Section 4 contains the research results and discussions, highlighting the originality of the undertaking by comparing it with the international literature. The last section conveys the theoretical and managerial implications of the study, along with the limitations and research perspectives, highlighting the authors’ contribution to the advancement of Attribution Theory concerning the implications of dispositional types of heavy work investment on its results.
2. Literature Review

2.1. Heavy Work Investment

Work constitutes an important human activity that goes well beyond satisfying financial needs (Arvey et al., 2004; Highhouse et al., 2010). Oftentimes, employees dedicate long hours and considerable effort to their work (Schaufeli et al., 2009; Schaufeli, 2016), an aspect denoted as heavy work investment (Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Snir and Harpaz, 2012; Astakhova and Hogue, 2013). Employee behaviour and work performance play a crucial role in organizational processes (Huang et al., 2020); proper resource management constitutes a major factor in successfully achieving the goals of an organization (Tziner and Tanami, 2013). Understanding the manner in which heavy work investment influences employees’ work outcomes has been extensively studied in the past decade (Schaufeli et al., 2009; Choi, 2013; Houlfort et al., 2013; Van Beek et al., 2014; Harpaz, 2015; Schaufeli, 2016).

Heavy work investment is based on two dimensions: employee time and employee effort (Schaufeli et al., 2009; Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Snir and Harpaz, 2012), the two being strongly and positively correlated – employees working longer hours put in more effort, both physical and mental, thus obtaining better results (Snir and Harpaz, 2012; Harpaz, 2015). The heavy work investment dimensions are evident in employees’ attempt to cope with strenuous work, which oftentimes involves a heavier workload per week (sometimes logging over 60 hours), tight deadlines for tasks and/or projects, an unpredictable work flow with concomitant activities, and a large volume of activities, which would normally require more employees (Hewlett and Buck, 2006).

In explaining organizational behaviour, previous research highlights the importance of Attribution Theory, retrieved from the field of psychology, and adapted in the context of organizational research (Weiner, 1995; Snir and Harpaz, 2012). Based on the Attribution Theory applied to the organizational context developed by Weiner (1995), Snir and Harpaz (2012) theorized the concept of heavy work investment. From the standpoint of Attribution Theory, heavy work investment manifests itself in two main types – situational and dispositional (Weiner, 1995; Snir and Harpaz, 2012; Harpaz, 2015). If the situational type of heavy work investment is generated by external factors, such as the financial needs of individuals or organizational demands (Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Snir and Harpaz, 2012), the dispositional type of heavy work investment is determined by internal factors pertaining to the individual – passion for their work or work addiction (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2008; Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Van Beek et al., 2014; Harpaz and Snir, 2015).

Workaholism has been defined as the individual’s compulsive need to work (Oates, 1971). This perspective on workaholism has been widely employed in research and developed in order to understand the predictors and effects of this type of heavy work investment on both the employee and organizational outcomes (Schaufeli et al., 2008; Snir and Harpaz, 2012). In the long run, this exaggerated type of ‘work’ may have harmful effects, and even damage an individual’s physical and mental health and wellbeing (Andreasen et al., 2011), leading to burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2008), diminished personal happiness, endangerment of familial relations (Shkoler et al., 2017a) and reduction of social interactions (Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Harpaz, 2015; Shkoler et al., 2017a). Workaholism constitutes a dispositional type of heavy work investment in time (Snir and Zohar, 2008) and effort, and is not necessarily due to external factors (Snir and Harpaz, 2012; Harpaz, 2015). Workaholism is based on the work
addiction generated by a negative internal predictor, which is uncontrollable and unstable; whereas work engagement is the expression of one’s passion for work, assimilated by a positive internal predictor, which is controllable and stable (Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Snir and Harpaz, 2012; Harpaz, 2015).

Workaholism exhibits two characteristics, of compulsive and excessive working (Schaufeli, et al., 2009; Van Beek, et al., 2014; Schaufeli, 2016). These two dimensions explain the type and energy involved in heavy work involvement, and the compulsive behaviour that motivates such resource investment (Schaufeli, et al., 2009). Basically, the individual is willing to work for a longer period of time and/or more intensely than their co-workers in order to obtain certain advantages, but also due to the desire for self-fulfillment, or in order to accomplish something significant from an existential perspective (Harpaz, 2015). Along with employees’ inner traits, situational and conjectural antecedents may encourage workaholism: a climate of overworking (Schaufeli, 2016), high demand in the workplace (Molino, et al., 2016), supplementary tasks imposed by supervisors, the desire for self-realization (Harpaz, 2015) and/or to gain prestige and visibility (Van den Broeck, et al., 2011). There may also be (non)monetary reward systems based on high productivity (Snir and Harpaz, 2012; Harpaz, 2015).

Work engagement is defined as an employee’s positive state of mind characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, et al., 2002; Schaufeli, et al., 2006; 2008; Balducci, et al., 2016; Van Beek, et al., 2014). Employees with a high level of work engagement feel energized, full of vigour in the workplace, and are likely to be actively involved and positively engrossed in their activity (Schaufeli, et al., 2008; Balducci, et al., 2010; Van Beek, et al., 2014). Work engagement is associated with positive personal resources, such as high self-esteem and optimism (Xanthopoulou, et al., 2007), and positive personality traits such as openness, conscientiousness, and extroversion (Schaufeli, 2016). Employees with high self-esteem are predisposed to achieving positive outcomes (Judge, et al., 2005), such as job satisfaction (Judge, et al., 2005; Giallonardo, et al., 2010; Van Beek, et al., 2014) or high performance (Samo, et al., 2020). Not to be neglected in influencing employee devotion is the transformational leadership style of an organization (Shkoler and Tziner, 2020), and the organizational climate, oriented towards employee growth (Schaufeli, 2016). Finally, employees exhibiting higher work engagement show a higher level of job satisfaction (Giallonardo, et al., 2010; Shrargay and Tziner, 2011; Van Beek, et al., 2014) and are less likely to leave the organization (Choi, 2013; Van Beek, et al., 2014). Nevertheless, although workaholism and work engagement are two distinct types of heavy work investment, the implications of these dimensions differ strongly, both at an individual and organizational level (Tziner and Tanami, 2013).

2.2. Job Satisfaction

In human resource management, there are two truly relevant and representative dimensions: job satisfaction (MacDonald and MacIntyre, 1997; Burke and MacDermid, 1999; Warr and Inceoglu, 2012; Van Beek, et al., 2014; James, 2020; Raab, 2020) and turnover intention (Bothma and Roodt, 2013; Van Beek, et al., 2014; Dumitrescu, et al., 2015; Costello, et al., 2019; James, 2020). Job satisfaction has been of great interest in the study of organizational behaviour (Judge, et al., 2005; Aziri, 2011; Shrargay and Tziner, 2011; Van Beek, et al., 2014; James, 2020; Raab, 2020), which refers to employee attitudes and the emotions that people
experience regarding their work. Positive feelings and attitudes indicate job satisfaction, whereas unfavourable attitudes reflect subsequent dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2006). Job satisfaction may be considered one of the main drivers of organizational and employee efficiency overall. The new paradigm in human resource management emphasizes the importance of addressing employee needs, wants and wellbeing (Aziri, 2011). Employees with a high level of job satisfaction will think of their workplace as one that provides or will provide all relevant and significant aspects (Tziner, et al., 2012; Warr and Inceoglu, 2012).

Assessing employee satisfaction involves many facets of their work. The assessment is influenced by specific aspects that generate some behaviours of heavy work investment, such as work engagement (Giallonardo, et al., 2010; Shragay and Tziner, 2011; Van Beek, et al., 2014) and workaholism (Andreassen, et al., 2011; Van Beek, et al., 2014). Justice in the workplace has a positive impact on increased satisfaction regarding jobs done (Tziner, et al., 2011), while its absence may lead to employee burnout (Chernyak-Hai and Tziner, 2014; Tziner, et al., 2020). Concurrently, the stimulation of competition, along with the display of individuals’ abilities, and also rewards systems entailing the achievement of clearly-defined objectives (financial, for instance) constitute major factors stimulating employee behaviour and leading to a boost in job satisfaction (Warr and Inceoglu, 2012). Employee networking within the organization may contribute to an increase in job satisfaction, especially if the management is oriented towards tangible operational results that foster innovation and performance (Yang and Kassekert, 2010). On the other hand, excessive demands from higher up, or forcing the employee to be involved in too many activities and tackle new responsibilities may lead to workaholism (Snir and Harpaz, 2012), which will eventually decrease their level of satisfaction (Andreassen, et al., 2011; Van Beek, et al., 2014).

Comfort and job security contribute to the positive assessment of the employee. Security favours the nurturing of positive feelings, as well as a higher level of engagement in effective task performance, thus generating a higher level of job satisfaction (Warr and Inceoglu, 2012). Certainly, remuneration constitutes an element of major importance in assessing work satisfaction (Raab, 2020). Financial needs, which may be continually changing, may contribute to the phenomenon of heavy work investment when these are only partially covered, or when income is below expectations. Income that does not satisfy the needs of the employee may generate a need to spend longer hours in the workplace, thus intensifying their efforts in task performance, and eventually engendering a workaholic behaviour (Snir and Harpaz, 2012). This behaviour may have negative implications regarding job satisfaction (Del Libano, et al., 2012; Van Beek, et al., 2014).

2.3. Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is deemed to be the deliberate and conscious will of an employee to seek another job outside the organization for which they are currently working. This intention is defined as the behaviour of voluntary withdrawal from the current position, associated with the individual’s lack of identification with the work done (Bothma and Roodt, 2012). For the decision-makers in the organizations, it is therefore of paramount important to identify early the causes or reasons for which employees might withdraw from their position and reorient themselves towards other entities. Long-term retention of employees, corroborated with their loyalty towards the organization, constitutes a main objective within the human resource management strategy for every decision-maker. In-depth analysis of turnover intention comes
as a response to the managers’ need to retain their employees. Organizations ascribe great importance to long-term retention of employees because job resignations incur capital losses and costs regarding the replacement and training of new employees (Podsakoff, et al., 2007).

Turnover intention is evident when employees no longer consider their job to be satisfying of their own expectations, needs and demands. They may become dissatisfied with, or even frustrated by the fact that they are not given proper recognition or opportunity to achieve their goals. When employees are no longer content with the workplace at any given time, they will exhibit an increased tendency to job hunt and/or accept another job offer, even if the subsequent remuneration is similar to the existing one (Bothma and Roodt, 2013). Turnover intention is not only due to employees’ personal considerations, such as burnout (Costello, et al., 2019), but also an organizational climate that generates conflict amongst co-workers or team members (Shih and Susanto, 2011) or due to nepotism (Sroka and Veinhardt, 2020).

Job satisfaction plays an important role in minimising turnover intention (Egan, et al., 2004; De Gieter, et al., 2011; James, 2020), together with work engagement, deemed as a type of heavy work investment (Bothma and Roodt, 2012; Van Beek, et al., 2014).

3. Research methodology

3.1. Research scope

Organisations from various industrial sectors, especially within the service sector, are facing ever more frequently employees who are increasingly less satisfied by their work (White, et al., 2019; Staempfli and Lamarche, 2020) and are planning on leaving the workplace (Egan, et al., 2004; De Gieter, et al., 2011; James, 2020). In order to counteract these phenomena, companies must identify the levers by which employees could be attracted and retained within the companies, along with the avoidance of those levers leading to overloading employees with tasks and responsibilities that engender dissatisfaction (Staempfli and Lamarche, 2020). In this respect, the literature (Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Schaufeli, 2016) elaborates on the concept of heavy work investment, comprised of work engagement and workaholism manifested through excessive or compulsive work (Schaufeli, et al., 2008; Schaufeli, et al., 2009), which – in the right combination – could lead to job satisfaction, but could also contribute to reinforcing the tendency towards turnover intention (Van Beek, et al., 2014). Although on the mature markets such studies are frequent, on the emerging ones, which are still developing, this type of research is lacking to a large extent. Therefore, the present paper will probe into the influence of heavy work investment on job satisfaction and turnover intention. The research aims to fill a gap in the literature regarding the influence of heavy work investment on an emerging market, namely Romania (Dabija, Bejan and Dinu, 2019), and our understanding of its implications.

3.2. Research context

Eurostat data (2020c) shows that job satisfaction among Romanian citizens is below the European median. Denmark, Finland, and Austria boast the highest levels of satisfaction felt by employees working in organizations, whereas Bulgaria, Serbia (non-EU state) and Greece are among the countries with the lowest levels of employee satisfaction. Romanian employees allot on average 40.3 hours per week to their work (Eurostat, 2020a), a level which is relatively close to the European Union average (40.7 hours per week). Nevertheless,
Romanian employees come second to last in the European Union regarding net income, which is 3.59 times below the EU average (Eurostat, 2020b). Researching the phenomenon of heavy work investment within the context of Romania is justified due to the fact that in order to increase their income, employees often resort to overtime work, both in the public and private sector. Therefore, although they benefit from a lower base remuneration, they nevertheless manage to increase their monthly income to cover living expenses (Harpaz and Snir, 2015). Moreover, overtime hours logged by Romanian employees tend to exacerbate their job dissatisfaction and, to a certain extent, may engender turnover intention with the view to identify a suitable job with proper remuneration according to their training, and with a normal amount of responsibilities and tasks.

Studying the Romanian labour market offers a specific perspective regarding certain models developed by Western Europe (Buzea, 2014), such as the model of heavy work investment (Tziner, et al., 2019). The literature includes Romania as a former communist country from Central-Eastern Europe which is undergoing a transition from non-market and centralised economy to a free market economy (Shkoler, et al., 2017b). In the context of various changes, the Romanian labour market is still showing forms of undeclared employment (Williams and Nadin, 2012), the phenomenon of heavy work investment being increasingly more pivotal with reference to the time employees devote to work and with regard to their hard work (Shkoler, et al., 2017b).

3.3. Research design – integrating research hypotheses into the framework of the investigation model

Work engagement or devotement is considered a positive investment stemming from the employees’ passion for task performance and delegated responsibilities (Snir and Harpaz, 2009; Warr and Inceoglu., 2012), and from their identification with the organization (Shragay and Tziner, 2011). This engagement eventually engenders a positive effect on job satisfaction (Giallonardo, et al., 2010; Shragay and Tziner, 2011; Van Beek, et al., 2014). Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H1: Employee engagement/involvement in tasks undertaken increases satisfaction felt.

Work engagement, considered a positive type of heavy work investment (Schaufeli, et al., 2008; Snir and Harpaz, 2012), implies a reduction in employee turnover intention (Choi, 2013; Van Beek, et al., 2014). Therefore, we estimate that:

H2: Work engagement minimizes turnover intention.

Workaholism exerts a clear influence on work outcomes, and there are significant links between this phenomenon and some negative occupational parameters, such as reduced job satisfaction (Burke and MacDermid, 1999; Andreassen, et al., 2011; Van Beek, et al., 2014), mobbing (Vveinhardt and Sroka, 2020), low work performance (Falco, et al., 2013; Van Beek, et al., 2014), or turnover intention (Burke and MacDermid, 1999; Van Beek, et al., 2014; Gillet, et al., 2017). Taking into consideration the harmful effects of workaholism on job satisfaction (Burke and MacDermid, 1999; Andreassen, et al., 2011; Van Beek, et al., 2014), we postulate that:

H3: Workaholism diminishes job satisfaction.
Workaholism is among the predictors of turnover intention (Van Beek, et al., 2014), which could generate work-family conflict (Shkoler, et al., 2017a), as it is considered a vector of employee burnout (Schaufeli, et al., 2009). Basically, workaholism favours job turnover (Van Beek, et al., 2014). For this reason, we hypothesize that:

H4: Workaholism influences turnover intention.

Job satisfaction represents an attitude closely linked to work engagement (Warr and Inceoglu, 2012), which significantly contributes to reducing turnover intention (Egan, et al., 2004; De Gieter, et al., 2011; James, 2020) and positively contributes to the smooth running of an organization (Aziri, 2011). Therefore, we propose that:

H5: Job satisfaction contributes to the reduction of turnover intention.

Based on the hypotheses drawn from the literature, a model for the influence of heavy work investment forms (work engagement and workaholism) on job satisfaction and turnover intention has been developed (Figure 1).

Figure no. 1. Influence of heavy work investment on job satisfaction and turnover intention

Source: own research

This exploratory research was conducted through surveying, employing the online questionnaire. Only those respondents with a tenured work contract in Romanian were selected. They were invited to evaluate their heavy work investment and its dimensions (work engagement, workaholism), along with job satisfaction and turnover intention on a 5-point Likert scale (total agreement/total disagreement). The operationalization of the questionnaire items was conducted according to specifications from the literature and to the scales, which have been previously identified and validated (Table 1).

Table no. 1. Operationalization of the scales employed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension analysed</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work engagement (measured with the aid of the Ultrech Work Engagement scale: UWES-9)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Schaufeli, et al., 2006; 2008; Balducci, et al., 2010.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workaholism (measured with the aid of the Dutch Work Dependency Scale: DUWAS)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Schaufeli, et al., 2009.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction (measured with the aid of the German Job Satisfaction Survey: GJSS)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>MacDonald and McIntyre, 1997.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intention (measured with the aid of the Turnover Intention Scale: TIS-6)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Bothma and Roodt, 2013.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own research
After the centralization and systematization process of the data gathered online, 766 questionnaires were kept, to which statistical tests in SPSS have been carried out with the view of verifying the validity of data collection, their reliability, and internal consistency on every dimension investigated (work investment, excessive work, work satisfaction, turnover intention) individually (Cronbach Alpha test, KMO test, factor loading) but also overall, dimensions which have been included in one factorial analysis (Tables 2, 3, and 4). Within this analysis, it was aimed that the percent of variance for each factor be as high as possible (> 5%) (Churchill, 1991), and that Eigenvalues be greater than 1 > 5% (Churchill, 1991). The extraction method employed for the factorial analysis was Principal Axis Factoring, and the rotation method was Oblimin with Keiser Normalization. These methods have been employed in order to facilitate data interpretation and to increase the consistency of the results. The literature (Walsh and Beatty, 2007; Backhaus, et al., 2008) recommends using these methods particularly when there is a possibility that the investigated dimensions be indistinct, or when the existing factorial structure is not independent (Dabija, et al., 2013). Subsequently, it came to the e of the investigated phenomenon (Figure 1) with the help of structural equation modelling in AMOS. Goodness of Fit indices of the investigation model exceed the minimum thresholds required by the literature (Churchill, 1991), which allowed the validation of the model and the interpretation of the results.

4. Results and discussion
The items of the heavy work investment variables (work engagement and workaholism) were included in a single exploratory factor analysis (Walsh and Beatty, 2007). Their results (Table 2) are based on the fit indices exceeding the minimum thresholds (KMO = 0.886 >0.7, χ² =6,753.877**; **p<0,001; df =171) confirming the possibility of extracting four factors: Work engagement; Workaholism – Excessive working; Workaholism – Compulsive working 1; Workaholism – Compulsive working 2. Due to the fact that workaholism was grouped in three factors, wherein only one (Workaholism: Excessive working) exceeded the minimum value of sample adequacy of 0.7 (Churchill, 1991), it was decided to remove them from the analyses and run the model with the help of structural equation analysis only, based on the excessive working dimension of workaholism.

Table no. 2. Factor analysis for heavy work investment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Alpha (&gt;0.7)</th>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>EV</th>
<th>% of var</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am enthusiastic about my job.</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td>Work engagement</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>29.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am bursting with energy at work.</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td></td>
<td>Schaufeli, et al., 2006; 2008; Balducci, et al., 2010.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job inspires me.</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel strong and vigorous at work.</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>When I get up in the morning.</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I feel like going to work.</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I feel happy when I am working intensely.</td>
<td>0.683</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud of the work that I do.</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The Influence of Heavy Work Investment on Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention in Romania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Alpha (&gt;0.7)</th>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>EV</th>
<th>% of var</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I get carried away when I am working.</td>
<td>0.522</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am immersed in my job.</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I stay busy and keep many irons in the fire.</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>Workaholism: Excessive working</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>19.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock.</td>
<td>0.652</td>
<td></td>
<td>Schaufeli, et al., 2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I spend more time working than socializing with friends.</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find myself still working after my co-workers have called it quits.</td>
<td>0.601</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find myself doing two or three things at a time, such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the phone.</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important for me to work hard, even when I do not enjoy what I am doing.</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td>0.647</td>
<td>Workaholism: Compulsive work 1;</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>6.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel obliged to work hard, even when it is not enjoyable.</td>
<td>0.510</td>
<td></td>
<td>Schaufeli, et al., 2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel guilty when I take time off.</td>
<td>0.619</td>
<td>0.665</td>
<td>Workaholism: Compulsive work 2;</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>5.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Schaufeli, et al., 2009</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Obs.: EV: Eigenvalues for each factor >1 (Churchill, 1991); % of var: percent of variance for each factor > 5% (Churchill, 1991); Cronbach α (data reliability); Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Source: own research

The items of the generalised scale of job satisfaction (MacDonald and MacIntyre, 1997) were also included in an exploratory factor analysis (Table 3), and one for determining reliability (Cronbach alpha = 0.876>0.7). These confirmed the unidimensional structure of the job satisfaction construct (Van Saane, et al., 2003), where the fit indices obtained exceed the minimum threshold levels (KMO = 0.922>0.7; $\chi^2 = 3,187.743**; **p<0.001; df = 45$).
Table no. 3. Factor analysis for job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I believe the management is concerned about me.</td>
<td>0.835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I receive recognition for a job well done.</td>
<td>0.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel good about working in this company.</td>
<td>0.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel good about my job.</td>
<td>0.695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get along with my supervisor.</td>
<td>0.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel secure about my job.</td>
<td>0.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My salary/wage is good.</td>
<td>0.581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All my talents and skills are used at work.</td>
<td>0.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel close to the people at work.</td>
<td>0.530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, I believe work is good for my physical health.</td>
<td>0.408</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: EV: Eigenvalues for each factor >1 (Churchill, 1991); % of var: 49.35% > 5% (Churchill, 1991); Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Source: own research

The same procedure was applied to the items of the turnover intention scale (Bothma and Roodt, 2013), thus confirming the unidimensional structure of the scale observed in Table 4. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient exceeds the minimum threshold level of 0.7 (Churchill, 1991, with a value of 0.825, and the KMO measures 0.836 (>0.7), \( \chi^2 = 1,566.937 \); **p<0.001; df =15).

Table no. 4. Factor analysis for turnover intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I often dream about getting another job that will better suit my personal needs.</td>
<td>0.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am often frustrated when I am not given the opportunity at work to achieve my personal work-related goals.</td>
<td>0.699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job satisfies my personal needs, (r)</td>
<td>0.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is likely that I will accept another job at the same compensation level, should it be offered to me.</td>
<td>0.658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have often considered leaving my job.</td>
<td>0.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often look forward to another day at work. (r)</td>
<td>0.484</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: EV: Eigenvalues for each factor >1 (Churchill, 1991); 3.21% of var: 53.51% > 5% (Churchill, 1991); Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Source: own research

Out of the 766 participants in our research, conducted throughout Spring 2020, all had an employment contract, and were aged from 16 to 73. Out of these, 62.3% were women, and 37.6% were men. The respondents in question came from a wide range of Romanian organizations, most being employed in foreign companies (30.4%), Romanian companies (27.3%), state organizations (5.7%), public authorities, be they central or local (4.5%), the military or law enforcement (0.4%), public cultural institutions, educational, research, or
medical institutions (13.3%), entrepreneurs (9.5%), freelancers (0.3%), or other types of organizations (8.6%).

After checking the validity, reliability and internal consistency of the data, the investigated phenomenon was modelled with the help of structural equations in AMOS on a sample of 766 respondents. In the analysis, the fit indices of the model exceed the minimum threshold levels specified by the literature: GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI, TLI > 0.8; RMSEA ≤ 0.08, SRMR ≤ 0.08 (Forza and Filippini, 1998; Ju, et al., 2006), which allowed for the validation of the model (Figure no. 1) and for the interpretation of data (Table no. 5). Fit indices under consideration, Goodness of Fit (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), or Comparative Fit Index (CFI), are employed in estimating the goodness of the models. Various criteria are taken into consideration to determine the indices, namely degrees of freedom; variance-covariance matrix of the model; standard deviation; the various influences on the sample; systematic error and random error; sample size. The values of these indicators vary normally between zero and one; the closer the value is to one, the more real or closer to reality may the elaborated model be considered (Homburg and Baumgartner, 1995; Homburg and Giering, 1996; Kaplan, 2000).

### Table no. 5. Influence of heavy work investment on job satisfaction and turnover intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work engagement → Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.705**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work engagement → Turnover intention</td>
<td>-0.161**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workaholism: Excessive working → Job satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.061*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workaholism: Excessive working → Turnover intention</td>
<td>0.150**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction → Turnover intention</td>
<td>-0.575**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.001; Fit indices of the structural model: χ²/df: 4.898; GFI: 0.997; AGFI: 0.968; NFI: 0.996; CFI: 0.997; TLI: 0.981; SRMR: 0.0349; RMSEA: 0.071.

Source: own research

According to the results obtained, heavy work investment exerts significant implications over job satisfaction and turnover intention. Increasing job satisfaction is directly determined by work engagement (0.705**; **p<0.001). Therefore, hypothesis H₁ is validated. As a negative type of heavy work investment, workaholism (excessive working) has a significant negative impact on job satisfaction (-0.061*; *p<0.05), but of a weaker intensity, contributing to the diminishing of satisfaction. This result is correct, and because excessive working or overworking an employee with additional tasks and responsibilities cannot contribute to personal satisfaction, but rather to dissatisfaction felt towards the work. This result allows us to validate hypothesis H₃.

Turnover intention is determined crucially by job satisfaction (-0.575**; **p<0.001), having a proportionally inverse effect, which allows for the validation of hypothesis H₅. In other words, the more an employee is satisfied with the work done, the less the turnover intention. The more work engagement increases, the more turnover intention diminishes (-0.161**; **p<0.001), an aspect which allows us to validate hypothesis H₂. Probably in this situation, the employee identifies with the organization, and is content with the given tasks, and delegated and assumed responsibilities, along with the work climate, which diminishes the turnover intention. On the other hand, excessive working, as a type of workaholism, has a
significant positive impact on turnover intention (0.150***; **p<0.001), which allows us to validate H1. Probably in this situation, the employee feels tired of the work, wishing to benefit from a change in career perspective, because of decreased identification with the organization.

The results obtained are similar to previous studies from developed countries regarding the implications of heavy work investment over said results. Therefore, the generalised scale of job satisfaction (MacDonald and MacIntyre, 1997) offers a wider approach to this construct in relation to heavy work investment. Van Beek, et al. (2014) pinpoint a strong link between organisational engagement measured with the aid of the UWES scale and the job satisfaction of employees in the Dutch banking system using the scale proposed by Veldhoven and Meijman (1994). Giallonardo, et al. (2010) test a similar relation by measuring work satisfaction through the Index of Work Satisfaction scale (IWS) developed for healthcare (Stamps, 1997) and come to similar conclusions in the case of nurses in Canada. Likewise, Del Libano, et al. (2012) obtained a similar result in the case of administrative personnel in Spain. The inversely proportional impact of workaholism on job satisfaction is confirmed by Andreassen, et al. (2011), by Del Libano, et al. (2012) and Van Beek, et al. (2014), respectively. This relation is also confirmed through correlation analyses, which indicate the significant, strong, and inversely proportional relation between workaholism and job satisfaction (Guidetti, et al., 2019).

The more engaged (involved) the employees in the responsibilities undertaken, the more probable that their turnover intention diminishes, an aspect signalled by Van Beek, et al. (2014). Turnover intention has been thoroughly researched (Veldhoven and Meijman, 1994; Bothma and Roodt, 2013; Gillet, et al., 2017), employing a more recent tool, namely the TIS6 scale validated by Bothma and Roodt (2013). Van Beek, et al. (2014) pinpointed the significance and strong influence of this relation (-0.50***; **p<0.001), measuring turnover intention through the tool proposed by Veldhoven and Meijman (1994). They concluded that workaholism favours turnover intention; even if to a lesser extent, it is still strongly significant (0.11***; **p<0.001). Similar results stress the influence of excessive and obsessive work on turnover intention (Gillet, et al., 2017); research confirming the link between excessive working and turnover intention is inexistent.

Compared with previous research (Van Beek, et al., 2014), the implications of the dimension of excessive working as a manifestation of workaholism, understood as time invested by employees in their work, crucially determines turnover intention Van Beek, et al., 2014; Gillet, et al., 2017; Andreassen, et al., 2011; de Del Libano, et al., 2012; Guidetti, et al., 2019), having a negative effect on job satisfaction (Giallonardo, et al., 2010), while other studies do not confirm this result (Choi, 2013). Negative intention, indirectly proportional to job satisfaction over turnover intention is highlighted by studies led by Egan, et al. (2004) and James (2020). Egan, et al. (2004), in a study conducted on the employees of 3,336 IT companies in the USA, confirmed a strong and significant influence, although inversely proportional (-0.43***; **p<0.001), between job satisfaction and turnover intention. De Gieter, et al. (2011) arrived at similar results in a study among 287 Belgian nurses, proving that job satisfaction contributes to diminishing turnover intention (-0.541***; **p<0.001).
Conclusions

The results of the research extend the studies ascribed to Attribution Theory regarding the implications of dispositional types of heavy work investment on work outcomes, but also with regards to job satisfaction. The results obtained in an emerging market are like those already existing in the literature, which pinpoint positive influence, and strong and significant work engagement over the satisfaction felt by employees in developed markets. When employees are absorbed by, dedicated, and full of determination for their work, they are more satisfied with their workplace. Evaluating the degree to which employees are engaging with their work is relevant for human resource managers, more since work satisfaction is not only a predictor of productivity and work performance, but also of reduced turnover intention.

Excessive working as part of workaholism presented significant and negative influences on job satisfaction and determined turnover intention. Basically, employees who get involved more, thus working longer hours (workaholics), are more predisposed to experiencing decreased satisfaction towards their work and wishing to leave the organization. Although in Romania employees do not necessarily work a lot more overtime compared with other countries, when they feel that they do not socialize enough, that they are constantly against the clock, or that they find themselves in a predicament in which they feel unable to complete tasks concomitantly, their tendency towards turnover intention increases.

In emerging economies similar to Romania, few studies address heavy work investment (Shkoler, et al., 2017b); the present results illustrate through structural equation modelling the manner in which organizational engagement and excessive working as a component to workaholism influence job satisfaction with regard to turnover intention. Since the practice of overtime is specific to emerging states, such as Romania (Eurostat, 2020a), excessive working as a form of workaholism has been researched less in relation to turnover intention. From a theoretical standpoint, this paper proposes an original model which has not been tested before, useful in the analysis of the impact of excessive working and work engagement as forms of heavy work investment on job satisfaction and turnover intention. At the same time, this paper makes a methodological contribution concerning the study of the implications of the phenomenon; the dependent variables are measured with tools different from those existing in the literature.

Evaluating the degree to which employees relate to work from an Attribution Theory standpoint is relevant in an emerging economy for it identifies the extent to which organisational outcomes are influenced by the dispositional nature of employee behaviour faced with a changing context as compared with the employee from a developed economy. The phenomenon of heavy work investment presents positive and negative types, which could generate negative outcomes on an organizational level. Based on the obtained results, the managers of different organizations must take care to reduce employees’ workaholism, particularly excessive work, and to allow for an increase in work engagement, so that job satisfaction increases, and turnover intention reduces or is eliminated. Surely, in this respect, managers have important leverage at their disposal, such as unleashing their employees’ talents and abilities, resorting to reward systems to stimulate results, and offering support or counselling for those employees encountering difficulties in task performance, etc. At the same time, managers must make sure that employees do not feel burnt out by their responsibilities and given tasks, and that they do not spend overly long hours working, which can develop into workaholic behaviour as a result of lack of efficiency, lack of clearly-defined procedures and/or heavy workload (Snir and Harpaz, 2012). In case of failure to
implement safety measures to forewarn of potential excessive working, it is possible and even probable that employees’ dissatisfaction towards their work continues to grow, with organizations continuing to face possible and increased turnover intention from their own employees.

This research highlights both some limitations and important prospects in terms of research. A major limitation of this research is given by the fact that although the application of the workaholism scale according to DUWAS questionnaire was followed, only the excessive working component as a type of heavy work investment could be validated from a statistical standpoint. The compulsive work component, as a manifestation of employee effort, did not highlight a significant statistic based on the collected data. Another limitation of this research refers to the fact that it did not take into account a contrastive approach concerning different fields of activity, job satisfaction and turnover intention in an emerging market, respectively, as these might have differed from one industry to another. Considering that in an emerging market, income level is lower than that in developed markets, it is possible that in assessing turnover intention, income level ought to be studied as well.

Heavy work investment constitutes another relatively poorly studied phenomenon, with theoretical implications, and considerable managerial implications on organizational behaviour and employee wellbeing. Future research prospects entail closing the gap between theoretical and empirical research concerning the manner in which reward systems and performance evaluation systems can moderate the link between the types of heavy work investment and job satisfaction, work performance and turnover intention. At the same time, future research could take into consideration a comparison between these dimensions in emerging versus developed markets, extending the research model to other dimensions, respectively, such as internal marketing, which is associated with positive work outcomes: job satisfaction, work performance and/or organizational engagement (Pocol and McDonough, 2015; Kim, et al., 2016; Pocol and Moldovan-Teselios, 2016; Lee, et al., 2020).

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