

Working Heavier or Being Happier? Case of Slovakia

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Abstract

The paper deals with well-being of employees who invest heavier in work. The main aim of the present study was to examine relationship between workaholism and work enjoyment as part of the work engagement. Paper focuses on workaholics and their emotional experience in performing work (affective component of well-being). The unique method based on time diary, including data on happiness, was used.

Results suggest that non-workaholics feel happier when performing paid work than workaholics. Gender and education are significant background predictors influencing heavy time investment, while parenthood and place of living do not correlate with time workaholism. Men-workaholics work longer than women-workaholics, with no significant difference in happiness. Women-workaholics feel happier when performing unpaid household work, but men-workaholics enjoy more time with children. Education in relation to income, time investment and happiness indicate that workaholism in Slovakia exists in a forced form in order to achieve the required income and forced heavy time investment must undertake deeper analysis.

Keywords

Heavy Work Investment, Heavy Time Investment, employees, happiness, well-being, allocation of time

JEL code

J22, I31, J81, K31

INTRODUCTION

For decades of cultural evolution, when human work was hard, physically strenuous, and exhausting, performed by using just simple technology and tools, it had not received as much attention as it does today. Nowadays, when human work is done with the help of machines, technical devices and intelligent technologies that man has invented and constructed to make his work easier, many researchers look at on human work from various points of view. Theoretical concepts such as Heavy Work Investment, Heavy Time Investment, Work-Life Balance, Subjective well-being, and terms as workaholism, work engagement or burnout suggest that "simplified human work" has led to unexpected problems and challenges. One of them is workaholism with all its positive and negative elements consequences. Workaholism is referred as one subtype of heavy work. Snir and Harpaz (2012) introduced a concept of heavy work investment (in the paper referred also as HWI). They designed a model of HWI, including possible predictors of HWI, types of HWI, and its outcomes. They also made a difference between situational and dispositional

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types of HWI. In addition to their typology, Astakhova and Hogue (2014) distinguish between workaholic HWI, situational HWI and pseudo HWI. Rabenu and Aharoni-Goldenberg (2017) identify three types of workers who normally work long hours but vary in their work effort. They are the excessive work investors (employees who work long hours and invest excessive work effort), the low work investors (employees who work long hours, but invest relatively low level of effort in work), the moderate work investors (employees who work long hours but balance work demands with personal and physical needs).

In the paper, authors pay attention to the well-being of employees who invest heavier in the work. Paper is based on the studies that draw attention to the fact that workaholism is associated with negative emotions and unhealthy behaviour and experience, which in turn adversely affect the functioning of an individual in all other domains (household, family, children, friends, leisure) and reduce his individual well-being (Scott et al., 1997; Clark et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2007; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Based on primary empirical research, it demonstrates the current situation of employees in Slovakia and compares the level of affective well-being among workaholics and non-workaholics.

1 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Heavy Time Investment

Most scholars begin the quest for identifying the secular trends in work hours with the onset of the industrial revolution (Golden, 2009). Maddison (1995) has shown that average hours of work in advanced OECD countries fell from around 3 000 hours a year in 1870 to between 1 500 and 2 000 hours a year by 1990. Bell and Freeman (2001) pointed out a decreasing trend in worked hours in Germany from 1985 until 1995. The same was confirmed in the United States (McGrattan, 2004), and other eighteen European countries (Bick et al., 2016). The declining trend in the number of hours worked affects, among other things, the understanding of heavy time investment.

There are various attitudes towards the time cut-off considering the time load in HWI. Brett and Stroh (2003) state that it should be more than 61 hours. According to European Directive on working time (1993), it is more than 48 hours a week. As stated by Snir and Harpaz (2012), it obviously depends on the country. In the US, almost 19% of work force works 50 or more hours per week, and almost one-third works longer than 40 hours per week (Golden, 2009). In Australia, standard full-time work is 38 hours per week. Working over 45 hours per week is considered as very extended working time and working 49 hours per week and over as extremely extended working time (Campbell, 2002). Within the Europe, usual weekly working hours of employed persons range from 31.79 h/week in Netherlands to 40.71 h/week in Greece (Alesina et al., 2005). There are also differences in considering time cut-off for different genders. According to Dex et al. (1995), it is over 60 hours per week in case of men and over 40 hours per week in case of women. According to Kato et al. (2014), working over 60 hours per week may be the cut-off to screen for high-risk groups who need preventive measures against depressive disorder. Kleppa et al. (2008) distinguish between the moderate overtime (41 to 48 hours per week) and very much overtime (49 to 100 hours a week). For Rabenu and Aharoni-Goldenberg (2017), extreme working time is 12 hours a day and more.

Long working hours are often linked with workaholism (either alone or in combination with work effort). Mosier (1983) considered workaholics as those persons who work more than 50 hours a week. Snir and Zohar (2008) defined workaholism as one standard deviation above the regional average ($M = 9.6$ hours/day, $SD = 1.9$; Snir, 1998). Thus, in their study, working 11.5 hours/day served as the cut-off criterion, with people below that criterion classified as non-workaholics. As stated by Beckers et al. (2007), in case of full-time employees, it is impossible to distinguish between the effects of long work hours and the effects of pure overtime, as for full-timers overtime work and long workhours go hand in hand. Their time cut-off for full time contractual work was 35 hours a week. Time spent in work depends also on the job position. Jacob and Gerson (1997) pointed to the fact that time investment

in work is positively related to holding a professional or managerial position. The inclusion of commuting to work into working time is ambiguous (Snir and Harpaz, 2012). However, most of the studies point out that commuting to work is an inevitable burden of performing work and is not included in the working time (Bleikh, 2018; Sandow, 2019; Mazúrová and Kollár, 2017).

1.2 Workaholism versus work engagement and (potential) emotional investment

Workaholism is defined in many ways with different contexts. Most definitions include notions about long working hours (Mosier, 1983; Snir and Zohar, 2008; Kleppa, Sanne, Tell, 2008), working more than what is demanded/expected (Schaufeli et al., 2006b), prioritizing work over other activities, including neglecting of family relationships (Machlowitz, 1980), low interest in family life and work-life balance (Bonebright et al., 2000; Aziz et al., 2013), enjoyment or passion of work (Gorgievski-Duijvesteijn and Bakker, 2010; Birkeland and Buch, 2015). As workaholism is associated with a high work-related effort, some authors view workaholism in positive terms (Scott et al., 1997) whereas others emphasize its potential negative aspects (Oates, 1971; Robinson, 1998).

The workaholism is related to its interplay with work engagement, which represents a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind where employees bring all their cognitive and emotional energy into work (Schaufeli et al., 2006a; Trépanier et al., 2013; Fernet et al., 2013) characterized by vigour (high level of energy and mental resilience while working), dedication (strongly involved in job activities), and absorption (concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work) (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli et al., 2006b). According to HWI perspective (Snir and Harpaz, 2012), workaholism and work engagement are two faces of the same coin. Workaholism and work engagement are subtypes of HWI: workaholism is based on an addiction to work (an internal, uncontrollable, and stable predictor), while work engagement is an expression of a passion to work (an internal, controllable, and stable predictor). Workaholics show an exaggerated need to work and it seems impossible for them to repress it, endangering health, reducing their happiness, and deteriorating their interpersonal relationships (Schaufeli et al., 2006a).

Employees characterized by a high level of work engagement work intensively for many hours, as well as workaholics do (Schaufeli et al., 2002), but with passionate involvement (Buelens and Poelmans, 2004). Workaholism and work engagement are associated with distinctive outcomes (Shimazu and Schaufeli, 2009): workaholism is associated with negative outcomes and work engagement with positive outcomes. Workaholism is associated with high levels of job strain and mental health complaints (van Beek et al., 2011), job-related negative affects (Balducci et al., 2018; Clark et al., 2014; Buelens and Poelmans, 2004) poor quality of sleep (Kubota et al., 2010; Åkerstedt et al., 2002), more interpersonal conflict at work (Mudrack, 2006), poorer social relationships (Bonebright et al., 2000), burnout (Stoeber and Damian, 2016; Falco et al., 2014) and work-family conflict (Walga, 2018; Burke, 2009). Work engagement is associated with low levels of health complaints and high levels of psychological and physical health (Seppälä et al., 2012), work motivation (Hitka et al., 2018; Demerouti et al., 2017) and well-being (Di Castro et al., 2018; Dutschke et al., 2019; Gervais and Millea, 2014).

1.3 Approaches to measure workaholism and work engagement

Recent empirical findings give reason to differentiate between 'enthusiastic' and 'non-enthusiastic' workaholics (Andreassen et al., 2010). Non-enthusiastic workaholics are characterized by high levels of work involvement, high levels of drive, and low levels of enjoyment of work, whereas enthusiastic workaholics, typically have high scores on all three workaholism components (work involvement, drive and enjoyment of work) as measured by the frequently used Workaholism Battery (WorkBAT) developed by Spence and Robbins (1992). The enjoyment of work is detected within WorkBAT methodology by item 'Sometimes I enjoy my work so much that I have a hard time stopping' and so assesses satisfaction from work. Shimazu and Schaufeli (2009) demonstrated the empirical distinctiveness of workaholism

and work engagement by examining their relationships with well-being. Workaholism was measured with the Dutch Workaholism Scale (DUWAS) developed by Schaufeli and his colleagues (Schaufeli et al., 2006b). The scale consists of two subscales; Working Excessively (e.g., I stay busy and keep many irons in the fire) and Working Compulsively (e.g., I feel guilty when I take time off work). They confirmed that workaholism was positively associated with ill-health (psychological distress and physical complaints) and negatively associated with life satisfaction (job and family satisfaction) and job performance. In contrast, work engagement was negatively associated with ill-health and positively associated with life satisfaction and job performance.

Work engagement shows a negative relation with work interference (Schaufeli and Salanova, 2011; Van Wijhe et al., 2011) in the way that investment in work does not prevent the involvement in various life roles (Timms et al., 2015). This is in line with Ivy and colleagues (Ivy et al., 2010) who showed a positive relationship between work engagement and work family enrichment. The consequences on the family context of work engagement are in line with the enrichment theory (Greenhaus et al., 2006), which specifies the conditions under which work and family roles are “allies” rather than “enemies” (Friedman and Greenhaus, 2000). To summarize, according to the enrichment theory, resources generated in one life role can produce positive consequences in another role.

Scafuri Kovalchuk and colleagues (2019) used the nine-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) for work engagement measurement, adapted by Balducci and colleagues (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Balducci et al., 2010). Participants were asked to respond on a five-point scale ranging from “never” to “every day” with regard to how frequently they experienced the feeling. Another possibility of exploring work engagement is measurement of emotional exhaustion. Six items from Maslach Burnout Inventory were used to measure emotional exhaustion (Scafuri Kovalchuk et al., 2019). Respondents were asked to rate the frequency of effects on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (never) to 5 (every day). An item example is as follows: “I feel emotionally drained from my work”. Scafuri Kovalchuk and colleagues (2019) found evidence of a protective role of work engagement against work–family conflict. These results support hypothesis regarding a possible spill over effect, which would allow a crossover of positive resources between the work and the family domains. In other words, according to the enrichment theory (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006), if, for example, one is happy and satisfied regarding his/her own work, although he/she works excessively, he/she will easily recover from working by spilling the positive emotions over from the work to family domain. Work engagement was positively and significantly correlated to gender, whereas it was negatively correlated to the discrepancy subscale of perfectionism, work–family conflict, and emotional exhaustion.

1.4 Work energy investment and affective well-being

Workaholism and work engagement are weakly and positively related with each other, but they represent two different kinds of concepts; workaholism is associated with unwell-being, whereas work engagement with well-being. Therefore, we can conclude that workaholism has adverse effects on employees’ well-being, whereas work engagement has favourable effects on it (Shimazu and Schaufeli, 2009). Work engagement refers to a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Thus, engaged employees work hard (vigour), are involved (dedicated) and feel engrossed (absorbed) in their work. In this sense, they seem similar to workaholics. However, in contrast to workaholics, engaged workers lack the typical compulsive drive. For them work is fun, not an addiction, they work hard because they like their job (intrinsic motivation) and not because they feel driven by an obsessive inner drive they cannot resist (Shimazu and Schaufeli, 2009).

Organizations undoubtedly appreciate, and often benefit, when their employees are fully invested in their work (May et al., 2004). However, is ‘living and breathing’ ones’ work always a good thing? What is more meaningful: working to live or living to work? Recent research suggests the opposite,

that if individuals are unable to detach from work during off-job time, they experience greater fatigue and negative affect (Sonnentag et al., 2008).

Empirical research has shown that workaholism has been associated with an increased trait negative affect (Clark et al., 2010). When individuals experience negative affect, they may be more likely to place themselves in stressful situations (i.e. differential exposure) and have more severe emotional reactions in response to stressful situations (i.e. differential reactivity). Workaholics are compulsive and perfectionistic workers, driven by feelings of guilt when they are not working, and thus they are reluctant to disengage from work (Scott et al., 1997). This guilt intensifies feelings that one is not meeting standards or obligations in either the home or work domain as determined by our cultural norms (Parrott and Harré, 1996). Thus, individuals experiencing feelings of guilt may be more likely to perceive a failure to meet expectations for performance at home and work, and hence greater perceptions of work-home conflict. Additionally, workaholics may be more likely to feel disappointment and anxiety about failing to reach an unattainable ideal level of performance because of their perfectionistic tendencies (Clark et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2007; Scott et al., 1997).

2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 Methodological background

When introducing HWI concept, Snir and Harpaz (2012) indicated three groups of HWI predictors. They are 1. background predictors (e.g. gender, parenthood, education level), 2. external predictors (basic financial needs, employer demand, holding a managerial or professional position, organizational culture, type of industry, labour market conditions, such as labour union policy, cross-cultural differences), and 3. internal predictors (e.g. an addiction to work, passion for work, desire to stay away from intimacy and escape from private life, low preference for leisure, materialism, work ethic, including hard work, long hours, pride in work and a job well done).

This contribution is based on the consideration of HWI according to the time spent in paid work (heavy time investment, HTI), subjective perception of the passion for paid work (perception of happiness), involvement in domestic unpaid work (as internal predictor), income (as external predictor), using the classification according to gender, parenthood, education, and place of living (background predictors), with regard to the Slovak labour market conditions.

Based on the premise of Snir and Zohar (2008), focusing only on HTI, we consider workaholism as one standard deviation above the regional average. According to Labour Force Sample Survey results in the Slovak Republic for the 4th quarter 2018, we were able to calculate average time on paid work in Slovakia for 2018 for two categories – employed persons and self-employed persons (in both categories classified also according to the gender) (see Table 1).

Table 1 Average usual hours worked per week and standard deviation in 2018 in Slovakia

	Average	Standard Deviation (SD)	Workaholism cut-off time (per week)	Workaholism cut-off time (per day)
Employees total	35.7	0.134811	35.834811	7.1669622
Employees women	34.5	0.202408	34.702408	6.9404816
Employees men	36.8	0.177256	36.977256	7.3954512
Self-employment jobs total	41.1	0.378639	41.478639	8.2957278
Self-employment jobs women	38.6	0.739178	39.339178	7.8678356
Self-employment jobs men	42.1	0.432906	42.532906	8.5065812

Source: Own construction based on the Labour Force Sample Survey results in the Slovak Republic for the 4th quarter 2018, Statistical office of the Slovak Republic

Referring to Slovak Labour code (Act No. 311/2001 Coll.), the maximum weekly working time is 40 hours. Break for lunch (usually 30 minutes), as well as commutation to work are not included in the working time (Martinkovičová et al., 2019; Mazúrová and Kollár, 2017).

To meet the aim of the paper we needed to gather data on the distribution of the time during the working day, as well as on the current feeling (emotions) at the moment of performing various activities during the day. In Slovakia, there was not any survey containing such data conducted before. To gather necessary data, we conducted original questionnaire field research (primary data collection).

Research was based on Time Use Survey (TUS) methodology. In Slovakia, there are no official time use surveys (except of two pilot surveys in 2006 (200 households were involved) and in 2018 (50 respondents were involved)). Our survey is the first survey based on TUS methodology, including time diary as recommended by Eurostat (in terms of observed variables and sample size).

To indicate the interconnection of workaholism (based on the length of working time as criteria) and the enjoyment of work, as an affective component of subjective well-being (SWB), we used the TUS methodology, as well. The TUS represents a research instrument suitable for measuring both components of subjective well-being, cognitive and affective, by linking three basic variables: time – activity – feeling (Martinkovičová et al., 2020). One of the options to measure emotions and feelings during the paid work is a question, which is used as part of a time diary. It is the so-called “column of happiness”. In the 2010, within the French TUS, the French national statistical office, added the intensity of emotional experience as a separate column in the time diary (enjoyment field), asking the respondent to record “was that moment pleasant or unpleasant” on a scale from minus 3 (unpleasant) to plus 3 (pleasant) (INSEE, 2010). This method measures not only intensity but also frequency of emotional experience and we consider it suitable for measuring work enjoyment as sub-dimension of the HWI and for distinguishing between the subtypes workaholism and work engagement.

2.2 Data collection and elaboration

The survey was conducted in March and April 2019. In the survey, 517 households in Slovakia were involved, and 1 202 respondents (individuals living in the surveyed households) filled in a questionnaire and the time diary. Households were personally visited and interviewed by volunteer students (students were trained to ask questions and to collect the data). Each student interviewed three different households and had two restrictions/ criteria for contacting households. To achieve the representativeness by the area, the first contacted household was from Bratislava or Western Slovakia Region, second from Central Slovakia and the last from Eastern Slovakia Region. Next restriction concerned the household type: one contacted household was single-member household, second was a family household with children dependent on parent’s income, in which there is at least one child under 15 years of age (complete or incomplete family) and the third household was a family without dependent children in complete or incomplete family.

We used Computer Assisted Personal Interview method (CAPI) for recording answers from respondents. All answers were recorded, and data were prepared for further proceedings. We divided all acquired data into two databases, namely database of households’ responses and database of individuals’ responses. After weighting all data, we confirmed representativeness of the research sample by the gender, age categories, and by the education level (in the sample of individuals), and by the number of household’s members and the number of households in the regions (in the sample of households).

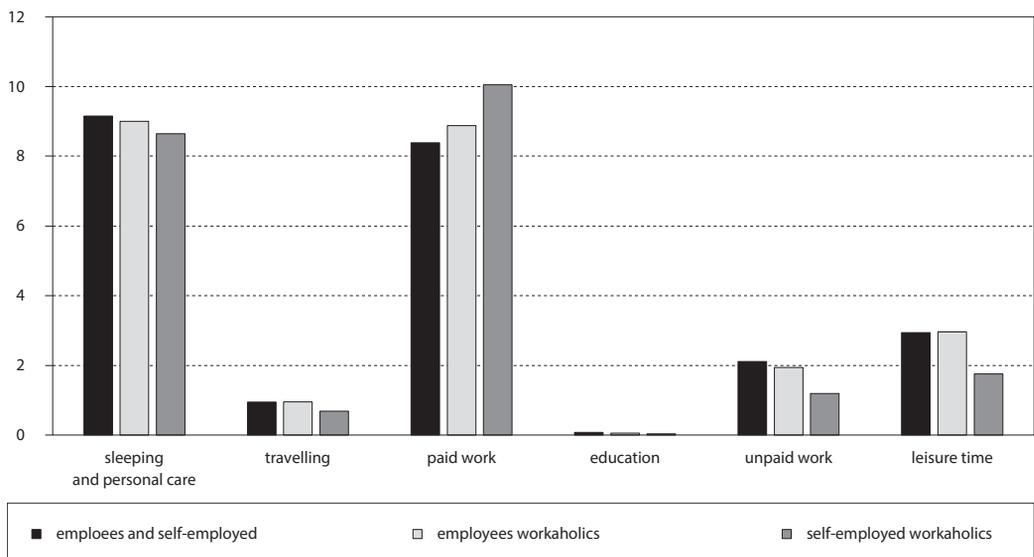
The questionnaire contained several modules of questions focusing on the paid work, decision making process on the allocation of time on paid work, unpaid work and leisure time, influence of the education level on the decision making process of household members, attitudes to education, financial situation in the household and socio-demographic variables of the household and its members. By completing the time diary, respondents identified the distribution of their activities during the randomly chosen

working day and free day (weekend or other day when respondent usually does not perform paid work). For indicating affective SWB, respondents answered the question “How do you feel while performing the activity?”. Respondents indicated level of happiness (from very unpleasant to very pleasant, we used a five-point scale) for all time diary activities, including working time, unpaid work in households, and leisure time.

For this contribution, we exported and analysed data on employees and self-employed persons.

The basic differentiation of the time allocation during the working day between various groups of activities according to the categories of employed and self-employed persons (divided on group of all employees and self-employed persons, and specifically workaholic employees and workaholic self-employed persons) is evident from Figure 1.

Figure 1 Time allocation of employees and self-employed persons, workaholic employees and workaholic self-employed (in hours per working day)



Source: Own construction

For data analysis we used SPSS software, version 25, for hypotheses testing we used the significance level 0.05.

For the identification of the correlation between the length of time devoted to paid work, unpaid work and the socio-demographic variables, we used the test of significance of Spearman’s correlation coefficient. Firstly, we identify correlations in the databases of employees and self-employed persons together. Afterwards, we focused particularly on workaholics (separately in the group of employed persons and group of self-employed persons). When insignificance was rejected, the Spearman’s correlation coefficient was computed and interpreted. In case of education and length of working time at the controlled income, we used Pearson’s partial correlation coefficient.

Because the assumptions of normal distribution of the variables (emotion at the performed activities, the length of time for paid work, number of performed activities during the day) were rejected, we used nonparametric Mann-Whitney test for testing the significance of differences by the gender, and differences between people with standard time devoted to paid work and the workaholics.

2.3 The aim of the study and hypothesis

The aim of the study is to identify the well-being of employees who invest heavier in the work (focusing on workaholics identified according to HTI). Considering various backgrounds, internal and external predictors of HWI (Snir and Harpaz, 2012), interconnection of workaholism and emotions (Scafuri Kovalchuk et al., 2019; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006) and well-being (Shimazu and Schaufeli, 2009; Clark et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2007), we set the following hypothesis:

H1 Happiness at paid work: workaholics and non-workaholics do not feel the same level of happiness while performing paid work (we assume that workaholics feel less happy at paid work than non-workaholics),

H2 Heavy time investment and happiness by gender: there is a statistically significant difference in heavy time investment and happiness by gender (we assume that men-workaholics feel happier at paid work than women-workaholics; we assume that women-workaholics feel happier at performing unpaid work than at performing paid work),

H3 Heavy time investment and education: education is a significant factor influencing HTI (we assume that employees-workaholics with higher education invest heavier in time at paid work than employees with lower education).

From total amount of 1 202 respondents, 614 were workaholics. Considering different cut-off time for workaholism for men and women, and for employed persons and self-employed persons, the sample was 577 employed workaholics, out of them 304 men-workaholics and 273 women-workaholics, and 37 self-employed workaholics (29 men and 8 women). Small differences between sample size and totals in tables are caused by not answering some questions in questionnaire.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The different feelings of happiness during the paid work of workaholics and non-workaholics are related to the different ways of investing energy and emotional commitment. An interesting access to work engagement offered self-determination theory. On its basis work engagement may be a protective factor from the undesirable outcomes of workaholism (Ryan and Deci, 2017; McMillan and O'Driscoll, 2004). This theory focuses on the autonomous motivation that is characterized by people being engaged in an activity with a full sense of willingness, will, and choice; furthermore, often, autonomously regulated activities are intrinsically motivated. When the work's motivation is externally regulated, individuals perceive their behaviour as being directly controlled by others, often through contingent rewards and threats; in this case, they talk about "motivation control" that can have negative spillover effects on subsequent performance and work engagement (Scafuri Kovalchuk et al., 2019). This approach shows that workaholism is associated with controlled motivation and work engagement with autonomous motivation generating high levels of positive affect (Van Beek et al., 2011; Gillet et al., 2017). Engaged workers lack the typical compulsive drive, which is typical for workaholics. For them work is fun, not an addiction, they work hard because they like their job (intrinsic motivation) and not because they feel driven by an obsessive inner drive they cannot resist. So, even though workaholics and engaged employees may work similarly hard, their motivation to do so differs fundamentally. It is interesting to note that workaholism shows a positive relationship with excess working time whereas this relationship is absent for work engagement (Shimazu and Schaufeli, 2009). Based on this concept, we tried to identify if the level of happiness at paid work is the same in the group of workaholics and non-workaholics. Comparing the level of happiness of workaholics and non-workaholics, using Mann-Whitney U test, we found out that employees non-workaholics feel happier at performing paid work than employees workaholics (p -value = 0.003). In the group of self-employed people this assumption was not confirmed (p -value = 0.11).

In case of second hypothesis we assume, that men-workaholics feel happier at paid work than women-workaholics and that women-workaholics feel happier at performing unpaid work than at performing paid

work. International surveys as well as our original research on unpaid work in Slovakia (Antonopoulos and Hirway 2009; Martinkovičová et al., 2020) have shown long-term unequal distribution of participation of men and women on unpaid work and draw attention to the ongoing trend of greater participation of women in unpaid work activities. We analysed correlations of workaholism and several background predictors (gender, age, parenthood, place of living, education). We found out statistically insignificant correlation between the workaholism and parenthood, age category and place of living (Table 2). On the other side, there is weak correlation between the paid work time investment and gender, men-workaholics spend more time in paid work than women-workaholics (see Table 3); differences are statistically significant for both groups workaholics.

Table 2 Correlation matrix – heavy time investment (HTI) and background variables (Spearman's correlation coefficients)

			HTI	Gender	Age	Education level	Parentship	Place of living
Employees	HTI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-0.231	-0.014	-0.128	0.028	0.078
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.732	0.002	0.497	0.061
		N	577	577	577	577	577	572
Self-employed	HTI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-0.382	0.018	0.105	-0.076	-0.153
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.020	0.915	0.537	0.649	0.372
		N	37	37	37	37	37	36

Source: Own construction

Table 3 Time investment of workaholics by the activity status – descriptive statistics (hours per week)

	Employees			Self-employed		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Men	304	43.0265	7.35607	29	51.2062	8.25076
Women	273	40.7972	6.37898	8	45.3582	6.32454

Source: Own construction

In the case of happiness feeling, on the basis of surveyed data, there was not statistically significant difference between the level of happiness in paid work of employed workaholic men and women. We used Mann-Whitney test (p -value = 0.456). When comparing happiness at performing paid work and unpaid household work, both men-workaholics and women-workaholics feel happier at performing unpaid work (used Wilcoxon test, men: $N = 265$, p -value = 0; women: $N = 251$, p -value = 0). The results show that women-workaholics feel even happier and emotional when performing unpaid work than men-workaholics do. Our research shows that although the time burden of paid work increases for women-workaholics, it does not affect the persistently higher affective well-being from unpaid work (Wilcoxon test, p -value = 0.023). We assume that it is linked with the fact, that unpaid work has an economic but also a significant social value. Most of these activities, family actions, regular cycles (such as cooking, washing, ironing, learning with children, helping in the garden and others) have significant reinforcing nature and importance. These activities positively influence the social and family relationships of people, both in terms of creating educational patterns, understanding their place in the family as traditional work, or in the context of meaningful leisure time in own family environment.

However, unexpected result of the analysis was that men-workaholics feel happier at taking care of children than women-workaholics (p -value = 0.018; children care is a part of unpaid work activities).

After deeper analysis, we found out that women-workaholics performed significantly more types of activities during the day than men-workaholics. It seems that women-workaholics, facing the double burden (heavy investment in paid work as well as heavy investment in unpaid household activities) divide the happiness between many various activities, while men-workaholics feel happy while enjoying moments with their children. The hypothesis H2 was statistically tested and confirmed.

It is important in many respects to consider education when researching HWI. It is natural to assume that effort, energy, costs, as well as time invested in higher education should be reflected (manifested) in the form of career stimulation, higher responsibility and undoubtedly increasing income (Želinský et al., 2018). All these factors should affect the subjective well-being of employees. On the other hand, meeting these expectations requires spending more time in paid work. In Table 4, there is data on distribution of time in paid work of workaholics by the education level.

Table 4 Distribution of time in paid work of workaholics by the education level

	Hours in paid work per week				Total
	Up to 38	From 38 up to 42	From 42 up to 50	More than 50	
1 Primary school	0	0	3	1	4
2 Secondary vocational school, vocational school (less than 4 years)	37	16	19	25	97
3 Grammar school, secondary vocational school, vocational school (at least 4 years)	78	72	53	36	239
4 Postgraduate studies, post-secondary education	4	5	3	10	22
5 Higher education, university	101	79	58	14	252
Total	220	172	136	86	614

Source: Own construction

However, our analysis showed unexpected results. We confirmed negative correlation between the education and time investment (higher the education, lower the time investment of workaholic employees – see Table 2). This result is inconsistent with the premises (Želinský et al., 2018; Snir and Harpaz, 2012). That is why we focused deeper on this phenomenon. Using the Pearson Correlation, we identified significant positive correlation of education and income ($r = 0.327$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$). Using the partial correlations, we found a significant negative correlation between the education and time in paid work, at the controlled level of income ($r = -0.254$, $p\text{-value} = 0$). Thus, employees-workaholics with lower education must invest heavier in time than employees-workaholics with higher education, to reach the same level of income. At the same time, there is an indirect support for the flexibility of the labour market in the form of parallel employment relationships (part-time work, teleworking, home office, etc.). Considering the level of happiness (as discussed at hypothesis H1), workaholic employees in Slovakia invest heavily in time to reach desired income, however, without feeling happiness during the heavily invested worked hours. This phenomenon of “forced workaholism” or “forced HTI” requires deeper analysis in the future. Based on the analysis, hypothesis H3 was not confirmed.

CONCLUSION

The concept of HWI reveals several interesting contexts and many unexpected correlations. The paper examines workaholics in Slovakia (considering a workaholic as an employee who works longer than a standard deviation above the national average), in relation to their experienced affective well-being. In the paper, authors present unique data collected in Slovakia, based on the Time Use Survey methodology

with added information on the happiness (self-reported feeling of happiness on the five-point scale). The paper provides not only theoretical framework, but also empirical data on several predictors and outcomes of HWI. In addition to employees, as standardly understood subjects of HWI, the article also points to self-employed persons and their heavy workload.

In paid work, level of positive emotional experience of workaholics is lower than level of positive emotions of non-workaholics. The standard length of working time is linked with the same job enjoyment of both workaholics and non-workaholics. A negative change of affective well-being in the form of growing tension, discomfort or stress occurs when workaholics work beyond this time limit.

In case of the relationship between workaholism and gender, the research confirmed a more heterogeneous portfolio of emotional commitment for women-workaholics. It is related to the ability to diversify the experience of positive emotions in different phases of the working day in favour to an increased feeling of happiness in performing activities outside working hours (unpaid work and leisure). However, men-workaholics enjoy time spent with children more than women-workaholics.

An examination of the relationship between HTI and the level of education revealed the so-called forced workaholism. This finding can be a stimulus for professional discussion on this issue in the future in the form of a comparison of international research in this area. It would be interesting to find an answer to the question of whether we can generalize this phenomenon or if it is a typical accompanying feature of less developed economies, or former post-socialist countries.

Research was based on a static data collected in a specific period. It is necessary to continue with the research, compare data in time. Because of general lack of empirical data, it was not possible to compare the situation in Slovakia with other countries. The research was not conducted specially for the purpose of collecting all possible data on HWI. That is why we were able to analyse only limited features of HWI in Slovakia. The main characteristic we analyse is the time, it means only one component of HWI (heavy time investment). In the research, we did not focus on the effort in work. To get a general overview about the HWI in Slovakia, it would be necessary to also include analysis of the effort and perception of subjective feeling of workaholism.

In the research, we focused on the standard population in Slovakia. We assume that our results, although generalized for the entire Slovakia, relate to the average employed persons, and do not take into account the specific corporate culture in multinational companies (where it is possible to assume an overtime culture, it means workaholism forced by working environment).

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