

**MEANING OF WORK AND WORK ENGAGEMENT
AMONG EDUCATORS IN CHOMA DISTRICT, ZAMBIA**

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ABSTRACT

Aim

The promotion of happiness is an important goal for psychology and most studies of happiness focus on the three routes to happiness that have been identified by Seligman (2003): (1) pleasure, (2) engagement, and (3) meaning. Engagement and meaning should be targeted to promote sustainable happiness of people. The aim of this study is to investigate the subjective experiences of meaning of work, work role fit, psychological meaningfulness and engagement among a sample of educators in Zambia.

Method

A quantitative approach was followed and the research design used was a cross-sectional survey. The representative population ($n = 150$) used for this research was 75 basic and 75 secondary/high school educators who live in the Choma district of Zambia. Convenience sampling was used to identify the participants for the research. The Work-role Fit Scale, Work-Life Questionnaire, Psychological Meaningfulness Scale, and Work Engagement Scale were administered. The statistical analyses were carried out by means of the SPSS program. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data. The construct validity and reliability of the measuring instruments was assessed by conducting exploratory factor analyses and computing Cronbach alphas. Pearson correlations were used to specify the relationships between the variables. Multiple regression analyses were performed to test mediating effects in this study.

Results

The results showed that work beliefs (and specifically those with a calling orientation) explained 26.7% of the variance in psychological meaningfulness at work, which increased to 45.5% if work role fit was included as a predictor. A calling orientation to work explained approximately 52% of the variance in emotional and physical engagement of educators, but work role fit and psychological meaningfulness did not predict work engagement when work beliefs were controlled for. Structural equation modelling confirmed a model in which a calling orientation impacted psychological meaningfulness and work engagement. A calling orientation predicted work engagement directly, while such work orientation impacted psychological meaningfulness indirectly via work role fit.

Conclusion

The results suggest that psychological meaningfulness and work engagement are two separate individual outcomes at work, and that a calling orientation impacted both outcomes.

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I give all honour and glory to the Lord Jesus Christ, through whom all things are possible.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this to my family, who so believed in me, even in times when I was not so sure about what or where I was heading.

Mum (Veronica Hamukang'andu), Dad (Thuma Hamukang'andu), Maingaila Hamukang'andu and Luyando Hamukang'andu; this is for you all.

To the memory of my late brother Sunday Hamukang'andu. You are always missed. May you rest in peace.

DECLARATIONS

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Lukondo Hamukang'andu

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This thesis is about work role fit, meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness and work engagement of educators in Zambia.

In Chapter 1, there will be a discussion on the orientation of the study and the statement of the problem, thereafter a discussion will be made on the research objectives and the methodology that was used to conduct the study.

1.1 ORIENTATION OF STUDY

The field of psychology has for a long time since its inception focused on the negative aspects of human life, such as depression, pathology and other forms of mental illness. In the past 10 years there has, however, been a shift in the field to focus on the positive aspects of human life (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This has come to be known as the field of positive psychology which can be defined as “...the study of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s (world and) workplace” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003, p. 3). The field of positive psychology has reclaimed the attributes of character and virtue as legitimate topics that the social sciences should study and investigate (Peterson, Ruch, Beermann, Park, & Seligman, 2007; Seligman 2002). Positive psychology focuses not only on human strengths but also on the “positive implications of stressful life events and transitions to promote optimal functioning and quality of life”

(Taubman-Ben-Ari & Weintraub, 2008, p. 621). The aim of positive psychology is not to ignore the negative aspects of human life but to see how these can be dealt with and what positive implications they have in a person's life by focusing on positive aspects of stressful life events (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Positive psychology is concerned with repairing weaknesses as well as nurturing strengths, remedying deficits as well as promoting excellence, reducing that which diminishes life, as well as building that which makes life worth living (Rothmann 2003; Seligman, Park, & Steen 2004, Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This has led to, among other things, a boost in the emergence of happiness studies in the field of psychology. In the past, happiness was just a buzz word used in organizations but now it has reclaimed a position of real importance in the organization. Happiness refers to the experience of a sense of joy, satisfaction, and positive well-being, combined with a sense that one's life is good, meaningful, and worthwhile (Seligman, 2002). When individuals feel happy about themselves and/or their work, they are more likely to experience positive outcomes such as superior attention, longevity, quick recovery from illnesses, and protecting themselves against the onset of diseases (Jackson, Rothmann, & Van de Vijver, 2006; Seligman, 2008). Furthermore, happiness contributes to better business results, improved interpersonal relationships, and more marital satisfaction (Seligman, 2002).

Fifty percent of a person's happiness is determined by one's set point, 40% is determined by intentional activity and 10% by circumstances (Peterson, Nansook, & Seligman, 2005; Seligman 2002). It should be noted that happiness entails much more than the absence of unhappiness. It includes pleasure, referred to as the pleasant life, engagement, referred to as the engaged life, and meaning, which is referred to as the meaningful life. Another concept

that has been frequently used in positive psychology is the concept of subjective well-being. It is referred to as subjective because it is person specific and subject to an individual's perception and attitude towards their well-being. Subjective well-being (SWB) is a broad notion of thought that encompasses general satisfaction with life, positive feelings and the absence of negative feelings (Alexandrova, 2005).

Research has shown that people spend approximately one third of their waking life at work (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). This means that the larger proportion of human interactions and human life is spent at work. As pointed out by Harpaz, Honig, and Coetsier (2002) work is undoubtedly central to the very existence of the individual. Therefore, it has become pertinent to study people's interactions at work. That is why it is important for the organisation to make the work experience as pleasant, meaningful and engaging as possible. The work place should not only be a livelihood but it should also be a place that fosters the happiness of employees. Work is not merely a survival concern but an existential concern; thus it offers a person the possibility of having a wide range of experiences at a given time. These experiences range from not only positive emotions such as exhilaration, satisfaction and joy, but also to negative emotions, for instance, disappointment, despair and grief (Ardichvili 2009).

Although educators are the cornerstones of the development of a nation that wishes to become a knowledge-based economy, they are among the poorest of professionals in the Zambian society, who can barely afford the essentials of life. Compared to other civil servants and other educators within the region, Zambian educators have the worst conditions of service. Educators are paid about R3 000 (US \$345) a month and 15 percent of this amount is what they are paid as their housing allowance, while other civil servants in the country are

paid a monthly salary of about R5 000 (US \$575) and a hundred percent of this amount is what they are paid as their housing allowance. Educators have poor or inadequate housing, poor incentives and have few development and promotion opportunities. In spite of this, educators are the most dedicated of civil servants, though in the long run most of them build up frustration and become disengaged from their work (Kelly, 1999). It is against this backdrop that the question arises as to why educators experience meaning in their job and engage with work, even with such poor conditions. The aim of the study was therefore to investigate the relationship between work orientation, work role fit, psychological meaningfulness, and work engagement.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The principal focus of happiness studies is subjective well-being. It is referred to as 'subjective' because the participants give their own view of how they experience and the attitude they have towards well-being. Subjective well-being is a broad notion which encompasses the general satisfaction one has with one's life, positive feelings, and the absence of negative feelings (Alexandrova 2005). According to Peterson (2007, p. 150), "true happiness entails identifying one's virtues, cultivating them and living in accordance with them". Happiness is not just identifying the virtues a person has; for someone to be happy they should continually cultivate their identified virtues and live in accordance with them through finding meaning and engaging in work. Therefore this study will explore Zambian educators' experiences of psychological meaningfulness at work and their work engagement.

The promotion of happiness is an important goal for psychology and most studies of happiness focus on the three routes to happiness that have been identified by Seligman

(2003): (1) pleasure, (2) engagement, and (3) meaning. However, it has been found that pleasure is less under the control of the individual, as it is short-lived, and may most likely result when the other two routes of happiness are experienced. As such, most of the happiness research focuses on engagement and meaning, because these two are more under the control of the individual and lead to longer lasting fulfilment (Peterson, Nansook, & Seligman, 2005; Seligman 2002). Although these two routes of meaning and engagement are distinct, they can be pursued simultaneously since they are also distinguishable and compatible. Therefore, they can each be associated with the satisfaction one has with life (Peterson *et al.*, 2005).

Engagement is defined by Kahn (1990, p. 694) as “the harnessing of members’ selves to their work roles (such that they) employ and express themselves physically, cognitively (mentally) and emotionally during role performance.” There are three psychological conditions that Kahn (1990) proposes that mediate the relationship between engagement and the conditions at work: (1) psychological safety, (2) psychological availability, and (3) psychological meaningfulness. Psychological safety is a feeling that people can employ and show their true selves at work without the fear of negative consequences to their career, self-image and status. People feel safe at work when they understand the boundaries of acceptable behaviour, but they feel unsafe if the work situation is threatening, ambiguous and unpredictable. Psychological availability results when people believe they have the cognitive, emotional and physical resources to be engaged at work. People are available at work when they feel they have the resources to meet the work and non-work demands. Psychological meaningfulness is experienced when one has a feeling that one is receiving a return on investment of the self in a currency of physical, emotional and cognitive energy (Kahn, 1990; May, Gilson & Harter., 2004). Psychological meaningfulness is strongly related to employee engagement (May *et al.*, 2004).

Personal meaning is the way people express the value they place on events and the course of their lives and the significance they attach to their existence. Meaningful work is a deeper level of intrinsic motivation: when one feels one's work is meaningful; one is intrinsically motivated to work harder. The concept of meaningful work also has to do with one's perceived fit between the self-concept and work-role fit. When individuals feel their work role 'fits' with their self-concept, they experience meaning of work. Employees' experiences of meaning at work are affected by their experiences of meaning of work.

Meaning of work is defined as the "degree of general importance that the subjective experience of working has in the life of an individual, at any given time" (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler & Tipton, 1985). The subjective experiences of meaningfulness could be classified into three meanings of work orientations, where the person experiences his/her work either as a job, a career, or a calling. It is possible to find people in an occupation with all three kinds of relationships to their work. When people view their work as a job, they are only engaged in work activities for the material benefits they expect to receive from working. Work is seen as a means to an end, not an end in itself. It is a means for one to get the resources that will help them enjoy themselves in their time away from work. Their major ambitions and interests are expressed elsewhere and not in their work. Those who view their work as a career, devote time and energy to work activities because they expect the organisation to reward them with the continuous advancement opportunities within the corporate structure. They have a deeper personal investment in their work not just for the monetary benefits but the opportunities for advancement. This advancement usually entails higher social standing and increased power within their scope of occupation. The others, who view their work as a calling, engage in work activities as a result of the fulfilment they derive

from engaging in their work. They see their work as being socially valuable and as an end in itself, and they find their work inseparable from their life (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997).

The research problems can be summarised as follows: In the Zambian education sector, scientific information is needed regarding the relationship among work orientation (meaning of work), work role fit, psychological meaning at work, and work engagement. It is therefore necessary to conduct research regarding work orientation, work role fit, psychological meaningfulness at work, and work engagement of educators in Zambia. Such scientific information regarding the relationships among these constructs would be of great value when implementing intervention among employees and for managing employees at work.

1.3 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

Why focus on educators' meaningfulness and engagement? Why is this study important? First, educators, like most people, spend more than a third of their lives at work and more than 88% of this working time is spent in interactions with other people. These people are the students they teach, colleagues and other school support staff, and the parents of their students (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997). Bellah *et al.* (1985) suggested that the effect of meaning of work is clearly [more] visible in an occupation where the individuals are constantly interacting with various social systems within an organisation. Also, educators constantly interact with various social systems in their daily work experiences; for instance, educational administrators at different levels (national provincial, district, and at the school), the community, and pupils. It can thus be assumed that the meaning of work can be clearly observed among the educators.

The meaning of work has over the years received great importance because of the central role work plays in the lives of workers in general and educators in particular. The kind of work people choose to do usually reflects how they see themselves; if people are asked who they are, they will most likely define themselves based on the job they do, such as “I am an educator”. The importance of work in the life of an individual is that it plays a central role in the expression, maintenance and development of psychological health. Work is not just a source of psychological health but it is also a source of disappointments and dreams and can help an individual recover from mental distress. It helps an individual fulfil different needs, such as the need for self-determination, the need for relatedness, and the need for survival (Blustein, 2008).

Second, educators are primary role models for happiness (engagement and meaning) in the workplace. The people in the community, as well as the pupils, look up to them as role models for appropriate behaviour and social guidance. Therefore, for them to continue enjoying the experience of working they need to be engaged in their work and should find meaning in their work. The work of educators transcends individual or even organisational utility in that education offers an opportunity for directly influencing the society at large. This influence is positive in the case of educators (Ardichivili, 2009). The studies done by Kahn (1990) and by May *et al.* (2004) showed that work roles and activities which are aligned with individuals’ self-concepts should be associated with more meaningful work experiences, and this can then also impact individuals’ work engagement. The job of an educator requires dedication and enthusiasm; this is because their job is not only to educate but also to keep the pupils interested in pursuing and completing their educational endeavours. For them to be able to do this, educators should be happy in the work they do. They should be engaged and experience meaningfulness at work. But the work situation of educators in Zambia is not so

motivating or rewarding for them to function at their very best. They face many challenges like inadequate housing, low pay in comparison to other civil servants, limited growth and career advancement opportunities. Some even report having to obtain second or third jobs so that they can carry on teaching (Rothmann & Jordaan 2006).

In spite of the grim situation in the Zambian education sector, educators are still reported to be the most dedicated of civil servants in the country. (Kelly, 1999) This raises the question as to how educators view their work experience. It is also not clear whether their experiences at work will be related to experiences of subjective well-being, meaningfulness and engagement.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following research questions can be formulated based on the above-mentioned statement of the research problem:

- How are the relationships between the constructs of work-role fit, meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness, and work engagement conceptualised in literature?
- How do educators in Zambia experience the meaning of their work?
- What is the relationship between the work-role fit, meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness in work and work engagement in a sample of educators in Zambia?
- Does psychological meaningfulness mediate the relationship between work-role fit and work engagement in a sample of educators in Zambia?

1.5 STUDY OBJECTIVE

The general objective of the research is to investigate the relationships among work role fit, work beliefs, psychological meaning, and work engagement in a sample of educators in Zambia.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study will inform policy makers about group dynamics of educators in schools and situations where misery should be alleviated in the school setting through government intervention. The study will also educate the citizenry about the factors that will enhance their well-being and that they need to continually strive towards these goals. It will also help in identifying the aspects of their work to which educators attach the meaning of work. Furthermore, it will help to conceptualise work-role fit, meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness, work engagement, and the relationships between these constructs from the literature. These accounts can be the basis for improvement of the performance of educators in the country, so they can become more productive and thereby strive to achieve Zambia's vision for 2030, which is to attain an education-based economy.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There were limited resources at the disposal of the researcher to extend the study to educators in other far flung areas or provinces in Zambia. As such, the research was restricted to the southern province of Zambia, in Choma town. The study was restricted to looking at

subjective aspects of well-being as evidenced by how the educators viewed their work, either as a job, a career, or a calling, and establishing whether they were engaged in their work.

1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

1.8.1 Well-being

The concept of well-being can be traced back to early philosophers like Aristotle who propagated the eudemonia view to happiness. From this view, happiness “entails identifying one’s virtues, cultivating them and living in accordance with them” (Peterson, Park, Hill & Seligman 2009, p. 150). This ideology propagated that one should discover one’s virtues and cultivate them for better functioning in life and for the good of all mankind. It is from this premise that Maslow’s (1970) concept of self-actualisation and Ryff and Singer’s (1996) vision of psychological well-being had been developed. For one to be happy, the emphasis was on finding meaning. The second view is the hedonic route to happiness, propagated by Aristippus, which “championed immediate sensory gratification as the chief route to a fulfilling life” (Peterson *et al.* 2009, p. 149). The emphasis was on maximizing pleasure and minimising pain for one to be happy or to experience well-being. The third route to happiness is through ‘flow’, which is an unconscious and non-emotional state. It entails that when one is highly engaged in an activity, time flows quickly as the individual is focused on that particular activity.

Well being, in this research, will therefore be defined as the concept that a person achieves (at work) when they work towards achieve the three routes to happiness; finding meaning in life, experiencing pleasure and being highly engaged in an activity.

1.8.2 Engagement

Kahn (1990, p. 694) defines engagement as harnessing of members of the organisation to their work roles so ‘...that they employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, mentally and emotionally during role performance.’ A person who is engaged does more than what the job requires; they go the extra mile to achieve organisational goals. Engagement was defined by Schaufeli & Bakker (2004) as comprising dedication, vigour and absorption. When one is engaged in one’s work, one is absorbed in the work and approaches it with vigour and stays dedicated to that work. When this behaviour is present in the work place, individuals are absent from work less often, bring discretionary effort to work, and use their initiative to tackle difficult or new tasks. When educators are engaged in their work, they bring discretionary effort to work, they are dedicated, absorbed and have vigour. This will lead to a healthier education sector, reduced absenteeism, presenteeism, and improved work performance. If engagement is not cultivated in the education sector, the opposite will happen – the educators will become disengaged and this will lead to absenteeism, decreased presenteeism, ill-health and the sector will not achieve their goals, which include offering quality education to the nation and achieving an education based economy by 2030. Educators’ engagement in their work should therefore be an area of key interest to the employers, if they are to attain their intended goals.

The definition of engagement that will be used in this research is the definition advanced by Kahn which describes engagement as the achievement by which people attach, express and employ themselves to role performance cognitively, emotionally and physically.

1.8.3 Psychological meaningfulness

When educators are engaged in their work, they are also more likely to find their work psychologically meaningful. The three psychological conditions (psychological safety, availability and meaningfulness) that mediate the relationship between engagement and the conditions at work are important when one uses Kahn's theory of engagement. Psychological meaningfulness is experienced when one experiences a feeling that one is receiving a return on investment of the self in a currency of physical, emotional and cognitive energy. Kahn (1990) found that the three factors that control employees' experience of psychological meaningfulness at work are the task characteristics, role characteristics and work interactions.

1.8.4 Meaning of work

The origins of the search for meaning can be traced back to the early research of the philosopher Aristotle on eudemonia. More extensive work on meaning was done by Frankl (1985) who is the founder of the meaning theory which is also popularly known as the logotherapy theory. Frankl was, at the time of the Nazi concentration camps, kept in different concentration camps for over four years and it was at these camps that he experienced and encountered extreme hopelessness. But while at one of these concentration camps, he observed that people with a strong sense of meaning survived well even under the most extreme suffering and they could still retain their human dignity (Morrison, Burke & Greene 2007, p. 102). People who have a clear sense of meaning are more resilient to suffering than those who do not find any meaning in life. Meaning is the significance one attaches to one's existence and this encompasses the value one places on life's existence and the course of one's life (Taubman-Ben-Ari & Weintroub 2008, p. 625).

When one has meaning, one expresses the freedom to choose, and usually one detects meaning in even the most basic and/or extreme life moments. Classical motivation theorists and humanist psychologists support the notion that people have an inherent need for a work life. This work life should be meaningful to them if they are to continue appreciating and benefiting from it. Meaningfulness is a deeper level of intrinsic motivation; it is not an end-state – it is a continuous process of becoming. Meaning of work is a set of beliefs an individual holds about work. These beliefs are acquired through one's interaction with the social environment. These beliefs are related to the person's career orientation and behaviour in the work situation. This behaviour includes turnover, job performance, absenteeism and job satisfaction.

Meaning of work is the significance one attributes to one's work, one's representation of work and the importance of work in one's life (Ardichivili, 2009). The three work orientations to work that a person can have are work as just a job, work as a career, and work as a calling to a job. Those who view their work as a job do not see any other reward from their work except the material gains they get from their work. They see work as a means to an end, with their enjoyment coming from activities that are outside work. People with a career orientation to work hold the view that work is a means to have a higher social status and a way to gain power in society and to improve their self-esteem. Such people work because they have the anticipation of increased pay, higher social status and prestige that come with promotions and/or progression. People with a calling orientation to work view their work as an end in itself and not a means to an end. When people feel the work they do is a calling, they do not just seek financial rewards inherent in working but their main aim for working is

for the fulfilment they get from their work. Such people see their work as serving a much higher purpose and as a societal benefit (Bellah *et al.*, 1985; Schwartz, 1986).

1.8.5 Work role fit

Work role fit is the perceived fit by individuals between themselves and the work roles they are required to perform at work. When people perceive their work as an opportunity to express themselves they will experience more meaning at work, and they will perceive a work role fit. (May *et al.*, 2004) People are by nature not only goal oriented but they are also creative and self expressive, so they will look for work roles that will help them express their true self. Meaning of work is the result when there is a perceived fit between people's self-concept and their role in the organisation. When one has meaning of work it facilitates personal growth and work motivation. The work may involve activities which are not in themselves pleasurable but because individuals find meaning in work, they cherish it (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997). Work as a process and as an institution transcends the individual's frame of reference and links the person to social, political and economy realms. This link is reciprocal, as the work of educators transcends individual or even organisational utility in that education offers an opportunity for directly influencing the society at large, and this influence is positive in the case of educators (Ardichivili, 2009).

1.8.6 Educators in Zambia

Educators in Zambia present a special opportunity for the study of happiness at work, as they are faced with many challenges in the performance of their teaching duties. The challenges in their work include poor conditions of service, lack of teaching resources, low pay and

prestige, subordinate status among professionals in other fields, poor and inadequate housing, and poor pay (Ministry of Finance and National Planning, June 2006 Fifth National Development Plan 2006-2010). Jackson et al. (2006) found that educators leave their jobs mainly because of the school culture and the community environment. The other reasons are unsupportive supervisors, frustrating bureaucratic processes, poor housing, isolating work and limited career opportunities. These challenges are prevalent in the Zambian education sector; therefore, it is important to provide scientific evidence of the prevalence thereof to policy makers, through showing how these conditions of service affect the meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness, work role fit and engagement of educators at work. They can then formulate policies that help to alleviate these deterrents to employee well-being.

1.9 RESEARCH METHOD

1.9.1 Research design

The approach that was followed for this study is a quantitative approach. The quantitative research approach is every effective in analysing the relationships that exist between different variables (TerreBlanche & Durrheim, 1999). The research design that was used to gather information on the meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness, work-role fit and engagement of educators in Zambia, is a cross-sectional survey. The cross-sectional research design is a design that allows for comparisons between groups measured at one point in time (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006).

1.9.2 Participants

There are approximately 3,500 educators in Choma district who teach in the 20 primary schools and 20 secondary and/or high schools that are found in the district. The representative population that was used for this research is the primary and secondary/high school educators who live in Choma district of Zambia. The findings of this survey of educators in Choma could be generalised to all educators in Zambia. The sampling method that was applied is the convenience sampling method. A convenience sample of one hundred and fifty ($n = 150$) educators was used, who were drawn from different schools in the area. Half of the sample that was used, seventy five ($n = 75$), were primary school educators and the other half, seventy five ($n = 75$), were secondary school educators in Choma, Zambia. These schools in this area were identified as the representative sample because the researcher found them to be easily accessible.

1.9.3 Measuring instruments

The *Work-role Fit Scale* (WRFS; May *et al.*, 2004) was used to measure work-role fit. Using this instrument, work-role fit is measured by averaging four items from May *et al.* (2004) which directly measure individuals' perceived fit with their jobs and their self-concept. For all items, a 5-point agreement-disagreement Likert format from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used. Some of the items included in this measure are "My job 'fits' how I see myself", "I like the identity my job gives me" and "My job 'fits' how I see myself in the future". May *et al.* (2004) found that the internal consistency of the work-role fit scale (WRFS) in a large insurance company is represented by a Chronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92.

The *Work-Life Questionnaire* (WLQ; Wrzesniewski *et al.*, (1997) was utilised in order to determine the levels of meaning (Meanings of Work) educators associate with their work. According to Wrzesniewski *et al.* (1997), the work-life scale (WLQ) is a self-report measure which aims to classify an individual's orientation to work into three main categories, (a) work as a job, (b) work as a career, or (c) work as a calling. The questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first contains a set of three paragraphs representing the three main Meanings of Work, whereby the respondent is encouraged to rate his/her level of association, with each paragraph, on a scale of 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*completely*). The second part consists of a set of 18 items that are used to substantiate the respondent's position on the first part of the questionnaire. The items are also rated on a 5-point Likert scale of 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*completely*). Some of the items included in the second part are "My primary reason for working is financial" and "I find my work rewarding". The results of this questionnaire provide an indication of where the respondents lie on the job-career-calling continuum and measure the respondents' current level of job satisfaction.

The *Psychological Meaningfulness Scale* (PMS; May *et al.*, 2004) was used to measure psychological meaningfulness by averaging six items drawn from Spreitzer (1995) and May *et al.* (2004). For all items, a 5-point agreement-disagreement Likert format from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used. These items measure the degree of meaning that individuals discovered in their work-related activities (e.g., "The work I do on this job is very important to me" and "My job activities are personally meaningful to me."). According to May *et al.* (2004), the internal consistency of the PMS in a large insurance company is represented by a Chronbach alpha coefficient of 0.90.

The *Work Engagement Scale* (WES; May *et al.*, 2004) was adapted and used to measure work engagement. For all items, a 5-point agreement-disagreement Likert format from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) is used. The items reflect each of the three components of Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of work engagement, namely cognitive ("Time passes quickly when I perform my job"), emotional ("I really put my heart into my job"), and physical engagement ('I take work home to do'). Olivier and Rothmann (2007) found a one-factor engagement model consisting of cognitive, emotional and physical engagement ($\alpha = 0.72$). The Work Engagement Scale (WES; May *et al.*, 2004) was used to measure employee engagement. Employee engagement was measured by using an average of 13 items ($\alpha = 0.77$). The items reflect each of the three components of Kahn's conceptualisation of engagement (Kahn, 1990): cognitive (e.g. 'Performing my job is so absorbing that I forget about everything else'), emotional (e.g. 'I really put my heart into my job') and physical (e.g. 'I exert a lot of energy performing my job').

1.9.4 Research procedure

The respondents were secured through interviews to ascertain their willingness to participate in the research. The data was obtained by giving the said questionnaires to the educators, herein being the respondents, in the chosen schools. All the questionnaires were self-report, therefore the respondents were given ample time (a day or two) to answer the questions before the researcher collected the questionnaires.

1.9.5 Data-analysis

The statistical analyses were carried out by means of the SPSS19 program (SPSS Inc., 2009). Descriptive statistics in terms of means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis are used in order to analyse the data. Exploratory factor analyses and Cronbach alphas were used to determine the construct validity and reliability of the measuring instruments. Pearson correlations were used to specify the relationships between the variables. A 95% confidence interval with p-value smaller than or equal to 0.05 was used for statistical significance. A cut-off point of 0.30 (medium effect) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients (Cohen, 1992). Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the amount of variance in the dependent variable, predicted by the independent variables.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) methods as implemented in AMOS (Arbuckle, 2008) was used to test the measurement and structural models in this study by using the maximum likelihood analyses. The following indexes produced by AMOS were used in this study (Hair, Black, Babin, & Andersen, 2010): the Chi-square statistic, which is the test of absolute fit of the model, the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), the Normed Fit Index (NFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the Root-Means-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Indirect effects were assessed using the procedure explained by Hayes (2009). Bootstrapping was used to construct two-sided bias-corrected confidence intervals to evaluate mediation effects. The significance of bootstrap-estimated indirect effects was assessed (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

1.10 OVERVIEW

In Chapter 2 a literature review on psychological meaningfulness, work-role fit, meaning of work and engagement will be made. In Chapter 3 there will be descriptions of the methods and criteria used to select the participant, distribution and application of measuring instruments. Chapter 4 consists of the empirical study in which the research approach, demographic information of participants, and a more detailed description of the measuring instruments used in the study are discussed. Chapter 5 focuses on the results in terms of descriptive statistics, canonical correlations, and correlations between constructs, multiple regression analysis, as well as interpretation and discussion.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduces the orientation of the study, statement of the problem, justification for the study, research objectives, and significance of the study and definition of the key concepts. The research methodology was introduced, including a discussion of the research design, the participants in the research, the measuring instruments used, the procedure and the anticipated data analyses. A brief overview of what can be expected in the following chapters was given.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will explore the work- role fit, meaning of work (job, career, and calling), psychological meaningfulness and engagement (emotional, cognitive and physical).

The promotion of happiness is an important goal for positive psychology and most studies of happiness focus on the three routes to happiness that have been identified by Seligman (2003): (1) pleasure, (2) engagement, and (3) meaning. However, it has been found that pleasure is less under the control of the individual, as it is short-lived, and may result when the other two routes of happiness are experienced. As such, most of the happiness research focuses on engagement and meaning, because these two are more under the control of the individual and lead to longer lasting fulfilment (Peterson *et al.*, 2005; Seligman 2002). Although these two routes are distinct, they can also be pursued simultaneously. Therefore, this research focuses on these two routes to happiness - meaning and engagement. There will be a discussion of the psychological meaningfulness and work role fit and the role they play in meaning of work and engagement.

2.1 WORK ROLE FIT

2.1.1 Definition of work

“Work is about a search for daily meaning as well as daily bread, for recognition as well as cash, for astonishment rather than torpor, in short for a sort of life rather than a Monday to Friday sort of dying” (Terkel, 1972).

There are many definitions that have been advanced about what work is. Most of these are varied in their conceptualisations of work but they seem to have an area of intersection which is that, for something to be called work, it has to be a purposeful activity (Geurts & Demerouti 2003; Morin, 2008; Schabracq, Winnubst, & Cooper 2003). Work has been defined as a set of activities that are coordinated towards the production of something useful and lead to expenditure of energy (Morin, 2008).

Work is a useful activity which people perform, and it is an activity that goes beyond the pleasure one can feel from working but is determined by a definite purpose. This work may be unpleasant or it may be pleasant, and it is possible that it may not lead to monetary gain for the person performing it. But as long as it is valued by the person and has a purpose for the person performing it, it is called work. Work, that is, work that one does in order to get paid or wage work, is defined as, “...a set of (prescribed) tasks that an individual performs while occupying a position in an organization...” Geurts & Demerouti (2003, p. 280). Thus, a person can be said to ‘work’ when they perform tasks as prescribed in their job description. Another all-encompassing definition of work is discussed by Morin (2008) which defines work as an activity in which a person inserts the self in a role so that they can define

themselves, create values, actualise their potential and exercise their talents. In return for this investment, the person will gain a sense of personal effectiveness, most likely even a meaning to life and a sense of achievement. Work as a process and as an institution transcends the individual's frame of reference and links the person to the social, political and economic realms (Ardichivili, 2009).

2.1.2 Work role fit and psychological meaningfulness

When people perceive their work as an opportunity to express themselves, they will experience more meaning at work, because they will perceive a work role fit. Such people will feel they fit in the work they perform (May *et al.*, 2004). When an individual perceives a fit between their work and their self-concept, they will experience more meaning at work. This will happen because a person is able to express their beliefs and values at work. Human beings are by nature not only goal oriented but they are also creative and self-expressive. So they will look for work roles that will help them express their true self. That is why some people leave their jobs with excuses as “that job is not me”. They will feel more effective in a job that helps them express their true self-concept; where they experience a work role fit. Many authors have carried out research on the work role fit, meaning of work and engagement at work. Research by May (2003) in a manufacturing environment, and by Britt *et al.*, (1999) on the Triangle Model of Responsibility, found that when one was in a job that fit with their prescribed identity, they were more engaged in their work. Engagement entails an employee being committed to their work and also taking responsibility at work and in role performance.

It has also been found that when people are in work roles that are congruent to their self-concepts, they will experience more psychological meaningfulness. When people feel that they have a status at work that is congruent with their self-concept, they are likely to experience meaningfulness at work. In the organisation, each role that a person performs has an identity that comes with it which the bearer must assume. The identity one's work gives will be readily assumed by an employee if it fits how they see themselves when they perceive a work role fit (Kahn 1990; May 2004). A person can also feel a sense of calling to their work when the work they do is closely related to their vocational identity. Hirschi (2011, p. 65) defined vocational identity, "as the conscious awareness of oneself as a worker in terms of the importance of work and one's perception of occupational interests, abilities, goals, and values and the structure of meaning in which such self-perception is linked with career roles." When a person tries to find a link between career roles and the self-perceptions, then they are looking for the meaning of working. This vocational identity shares a close relationship with callings in that, like callings, it also leads to striving to find meaning in work. Similarly, an identity prescription is the degree to which the organisational set rules or prescriptions are significant to the person's role and/or identity. When one seeks vocational identity and can acquire this identity through identity prescription, the individual will most likely experience a work role fit.

Cartwright and Holmes (2006) have highlighted that there has been mounting pressure to align work with the personal values of employees. They also highlight that people are prompted to change their careers because the jobs they occupy are not aligned to their personal values and self-concept. There is a very strong connection between an employee's motivation and the organisation's action towards relating corporate image and organisational identity to the employees' own sense of the self or who they are. Work has thus become for

many an employee a very personal issue; one cannot separate the self from the work role he/she performs. Therefore it is imperative for organisations to develop work roles that are challenging, rewarding and humane. These work roles should also make people feel energized and passionate about work. The energy they will feel is defined as the positive arousal that a person can experience when working, and it will be experienced as either a mood or an emotion. Mood is an affective longer lasting state that does not necessarily respond to a specific event, while the emotion is the short response to a specific set of events. This energy is what in turn leads to an employee being passionate about their work and positively engaged in their work.

Work role fit is defined as the fit that an individual perceives between their work roles and their concepts of the self. According to the theory proposed by Kahn (1990) and validated by May *et al.* (2004); individuals will invest more of the self in achieving the goals, set out for them by the organisation, when they experience greater congruence between the self and the requirements of their work role. When individuals perceive congruence between their work roles and their self concepts, they are more likely to experience psychological meaningfulness at work. This is because they are able to express their values, principles and beliefs openly at work (Kahn 1990; May *et al.* 2004). The relationship between the self and the work role is mediated by the psychological meaningfulness an individual experiences at work and will lead to more engagement of the self in task performance (May *et al.* 2004). Furthermore, Van Zyl, Deacon, & Rothmann (2010) found that work role fit did not only predict the psychological meaningfulness in a sample of organisational psychologists, but it also predicted the organisational psychologists' engagement. When an individual perceives a work role fit, they tend to be willing to go beyond the work demands and they tend to employ discretionary effort in task performance. This is because such individuals see their work as

not just a means to an end but as end in itself; they will see their work as a calling (Dik & Duffy, 2008). When the work roles are not fitting compatibly with their self concepts, such individuals will re-craft their work to match how they perceive the self (Wrzesniewski, 2003; Wrzesniewski & Dutton 2001).

2.1.3 Work- role fit and job re-crafting

When employees do not experience a work role fit they will re-craft their work so that they can experience meaningfulness at work. They will informally infuse some aspects of their life that are meaningful into their routine work activities. Kahn (1990) gives an example of this in his research of counsellors at a camp. These counsellors were required to, at different times, either to police or teach the campers at the camp site. The counsellors chose to identify themselves with the role they felt best described or related to their self-concepts. Some saw themselves as policemen while others saw themselves as educators. This is an example of job re-crafting to align one's work with their self-concept. Another example is found in Berg, Dutton, and Wrzesniewski (2008) who give an example of an educator who re-crafts the job she does by taking on the extra roles of testing new computer software in their class. Such an educator will be fulfilling a passion for being a computer technician through teaching the new computer programme in their class (Berg *et al.*, 2008; Kahn, 1990).

Berg *et al.* (2008) report that in research that was carried out among educators, it was found that there are three main ways in which employees can re-craft their work. People can re-craft their jobs, if the work they are currently doing does not align with their self-concept, in three ways: (1) by reframing the societal rationale of their work so that the work is aligned with their passion, with an example of this kind of re-crafting mentioned above in which the

educator taught new computer software, even though this is not a requirement of the job, (2). by taking on additional work that is more closely related to one's passion, with an example of this being a doctor who offers to train residents in addition to his normal duties in the hospital, which will help the doctor fulfil a passion for teaching, and (3) by giving more time, energy and attention to tasks that are related to the person's passion, with an example of this being the counsellor, who sees himself as a police officer to campers.

Job crafting is an ongoing process that involves changes and adjustments that are caused by the challenges an employee perceives in their work. Job crafting is an effective tool for coping with organisational stress and other work pressures. Therefore, it is important for the organisation to leave room for employees to craft their work. But managers should also monitor the situation so that the extra work that the employees take on does not lead to employee burnout. Job re-crafting has the unintended side effect of causing employees to regret their present job choice and also of causing additional stress. For instance, in the example of the doctor, the organisation can ensure that such a doctor does not take on too many interns such that they neglect or are ever burdened by their normal round duties and the other work they do in the hospital. However, the advantages of job re-crafting outweigh the disadvantages, in that it makes the work experience more of a positive experience for the employee and the employee becomes more resilient. This resilience will lead to an employee experiencing personal growth, and the employee's ability to cope with future adversity is increased and he/she will have increased competence. The positive experiences one can have because of job re-crafting are enjoyment, meaning and achievement. When employees have positive experiences at work, they will perceive more work role fit

2.2 MEANING OF WORK

A brief historical perspective of the meaning of work will be discussed. There are several meanings of work that have been put forward by several researchers and these will be discussed in the paragraphs below. Afterwards, there will be a discussion about the tripartite work orientations of work as a job, work as a career and work as a calling.

The meaning of working permeates every aspect of human resource development (HRD) practice. It ranges from the relevance and learner motivation that frame training content and methods in an instructional design project to the attributions and subsequent action plans based on feedback from employee engagement surveys (Flesher, 2009, p. 254).

As the above quote highlights, the meaning of work is an indispensable component of human resource management and organisational psychology. It deals with the motivation of employees and the content the organisation should include when they decide to train employees. It also relates to the engagement of employees and what action the organisation should take to improve or encourage employee engagement; based on the findings of employee engagement surveys.

It is the task of human resource professionals and organizational psychologists to ensure that the employees' jobs are crafted or designed to adapt to their values so the employees can explore their initiative and creativity at work. Employees will then experience meaning of work and thus be more engaged at work (Borchert & Landherr, 2009). There has been an increase in the research and literature on the meaning of work in recent years for many reasons, one of which is that work has come to be recognised as "...the prominent domain of

life” (Rapaport & Bailyn, 1998). The other reason for the surge in meaning of work research is that employees now more and more look to work to fulfil their economic and social needs (Casey, 1995). The word meaning has now become synonymous with positive meaning and positive psychology.

The origins of the studies on the search for meaning can be traced back to Aristotle’s eudemonia. Further work on meaning was done by the founder of the meaning theory or logotherapy, Frankl (1985). Logotherapy is considered as the third school of Viennese psychoanalysis because it was developed after Freud’s psychoanalysis and Alder’s individual psychology. In fact, Frankl was one of Freud’s students but through his personal experiences and studies he developed a different school of thought from that of his mentor. He propagated that man was not an iceberg as Freud said, ruled by the subconscious. Frankl (1985) proposed that man is actually ruled or driven by the ultimate search for meaning.

Frankl (1985) coined the term “logos” for his theory which is a Greek word that means ‘word’ or ‘will’. In his theory he focuses on the healthy spiritual core of a man for healing and not on searching or understanding pathology to heal an individual, as is the case with psychotherapy. There are three main underlining concepts in his theory which are: (1) that under all circumstances, life has meaning, (2) that people have an innate will to meaning, and (3) that under all circumstances, people have the freedom to activate the will to find meaning and the will to meaning. Frankl (1985) states that man can find meaning in life through the three main ways of experience, creativity, and change of attitude.

Frankl developed most of his work on the logo theory during his internment at different concentration camps for over four years and in these camps he saw and experienced extreme

hopelessness in these camps. But while at one of these concentration camps, he observed that people with a strong sense of meaning were surviving even the most extreme suffering and they still retained their human dignity (Frankl, 1985, p. 55; Morrison, Burke & Greene 2007, p. 102). He observed that people found meaning for their existence, even at these concentration camps. The people he encountered, himself included, who found meaning for their existence in the concentration camps survived and were resilient in these depressing times. He came to the conclusion that, people who have a clear sense of meaning are more resilient to suffering than those who do not find any meaning in life. Frankl, in his school of thought known as logotherapy, postulates that man searches for the meaning of life, love and suffering (Frankl, 1985, p. 130-138).

Meaning is the significance one attaches to one's existence and encompasses the value one places on the existence of life and on the course of his/her life ((Taubman-Ben-Ari & Weintraub, 2008, p. 625). Whether done consciously or unconsciously, each person places a value on his/her life and the course that life takes. According to Frankl, man primarily exists, and man's primary motivation for existence is to find meaning for his existence. Man has an innate will to meaning which is much like the survival instinct. This search is universal and is not restricted by one's qualifications or life circumstances. Man has the freedom to find meaning in life and when he has meaning he expresses the freedom to choose and usually detects meaning in even the most basic of life's moments. As Frankl states, "Man's search for meaning is the primary motivation in his life and not a 'secondary rationalization' of instinctual drives. This meaning is unique and specific in that it must and can be fulfilled by him alone; only then does it achieve a significance which will satisfy his own will to meaning" (Frankl, 1985, p. 121). Classical motivation theorists and humanist psychologists support the notion that people have an inherent need for a work life. This work life should be

meaningful for them to continue appreciating it. Meaning is a deeper level of intrinsic motivation; it is not an end-state – it is a continuous process of becoming. According to Rosso, Dekas, and Wrzesniewski, (2010) people who experience some form of intrinsic motivation are more likely to experience greater meaningfulness. These people are likely to interpret the intrinsic motivation as a sign of congruence between their self-concepts and their work activities.

Meaning of work is the set of beliefs that an individual holds about work. These beliefs are acquired through one's interaction with the social environment. This interaction between one's work beliefs and the social environment, which is perceived through work role fit, is what leads a person to have more psychological meaningfulness and work engagement. These beliefs are related to the person's career orientation and behaviour in the work environment. The behaviour one will reveal in the work environment includes turnover, job performance, absenteeism, job satisfaction, positive work behaviour, career development, personal fulfilment, organisation identification, empowerment, engagement, stress, and individual performance (Rosso *et al.*, 2010). Meaning of work is not just the significance one attributes to work, but it is also one's representation of work and the importance of work in one's life (Ardichivili & Kuchinke, 2009). The studies on the job characteristics model have shown that when people experience their work as being meaningful, there is greater potential that the people will feel their work matters and then the work will be intrinsically motivating to the person (Rosso *et al.*, 2010). Meaning of work is the perceived fit between people's self-concept and their role in the organisation.

When one has meaning of work it facilitates personal growth and work motivation. The work may involve activities which are not in themselves pleasurable but because individuals find

meaning in work, they will cherish their work (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997). Work as a process and as an institution transcends the individual's frame of reference and links the person to social, political and economy realms. This link is reciprocal for educators, as the work of educators transcends individual or even organisational utility in that education offers an opportunity to directly influence the society at large. This influence is presumably positive in the case of educators (Ardichivili & Kuchinke, 2009).

In the period between the '80's and the '90's, theorists developed the tripartite model that helps explain different employees' work orientations or people's centrality of work. They propose that employees view their work as either a career, or a job or a calling (Bellah *et al.*, 1985; Schwartz, 1986, 1994; Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997). The assumption is that at any given time, any employee holds one of these views as his/her orientation to work. An employee will at any given point have a stronger orientation to one of these more than to the other two of the orientations. Ardichvili (2009) who researched this concept in Russia, and Kuchinke (2009), who did similar studies among workers in Germany, Korea, and the United States, found that these orientations to work evolve over time and are affected by the socio-economic factors in which employees find themselves.

The centrality of work that one has at a given time is affected by such things as the changing prestige of a particular career, the economic situation prevailing in the country, socio-political fragmentation, and religious diversity. They also found that there cannot only be inter country differences in a given profession, but there can also be intergroup differences. In one country educators may view their work as satisfying and important while in another country, educators may view their work as unimportant and dissatisfying. Furthermore, educators in

the same country may have varying orientations to their work; one group may report work satisfaction while another may not (Ardichvili & Kuchinke, 2009; Kuchinke, 2009).

Many examples abound in the literature about how socio-political factors influence work orientation, with one of them being the studies carried out by Kuchinke (2009) in Scandinavian countries and the United States of America, where his studies focused on two fields, including educators for early childhood and senior care nursing support-staff. In Scandinavian countries, where these two fields are required to have professional qualifications, self-expressed career satisfaction and self-esteem were high. In the United States of America, on the other hand, the same two fields do not require professional qualifications and they are at a lower pay scale. He found that their self-esteem and self-expressed satisfaction responses were low. Borchert & Landherr (2009) and Sweet & Meiksins (2008) found that executives and professionals attach more importance to their work, but if they were to win the lottery they were still ready to continue working, though with improved conditions.

Positive work orientations are not restricted to qualification, even in other respondents who did jobs that did not require qualifications, such as maids, who still had positive work orientations. Therefore, it is important to consider these (meaning of work) work orientations not as individual traits that are part of an individual's fixed personality, but as phenomenon that are socially constructed. They are constructed through historical and situational influences, both outside and within the individual. They are phenomena that are dynamically shaped, adapted, challenged and negotiated in the process of self-representation and self-identity (Kuchinke, 2009). The three work orientations to work that a person can have, either

as a job, or as a career, or as a calling, will be discussed below (Bellah *et al.*, 1985; Schwartz, 1986).

2.2.1 Work as a job

The first work orientation that will be discussed is that some people view their work as a job. Those who view their work as a job do not see any other reward from their work except the material gains they get from their work. They see work as a way to help them achieve the other things outside work that they enjoy doing; work for them is not an end in itself, but it is a means to an end. Such people go to work so that the rewards they get at work will help them to enjoy their time away from work. They work so that they have the resources to enjoy themselves elsewhere and they do not experience any enjoyment at work. For them, fun and energy is expended pleurably elsewhere other than at work. They employ their preferred self outside of work situations, so they do not bring their preferred self to work. They are more likely to display such behaviour as presenteeism at work. The focus of such individuals is not on fulfilment and finding meaning at work but on the material benefits they will accrue from working. They do not look for meaning at work but in other areas of their life. Their main aim for working is for material benefits they get from working that will help them sustain their livelihood. The job orientation to work is more closely associated with extrinsic motivation; one is motivated to work by factors outside the self (Bellah *et al.*, 1985; Rosso *et al.*, 2010; Wresniewski, Dekas, & Rosso, 2009).

2.2.2 Work as a career

The second work orientation is the view that some people view their work as a career. People with a career orientation to work have a deeper personal investment in their work, because they not only know they will receive an increase in pay for hard work but also because they look forward to advancing in the corporate organization. People with this view see work as a means to have a higher social status, a way to gain power in society and also as a way to improve their self-esteem. The advancement they look forward to is very attractive to them because they know it will result in them having more occupational power, thereby boosting their self-esteem (Bellah *et al.*, 1985) For someone who has a career orientation at work, their main aim of working is to enjoy the rewards that they can accrue through career progression; their sole aim is to climb the social and the corporate ladder. Their main focus for working is to gain progression and promotions in the organisation and the benefits that come with such upward movement. They look forward to the increased pay, social status and prestige that come with progression and/or promotions. Working for such employees is important only because they will become important and recognised in the society. If such people do not get promoted or recognised for their input at work, they become disillusioned with working, have turnover intentions, and they become disengaged from their work. In this sense the career orientation to work is also closely linked to extrinsic motivation (Wrzesniewski, 2012).

2.2.3 Work as a calling

The last work orientation to be discussed is that people may also have a calling orientation to their work. This is the work orientation that has received the most extensive research. This is because the calling orientation to work is what most employers would love to foster in their employees, as it offers a special fulfilment and meaning to one's work and yields positive work behaviour. In the field of positive psychology, the calling orientation to work is deemed as the window researchers, employers and psychologist can use to view employees' experiences of their work. Callings have been given central importance in positive psychology because they confine the most generative and affirmative manifestation of the links between people and work. Callings can also be viewed from different angles; they expose the different assumptions, understandings and predictions that regard their form and nature, although some researchers have found that some employees who are too absorbed in their job callings can end up not performing the job as per requirement (Wrzesniewski, 2012; Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 2009). Such employees become so over absorbed in the job that they become exhausted and eventually burn out. Some people who have callings are in danger of over estimating their abilities or strengths that they end up under performing in their work. Nevertheless, this occurs in a few isolated cases and can be controlled for by the employer through ensuring that employees are not over burdened by their workload (Rosso *et al.*, 2010; Wrzesniewski, 2012).

The origins of the studies on the calling orientation to work can be traced to the biblical or Christian theology of the use of the word calling. The term calling in religious circles is used when one has been called by the Lord to do a particular job; when this happens one is

expected to leave everything else that they do or work and heed the Lord's call. In Christianity, it is traditionally understood that people are called by God to do work that is socially and morally significant. In later years, Protestants adopted this calling notion to work and advocated the view that work is not a pursuit that has no intrinsic value but, it should be viewed as "an activity that was glorified in its own right" (Wrzesniewski, 2012, p. 46). Progressively, many other scholars and authors redefined the concept of a calling which included the intrinsic value, and the definition of a calling has evolved with time. Martin Luther defined the concept of a calling as God's direction in one's vocation which an individual should utilize to serve the community and God in the best way possible. John Calvin later defined callings as being divinely ordained responsibilities and duties that an individual should perform (Wrzesniewski, 2012). This view emphasized that callings are personal religious endeavours and not self-expressions through work. Max Weber argued against Calvin's definition of a calling because, according to Weber, such a view only led to the creation of a "Protestant work ethic" which Weber stated leads to capitalism. Weber's criticism influenced later definitions of the concept of a calling. (Wrzesniewski, 2012, p. 46)

Organisational scholars have over time developed different definitions of a calling, the nature of which is that a work calling, "...in the secular sense as consisting of enjoyable or pleasurable work that an individual believes is making the world a better place" (Wrzesniewski, 2012, p. 47).

This secular notion of a calling has been adopted in many research studies and there have been several definitions that different researchers have explored for the word calling over the years. Like many scientific terminologies, there is no particularly accepted definition of a calling; however, one has to look at the definitions that have been discussed to have a clear understanding of what a calling is. These varied definitions will be highlighted below. A

calling has been defined as a “meaningful beckoning toward activities that are morally, socially and personally significant” (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 2009, p. 181). The term beckoning in this definition associates the notion of a calling to intrinsic motivation. One is intrinsically motivated to do something significant in their life and this work is not just significant to the self but it is also socially significant and morally upright. The use of morality in the definition shows the strong links the word calling still has to religious connotations, which regulate most people’s notions of what is right or wrong.

People with a calling orientation to work do not seek financial rewards but their main aim for working is for the fulfilment they get from the work itself. Such people view their work as an end in itself and not a means to an end. The calling orientation develops in conjunction with the work that one is doing, so it is not entirely internally rooted (Rosso *et al.*, 2010). Callings are unique for each person and are seen as a way for a person to connect with their inner self. Each person therefore has a unique calling in life; no two people experience a calling in the same way. That is why it is possible for people to have the same job and live in the same environment but they will experience their callings differently. It is something that a person believes will fulfil their unique role in life (Wrzesniewski, 2012, p. 47; Rosso *et al.*, 2010). As Hirschi (2011) points out, a calling can be identified by means of reflection, introspection, relational and meditation activities. It should also be noted that callings are not in any way static but they change over time. There are different work environment factors, such as shocks, that take place outside of work, in addition to other features of the work which can affect one’s view of a calling (Wrzesniewski, 2012).

When a person does work that they personally feel is pursuant to their calling, they enact beliefs they feel are significant to them personally through their work. Some have referred to

this enactment “...as the highest form of subjective career success” (Hall & Chandler, 2005; Rosso *et al.*, 2010). The meaning of a calling, according to Hirschi (2011, p. 61), “...is enacting one’s individual purpose for fulfilment.” This does not mean that a calling should be mistaken for a passion. Callings are different from passion, although some say a calling has an element of passion and enjoyment. A calling is different from a passion in that a calling typically involves a sense that the work one is doing makes the world a better place, while a passion does not necessarily have a social component to it and is marked with subjective vitality and the experiences of joy. A calling looks at reasons for people’s attachment to their work and the nature of this attachment. Furthermore, some authors argue that a calling does not necessarily have to be enjoyed to be perceived as having an important effect. An example of this concept is doctors, who work in a helping profession and may not necessarily enjoy their jobs, but they view them as callings.

There are different assumptions that scholars have made about the origins of callings, whether they are made or created, found or discovered. The spiritual callings are a divine beckoning that are to be answered, while secular callings are seen as pre-existing entities that are to be discovered by each person. There is also a third view to the notion of the origins of callings. Callings can be born out of necessity; one may enter a particular profession because at the time that is the best opportunity available to them. Later on, they may recreate their job to align with their passion in life (Wrzesniewski, 2012).

There are many schools of thought that have been advanced regarding the origination of callings. These assumptions are primarily anchored on different psychological theory. In light of Albert Bandura’s social learning theory, some scholars have suggested that callings are learned. Children learn different work attitudes and behaviours based on the behaviours they

observe from their parents and/or significant others. This is the reason children often inadvertently choose the same careers as their parents; this may explain why sometimes there is a generation of a particular profession in one family. Wrzesniewski (2012, p. 50) says there is evidence that people actually inherit their orientations to work from their parents. Another source of a calling is when people feel they have a calling if they think they are the perfect example of people in their profession. This view of a calling is in line with the identity theory. Individuals choose a particular calling because they want to take a path that validates their identity first in their own eyes and then in the eyes of others. Others argue that social class is a factor in the career choices of the children. Parents give or deny children certain privileges because of their social classes. Social reproduction theory has successfully proven that children do, in fact, excel to the same levels as their parents; children reach levels similar to their parents' professional positions (Wrzesniewski, 2012).

There are numerous positive outcomes which an organisation can gain from having a work force that have a calling orientation to work. The benefits are that individuals with a calling orientation put extra effort and time at work. They display this positive behaviour regardless of whether or not they feel they are getting adequate compensation for their extra work. Such individuals are less likely to suffer from depression and stress, and they have fewer conflicts between their work and non work life. They perform better than their colleagues; they are more likely to report intentions to continue working even if they were to win the lottery and would not need the money earned from working; they report very high levels of intrinsic motivation (Hall & Chandler, 2005; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997; Wrzesniewski, 2012). People with a calling orientation to work have high levels of life, health and work satisfaction. They report getting more satisfaction from work than from any other activities in their lives and they display lower absenteeism compared to other colleagues (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997; Wrzesniewski, Tosti, & Landman, 2011; Wrzesniewski, 2012). Hirschi (2011 p. 70) states

that people with a calling also engage in activities that help them develop in their careers. They have confidence in their careers, in addition to having vocational identity achievement.

2.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL MEANINGFULNESS

Individuals perceive psychological meaningfulness at work when they experience a feeling that they are receiving a return on investment of the self in a currency of physical, emotional, and/or cognitive rewards. In the research literature related to work, psychological meaningfulness has the strongest effect on engagement; the more psychological meaningfulness people experience in their work, the more probable they are to be engaged in their work. In an organisation, people are most likely to experience psychological meaningfulness when they feel they are useful, valuable and worthwhile. Engaged employees are those who feel the work they are doing for the organisation is appreciated, it makes a difference in the world and they are not in any way being taken for granted. They are being given a fair return on the time and effort they invest in their job (Kahn, 1990; May *et al.*, 2004). Psychological meaningfulness can be defined as the significance a person attaches to something. The concept of psychological meaningfulness differs from person to person; even though people have similar jobs, the significance they attach to that job will differ. In most of the literature, the concept of meaningfulness has been attached with a lot of positive connotations, like being goal-oriented, self-expressive and creative. When employees experience meaningfulness of work they are more likely to be positively engaged in their work (Rosso *et al.*, 2010).

There are three factors that have been found to control employees' experience of psychological meaningfulness at work: (1) role characteristics, (2) work interactions, and (3) task characteristics. There are two components of work roles that people perform that influence psychological meaningfulness - the fact that roles carry certain influence or status, and that those roles carry identities that the people who fill them, by implication, have to assume. People are able to experience psychological meaningfulness at work when they not only gain a status that is desirable to them or when they hold positions that are valuable in the system, but also when they are able to exert some influence at work. The influence they wield at work can be in the form of recognition by colleagues, co-workers, customers or a supervisor. When people feel that they have status at work that is congruent with their self-concept, they are likely to experience meaningfulness at work. In the organisation each role that a person performs has an identity that comes with it which the bearer must assume. That identity will be readily assumed by employees if it fits how they see themselves; they perceive a work role fit.

Kahn's role characteristics are also referred to by May *et al.*, (2004) as work role fit. People find more psychological meaningfulness in their work if they perceive a fit between their work and the role they assume in the organisation and their self-concept. For someone to experience psychological meaningfulness, the work role they perform must fit how the employee sees the self. The employee must see a fit between his/her self-concept and the tasks or duties required by the role he/she assumes at work. The role, status and identity and influence the employee will wield because of his job must be congruent to his self-concept for him to experience psychological meaningfulness at work. There should be a fit between work and the role one is in or sees one's self in, for one to experience psychological meaningfulness. Kahn and May *et al.* assert that people are by nature innovative and self-

expressive so they will usually look for work that allows them to express their genuine self-concept. If they are able to express their genuine self-concept at work, then employees will be more engaged in their work. But if they do not have the opportunity to express their genuine self-concept at work, they are likely to be disengaged and lack innovation at work and will even most likely experience turnover intentions (Kahn 1990; May *et al.*, 2004).

Psychological meaningfulness in employees is also affected by a second factor, namely work interactions or co-worker relations. When employees have work interactions with clients and co-workers that are rewarding, employees experience psychological meaningfulness. Among the positive outcomes of such interactions are that employees have a sense that they are worthwhile, a heightened sense of dignity, and increased self appreciation. These interactions and the benefits they entail are invaluable because they help people meet their needs of relatedness; people feel appreciated, they feel known and, furthermore, they will feel that their existential journeys are not in a vacuum but are shared with others. Kahn (1990) in his research found that the interactions at work became more meaningful for participants “when people felt as if they fit in some way with those with whom they interacted and when people treated one another not as role occupants but as people who happened to occupy the roles” (Kahn 1990, p. 707). Psychological meaningfulness will not be felt by employees if they are simply treated as role occupants and thus treated with the respect or courtesy that comes with the job title. However, it will be experienced when interactions are made because the person one is interacting with is a person, who just happens to occupy the position they are presently holding. When employees have such kind of interactions with management, co-workers and colleagues, they will feel worthwhile and thus become more engaged in their work (Kahn, 1990).

When co-worker interactions are meaningful they foster a sense of social identity and belonging. Employees will have a social identify with their work and will feel they belong in the organisation. Furthermore, people also get psychological meaningfulness from the social identity they gain by the interactions they have with their co-workers. Not only are interactions with co-workers the only significant interactions at work, but the interactions with clients also foster employees' psychological meaningfulness. This can better be observed in service jobs whereby rewarding client relationships help employees foster their psychological meaningfulness because they allow the employee to feel valued and valuable. Kahn (1990, p. 708) points out that, "client interactions reduced the sense of [psychological] meaningfulness when they blocked the interpersonal connections allowing people to perform and enjoy their jobs." Therefore, interpersonal relations with clients are also important for improved employee performance, and such interactions should be encouraged by employers. When work roles are connected to someone's self-concept, the employees' work experiences will be more psychologically meaningful.

Task characteristics are the third factor that Kahn talks about that influence employees' psychological meaningfulness at work. Employees experience psychological meaningfulness when the work they are doing is diverse, and in some way autonomous, clearly delineated, challenging and creative. Employees should be able to experience in their work a sense that they are learning and growing and that they are competent. They will feel competent when there is a particular routine to which they grow accustomed. The routine is set when the work experience allows an employee to work with clearly delineated procedures. The routine work should not necessarily be monotonous or repetitive but it should also allow employees to learn new skills and it should be flexible. When employees feel they have autonomy at work, they will own the work they do, thus increasing organisation membership and engagement to

the organisation, and thereby reducing turnover intentions and actual turnover. Employees experience more psychological meaningfulness when the tasks they perform are not entirely controlled by other people; employees should be able to perform their tasks without always getting and/or searching for direction. The tasks they perform at work should not entirely be those that require or depend on other people for the employees to be able to complete them (Kahn, 1990). May *et al.*, also cite the influence of the five core dimensions of the job characteristics model on employees' psychological meaningfulness (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). These core dimensions are task significance, skill variety, task identity, feedback, and autonomy. Though the literature on the direct influence of the five core dimensions on meaningfulness is not that extensive, it has been found that skill variety, task significance and task variety directly influence the meaningfulness employees attach to their jobs. When there is variety in the tasks employees perform and when there is significance employees attach to the work they do, employees will experience psychological meaningfulness at work (May *et al.*, 2004).

Work is an integral part of human existence because it does not only offer individuals the experience of having positive significance in life, but it also helps them fulfil the human basic need for meaningfulness (Martela 2010). This innate need for psychological meaningfulness is characterised by four basic needs: (1) the need for self-worth, (2) the need for a sense of efficacy, (3) the need for values, and (4) the need for purpose. If work can create a basis for employees to experience self-worth, then the work will contribute to psychological meaningfulness. When employees feel that they are worth something at work, they tend to be willing to go even beyond the call of duty. If employees do not feel their input at work is valued and worth the while, they are highly unlikely to experience their work as psychologically meaningful. Work that provides an opportunity for employees to experience

a sense of efficacy will lead to meaningfulness. This will happen when employees feel that their contribution at work is relevant in the accomplishment of organisational goals.

The third need that can lead to an employee experiencing psychological meaningfulness at work is the need for values. Work can provide psychological meaningfulness when it furthers and is in accordance with an employee's genuine values; a value that is genuine offers justification for a particular course of action and infuses a sense that life has certain goodness. The organisation can fulfil this need for value in either one or both of two ways: (1) by aligning the work the employee performs to the values of the employee, or (2) by putting values (value-systems) for workers that will infuse the work they do with a sense of psychological meaningfulness. Organisations that have value-systems and strong cultures will help employees experience a sense of psychological meaningfulness. Work can become an unbending morality for employees who have become used to working in an environment where values are deeply integrated into their work. The last need that can foster employees' psychological meaningfulness at work is the need for purpose. When work is purposeful it leads to one experiencing psychological meaningfulness at work. Work is normally purposeful in that when one is employed to do a particular job, that job has a work or job description which entails the achievement of certain objectives, goals and targets. These objectives and targets are what help an individual fulfil the psychological meaningfulness' need of purpose (Martela, 2010, pp. 12-13).

2.4 ENGAGEMENT

2.4.1. Definitions of engagement

There are numerous definitions of engagement that have been used by many different scholars. However, like most scientific concepts, there has not been one definition that has been agreed upon to be the one and only definition of engagement. The role of engagement in an organisation has become the focus of much psychological research. This is because it has been linked to positive organisational behaviour, which relates to performance and retention. Engagement has now been given the status of a key driver in business, and is viewed as being essential to the success of the organisation. For the sake of this research, only a few of these definitions will be highlighted, followed by an exploration of the benefits of engagement to the organisation and finally a discussion will be made of the factors in the organisation that help to foster employee engagement (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009; Kahn, 1990).

Engagement was defined by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003, 2004) as a fulfilling, positive, work related state of the mind that is characterised by dedication, absorption and vigour. It is ‘...a positive...work-related state of mind’ (Schaufeli & Bakker 2003, p. 4) this positive state of mind does not have anything to do with a person’s interaction with others at work or outside the work environment. Rather, it thrives from within an individual and drives them to focus on their work. This definition implies that the state of mind may be affected by other factors but it is so strong that it is not deterred by these outside influences. Though this definition excludes the aspects of an individual that are not work-related, it gives the important indication that engagement begins with the state of the mind.

The three concepts of dedication, absorption and vigour are somewhat similar to the concepts proposed by Kahn, (1990) of cognitive, emotional and physical engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker state that engagement is a more persuasive and persistent “affective cognitive state that is focused on any particular object, event, individual or behaviour” (Schaufeli & Bakker 2003, p. 4). When a person is engaged in work the person is absorbed in the work, approaches the work with vigour and stays dedicated to that work. When engagement is present in the work place, individuals are absent from work less often, they bring discretionary effort to work, and they use their initiative to tackle difficult or new tasks. When educators are engaged in their work, they bring discretionary effort to work, they are dedicated, absorbed and have vigour. This will lead to a healthier education sector, reduced absenteeism, presenteeism, turnover intentions and improved work performance (Kahn, 1990; May *et al.*, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Leiter and Maslach (1998) proposed the view that engagement lies on the extreme opposite continuum to work engagement. They have thus defined engagement as the active experience of involvement in activities that one finds personally fulfilling and involvement in activities that advance a person’s sense of professional effectiveness. They say engagement comprises the three factors of efficacy, energy and involvement. When people are engaged at work, they have a lot of energy at work, they are involved and are efficient in the work they do. Employee engagement has not only behavioural but also psychological facets because it involves focused effort, energy and enthusiasm. It is behaviour that one performs that has an organisational purpose and is desirable (Macey and Schneider, 2008). Work engagement can also be defined as, “...self – investment of personal resources in work” (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011, p. 91). According to this definition, engagement occurs when people invest themselves wholly in their work, and they thus invest their cognitive, physical and emotional

energies in task performance. Work engagement is a multiple dimensional level experience; it is all inclusive. They invest themselves in their work in multi dimensions of the self, so that the work experience is holistic and simultaneous. Gruman and Saks (2011, p.125) have also defined engagement as follows: “Personal engagement is the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s ‘preferred self’ in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active, full role performance”

One of the earliest psychologists to define and highlight the relationship between engagement and psychological conditions and to make engagement an area of focus for psychologists was William Kahn (1990). Kahn defines engagement as the harnessing of members’ selves, in the organisation, to their work roles so ‘...that they employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, mentally and emotionally during role performance.’ (Kahn 1990, p. 694) Kahn has defined engagement as being a specific and momentary state. The main premise of this definition is the concept that each person has dimensions and one chooses which dimensions of the self to employ at any particular time. When people are personally engaged in their work, they bring their preferred selves to work and, as such, perform their work with emotional, physical and cognitive energy. When people display their preferred selves at work, it can be said that they display their real thoughts, feelings and identity. People who are engaged do more than what the job requires; they go the extra mile to achieve organisational goals. They are able to express themselves in task performance. Different researchers have given different names to the concept of self-expression, and some terms that have been used instead of the term self-expression are non-defensive communication (Gibb, 1961), the use of personal voice (Hirschman, 1970), authenticity (Baxter, 1982), ethical behaviour (Toffler, 1986), emotional expression (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) and playfulness (Kahn, 1989). So when

people are engaged at work they display ethical behaviour, playfulness (which can come from enjoying the work one is doing), they communicate non-defensively, they are authentic in task performance, and they are emotionally expressive. Such kind of self-expression is invaluable to any organisation or institution.

The cognitive, emotional and physical energy employees displays when they are engaged in their work, as discussed by Kahn, is referred to by many researchers with different terminology such as involvement (Lawler & Hall, 1970), intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975), effort (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1982) and mindfulness (Langer, 1989). When people feel intrinsically motivated or have mindfulness when they are working, they are more likely to become more positively aware of “the relation of self to role” (Kahn 1990, p. 700). People with such awareness are engaged in their work on a personal level and they stay within a role, without sacrificing the self for the role and/or without sacrificing the role for the self. When work is personally engaging, they display behaviour that brings to life the obligatory role and bring the self to life. When people are engaged in their work, they become cognitively vigilant, are connected empathetically to others, and they are physically involved in performing their work tasks. When people show this behaviour at work, they display how they feel, the individual associations they have with others, their values and beliefs, what they think, and their creativity. They will express their true and preferred self in task performance (Kahn, 1990; May *et al.*, 2004).

May *et al.* (2004) extend Kahn’s theory in their research, which was aimed at examining the relationship between the three psychological conditions and work engagement. They found that psychological safety mediated the relationship between work-role fit and job enrichment with engagement. Furthermore, among the three psychological conditions, meaningfulness

displayed the strongest relationship with engagement. Additionally, these findings proved that Kahn's definition of engagement was all encompassing of the concept of engagement; the harnessing of the self to role performance, which is then expressed emotionally, cognitively, and physically in role performance. In the study by Rothmann and Jordaan (2006), they extend the concept of engagement to include that it not only promotes connections to one's work but it also creates connections to others. Engagement is defined as "...the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviours that promote connections to work and others" (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006, p. 88).

Kahn (1990) put forward three ways in which a person can engage in their work: (1) emotionally, (2) physically, and (3) cognitively. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) also identified three such similar traits of engagement, which are dedication, vigour and absorption. The concept of dedication has often been likened to Kahn's emotional engagement. Dedication, according to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), refers to at what time one experiences a sense of enthusiasm, challenge, significance and pride in one's work. When a person has such experiences at work, he/she becomes strongly involved in work. In research on academics in South Africa, Rothmann and Jordaan (2006) found that the dedication of academics was moderately related to advancement opportunities and organisational support. On the other hand, the dedication of these academics was strongly related to growth opportunities; the more growth opportunities there are for academics, the more likely they are to be dedicated to their work. They also discovered however, that the engagement of academics to their work (their vigour and dedication) was lower than the overall South African national norm, which might have to do with the overall poor conditions of service and other challenges encountered by academics in the country. According to Kahn, when employees are emotionally engaged

in their work, they connect with others at work in such ways that they are able to demonstrate their individuality. The individuality they demonstrate can be observed through their values, thoughts and feelings (Kahn, 1990; Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

People who are physically engaged at work are physically involved in their work. Schaufeli and Bakker referred to this form of engagement as having vigour, and they defined vigour as being characterised by high levels of mental resilience and energy. People who have vigour at work willingly invests all their efforts in their work; they are physically strong and they display cognitive liveliness. Such people are persistent even in the face of numerous difficulties. Rothmann and Jordaan (2006, p. 87-88) define vigour as, “a positive affective response to one’s ongoing interactions with significant elements in one’s job and work environment, and includes physical strength, emotional energy and cognitive liveliness.” They also found that among academics vigour, like dedication, was moderately related to organisational support which comprises participation, information, role clarity, communication and the relationship with the manager. The vigour of South African academics showed a much stronger relationship to growth opportunities, including autonomy, variety and learning opportunities. When an employee has cognitive engagement at work, the employee is alert cognitively in task performance. Schaufeli and Bakker identified this as absorption, which is characterised by being happily engrossed and fully concentrated in one’s work. When employees are absorbed in their jobs, they have difficulties detaching themselves from their work and time passes very quickly because they enjoy it. They are so engrossed in their work that they do not notice how time flies by. When people are cognitively engaged, they are innovative and cognitively engrossed in task performance (Kahn, 1990; Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Although some researchers have highlighted the weakness of using employee engagement measures, organisations should not ignore the importance of engagement to the organisation. One of the main disadvantages people have pointed out related to engagement and its measures is the lack of a clear definition of the concept of engagement. How can we measure what we cannot conclusively define? The weaknesses, they argue, of engagement surveys are that they are usually designed for measuring trait or state engagement, while neglecting the engagement that predicts employee performance, which is behavioural engagement. Consequently, in most cases engagement is usually managed in the performance management process. The other criticism is that engagement surveys are almost always self-report surveys, so there is usually the likelihood of a faking inclination; people give responses that they feel the researcher wants to hear. Therefore, these engagement measures cannot be effective if they are used in isolation. They can only be effective when they are used with programs and organisation practices that focus on measuring and developing employee engagement (Gruman & Saks, 2011; May *et al.*, 2004).

2.4.2 Benefits of engagement

The benefits of engagement are numerous, which is why it has become an indispensable concept in organisational behaviour research. Engagement is important because it is central to the workers' problems of motivation and lack of commitment. It is also a key driver of individual performance, behaviour, organisational performance, individual attributes, financial performance, productivity, shareholder return, and retention. When employees are engaged at work, they are psychologically present at work, therefore reducing behaviours like absenteeism and presenteeism (Gruman & Saks, 2011; Kahn, 1990; May *et al.*, 2004; Rothmann, 2003). Engagement also links to the organisation's bottom line outcomes, as it

leads to employees being innovative at work (Nink, 2009, p. 6). Engaged employees identify with their work, according to Kahn (1990), so they put more effort in their work. Engagement produces the desire in an individual for personal development and personal growth. Engaged employees perform better at work because their engagement is transferred to others; therefore they are happier and display positive emotions and have better physical and psychological health. They are also able to utilise their personal resources and create their own jobs. Employees who are engaged at work also give a positive word of mouth about the organisation (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008).

Work engagement should not, however, be confused with concept of workaholism; this is an obsessive desire for work. Workaholics and engaged employees may be similar in that they are involved (dedicated), are filled with feelings of being happily engrossed (dedicated) in their work and they work hard (vigour). The difference, though, is that engaged employees have no compulsive urges to work; they work entirely for the fun of working, while workaholics have compulsive urges to work. Moreover, workaholics work even when it may be harmful to their own health; they feel an overstated need for work. Workaholics have such a strong compulsion for work that it ends up negatively affecting their social functioning and interpersonal relations, and in the long run it reduces their happiness. The compulsiveness of the desire to work is what distinguishes workaholics from engaged employees (Bakker *et al.*, 2008).

When considering the benefits of engagement, organisation should not ignore the cost of disengagement which, in turn, leads to turnover. Many studies have been conducted to highlight the costs organisations incur as a result of employee turnover. In a study completed in the United States of America, it was found that the United States economy loses five

trillion US dollars annually as a result of employee turnover. Turnover was also found to reduce the stock prices and earnings of the country by about 38 percent (Frank, Finnegan & Taylor, 2005). Healy (2002) conducted a study at coca cola outlets and he found that the supermarkets spent \$1.40 on employee turnover for every \$1 profit they made. In the health care industry, it was found that the per-patient cost was 35% greater in those centres with high nurse turnover. In retail clothing stores, the stores would have to sell 3000 additional pairs of pants to overcome the loss of just one worker. If the employee lost is a manager or professional, it costs the organisation much more. When an employee is engaged they have a more personal attachment to the organisation, which is very beneficial for the organisation; moreover, such employees are less likely to leave the organisation. These alarming costs of turnover should not be ignored by an organisation. Therefore, it is important for the organisation to take the necessary requirements that will keep an employee engaged at work (Frank *et al.*, 2005; Healy, 2002).

2.4.3 Factors that foster engagement

There are several factors that have been found to facilitate work engagement: personal resources, job resources (Bakker *et al.*, 2008); the three psychological conditions of psychological availability, psychological safety and psychological meaningfulness (Kahn, 1990); and the concepts advanced by the Job Resources-Demands (JD-R) model (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Personal resources have been defined as the “positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and refer to individuals’ sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully.” (Bakker *et al.*, 2008. p. 192) When a person feels they have adequate personal resources to perform their job, they become goal oriented and have a very positive regard of the self. Such individuals are intrinsically motivated and this will lead to

higher satisfaction and performance. Rothmann and Storm (2003), in their research on South African police officers, found that the police officers that showed engagement in their work had active coping strategies. These coping strategies differ from person to person; some people redesign their job so that it will include things they view as meaningful. When this redesign happens, employees become engaged in their work. This job redesign is unsupervised but it helps an individual cope better with their job demand. It makes the individual feel that they have the necessary personal resources to perform their work tasks (Lyons, 2008).

The job demands-resources (JD-R) model states that any work atmosphere can be separated into job resources and job demands. The basis of this model is that job demands wear out an employee's mental and physical resources and can cause health problems and loss of energy, but the job resources which are intrinsically motivating buffer these problems. Job resources are the social, physical, organisational or psychological features of a job that functionally help to reduce the job demands, as well as motivate learning, personal growth and development, and they help a person accomplish their work goals. The job resources have intrinsic motivational aspects that lead to positive behaviour, well-being and positive attitudes. They help an individual cope with the demands of the job and they help buffer the strain that may be caused on an individual by the job demands. Job resources help an organisation predict employees' organisational commitment, work engagement and extra-role performance. Job demands are the organisational, physical, social and psychological features of a job that require one to maintain psychological and/or physical effort, and can lead to psychological and/or physiological costs. Job demands include concepts like job insecurity, work overload, role conflict and role ambiguity. In view of the job resources-demands model, an organisation should aim to reduce or buff the strain that may be caused by overbearing job

demands and enhance job resources to promote employee engagement to their work (Gruman & Saks, 2011).

Job resources are the social, organisational and physical aspects of the job that not only may be purposeful in accomplishing work goals and inspire learning, development and personal growth, but they also reduce the psychological and physiological costs of the job's demands. Job resources include such things as performance feedback, autonomy, learning opportunities and social support from supervisors and colleagues. Job resources can be seen both as extrinsic and intrinsic motivators; job resources can play an extrinsic role because they are influential in one achieving the goals that one's work demands and the intrinsic role is that it fosters learning, development and growth. Research conducted among educators in Finland found that supervisory support, social climate, innovative climate, job control and information are the factors that foster work engagement. It was, however, found that job demands do not predict work engagement as conclusively as job resources do (Bakker *et al.*, 2008). According to Kahn (1990), psychological meaningfulness contributes to work engagement. When a person experiences psychological meaningfulness, they feel they are getting a return on the energies or investment of the self at work. Psychological meaningfulness can be influenced by work interactions, task characteristics and role characteristics (Gruman & Saks, 2011; Simpson, 2008).

On the other hand, if engagement is not cultivated in the education sector, the opposite will happen – the educators will become disengaged and this will lead to absenteeism, reduced presenteeism, ill-health, reduced productivity, and higher turnover. This will lead to the education sector not achieving the goals of offering quality education to the nation and consequently incurring the high cost of employee turnover. In the long run, such disengaged

employees are more likely to be burnt out, and burnt out employees are a liability to any organisation, as they are mentally distant from their work and they are exhausted. Educators' engagement in their work should therefore be an area of key interest to employers.

2.5. DISCUSSION

The concepts at the centre of this research, namely work engagement, work role fit, meaning of work and psychological meaningfulness, are concepts that have to do with the well being of individuals. These concepts have become areas of interest in psychology since there has been a shift in the field towards focusing on positive aspects of life. In the research literature it has been found that there are positive relationships that exist among these concepts. The theoretical framework of these relationships is that when these concepts are displayed by individuals, especially at work, they lead to positive work behaviour and increased productivity. Not only is the presence of these concepts beneficial to the organisation but they are also beneficial to the well being of an individual. People with these positive work behaviours are healthier, have a more positive outlook to life, are optimist and happier. They portray creativity, use discretionary effort at work, and are innovative. They make the best of any work situation and aim to do their absolute best at all times.

There are many definitions of engagement, but for this research, the definitions proposed by Kahn (1990) and May et al., (2004) were adopted. This definition states that when an employee is engaged in their work, they are cognitively vigilant, emotionally connected, and physically involved (Kahn 1990). This definition highlights the three forms of engagement that are given different names by different authors; in Kahn's model they are cognitive, emotional and physical engagement. Engagement has a lot of benefits for the individual and

the organisation as it leads to better work behaviour and performance. It can also lead an employee to experience meaning at work which is defined as the significance that one attributes to one's work, one's outlook on work and the importance of work in one's life. Engagement has been found to have a very close relationship to the three psychological conditions of psychological availability, psychological safety, and psychological meaningfulness. However, engagement has been scientifically proven to have a much closer relationship to psychological meaningfulness. In fact, theoretically, psychological meaningfulness mediates the relationship between engagement and constructs like work role fit and meaning of work. Psychological meaningfulness mediates the relationship between work role fit and meaning of work to work engagement (May *et al.*, 2004; Van Zyl *et al.*, 2010).

Employees experience a work role fit when they feel that they are receiving a return on their investment from the organisation in a currency that will help them satisfy their basic needs. Individuals experience a work role fit when they feel that their work roles are congruent with their self concept. When they experience work role fit, then they will have meaning of work; they will attach some meaning to their work because it matches how they see themselves. Meaning of work is the significance people attach to their work. The meaning of work can be experienced through different orientations to work, such as work as a job, work as a career, and work as a calling. When people view their work as a calling, they feel a deeper level of intrinsic motivation and they view their work as a higher calling, as being beneficial to not only themselves but to the community at large. The calling aspect of the orientations to work is the orientation that has a proven link to psychological meaningfulness, work role fit and engagement. It has received much research attention because it can be nurtured, cultivated and controlled within and outside the individual.

2. 6. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter there has been a discussion from the literature about the concepts of psychological meaningfulness, work role fit, meaning of work and engagement. Psychological meaningfulness is one of the three psychological conditions Kahn found that lead to employee engagement. The other two psychological conditions proposed by Kahn are psychological availability and psychological safety. Work role fit results when people perceive that their work roles are congruent with their self-concepts, beliefs and values. When people feel this work role fit, they will experience meaning of work which will, in turn, lead them to be more engaged in their work. Some authors argue that people who are engaged in their work are the ones who are more likely to experience or look for meaning in their work. A person can engage in their work on three levels: (1) the emotional, (2) the cognitive, and (3) the physical level. According to the research literature, psychological meaningfulness and work role fit lead to one finding meaning at work and engagement in one's work.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the research design used to carry out the survey, the characteristics of the participants, and the measuring instruments that were used to collect the data are discussed.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

A cross-sectional, co-relational design with a survey was used as the data-collection technique. These types of designs are appropriate for use in research when the groups of subjects that are being studied are at various stages of development but are studied concurrently.

3.2 PARTICIPANTS

A convenient sample of educators ($n = 150$) was taken from selected schools in Choma town of the Southern Province of Zambia. This is the sample that consented to participate in the research. The convenience sampling method allows the research to select the participants at the convenience of the researcher and the availability of the participants. The findings can be generalised to the larger population and this allows for a thorough understanding of the relationship between the relevant variables. Generalisation is possible since the sample size is large enough to adequately be representative of the educator population in the province.

Appendix 1 highlights the characteristics of the participants in the research.

Appendix 1 shows 54% of the respondents were female and 24.7% were in the age group 25 to 29 years age group. The majority of the respondents were Tonga by tribe (49.4%), which is the local language of the Southern Province of Zambia where the sampled schools are located. A total of 73 of the respondents were married and 35.5 % had secondary school diplomas. (The Government has made a regulation that all high school educators should have a minimum of a Bachelor of Arts degree, so most educators are upgrading themselves.) A total of 40% of the respondents have been in service for between one to five years. However, a significant number (35%) have been in service for 25 or more years. Furthermore, 57.3% of the respondents had between one and three children while 62.6% had one to three dependents. A very significant percentage of respondents (61.4%) lived with their immediate families, and 79.3% of them lived in their preferred province.

3.3 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Four measuring instruments were used to collect data necessary for this research. These instruments are the Psychological Meaningfulness Scale (PMS), Work life Questionnaire (WLQ), Work-Role Fit scale (WRFit), and Work Engagement Scale (WES), as well as a demographic questionnaire consisting of a combination of characteristics of participants and the nature of the work they perform.

3.3.1. The Work-role Fit Scale (WRFitS)

3.3.1.1. Rationale and description

The *Work-role Fit Scale* (WRFS; May *et al.*, 2004) was used to measure work-role fit. Work role fit was measured by averaging four items from May *et al.* (2004) which directly measured individuals' perceived fit with their jobs and self-concept. For all items, a 5-point agreement-disagreement Likert format which ranged from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used. Some of the items included in this measure are "My job 'fits' how I see myself", "I like the identity my job gives me" and "My job 'fits' how I see myself in the future."

3.3.1.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

The questionnaires were administered in a paper pen format; the respondents were asked to put an 'X' on one of the five point scales they felt reflected how they saw themselves in relation to their work. The collected answered questionnaires were then entered manually on a spread sheet and these scores were interpreted with the use of the SPSS computer program. Respondents who perceived a work role fit scored in the range of 3-5 on the agreement-disagreement Likert format scale. These results were analysed using principal component analysis and it was found that all the four items of the Work role fit scale had high loadings (between 0.50 and 0.70).

3.3.1.3 Reliability and validity

May *et al.*, (2004) point out that the internal consistency of the WRFS in a large insurance company is represented by a Chronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92. In this research the alpha coefficient was very high ($\alpha = 0.82$)

3.3.1.4 Motivation for inclusion

The four items ($\alpha = 0.92$) used in this research were adopted by May *et al.*, (2004) from Kristof (1996). These items were conveniently chosen because they directly measured individuals' perceived fit with their self-concept and their jobs.

3.3.2. The Work Life Scale (WLS)

3.3.2.1. Rationale and description

The *Work Life Scale* (WLS; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, (1997) was utilised in order to determine the levels of meaning (Meanings of Work) educators associate with their work. The questionnaire was first defined by Bellah *et al.* (1985) and Schwartz (1986, 1994) and it was then called the “University of Pennsylvania Work–Life Questionnaire”. They did not use the terms “career”, “calling” and “job” but they had three paragraphs which required that a respondent choose whether they identified themselves with either Mr. A, Mr. B or Mr. C on a four point scale. This scale was scored from 3-0 and the scale ranged from “very much” to “not at all like”. The instructions to the participants were that they should choose which of the three men (Mr. A-C) they felt were closer or further

away from them. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of 18 true or false items, and these items asked about specific aspects of participants' relationship to their work. These items in the second part also appeared in the prose of the first part. There were 113 items that were specifically designed to investigate the feelings people had about their work while the other 5 items probed the work related behaviours of participants.

3.3.2.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

The questionnaires were administered in a paper and pen format; the respondents were asked to write down the number (1-4), which reflected their attitude towards their work, next to each paragraph from the Likert scale. This scale was scored from 3-0 and the scale ranged from 1-“very much,” 2-“somewhat,” 3- “a little,” or 4-“not at all like”. In the second part they were asked to put an ‘X’ on one of the five point scales they felt reflected how they saw themselves in relation to their work. The collected answered questionnaires were then entered manually on spread sheets and then these scores were interpreted with the use of the SPSS computer program.

3.3.2.3 Reliability and validity

According to Wrzesniewski *et al.*, (1997), the WLQ is a self-report measure which aims to classify an individual's orientation to work into three main categories: (1) work as a job, (2) work as a career, or (3) work as a calling. The questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first section contains a set of three paragraphs representing the three main Meanings of Work, whereby the respondent is encouraged to rate his level of association with each paragraph on a scale of 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*completely*). The second part consists of a set of 18 items to

substantiate the respondent's position on the first part of the questionnaire. The items are also rated on a 5-point Likert scale of 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*completely*). Some of the items included in the second part are "My primary reason for working is financial" and "I find my work rewarding".

3.3.2.4 Motivation for inclusion

The results of this questionnaire provide an indication of where on the job-career-calling continuum the respondent lies and measures said respondent's current level of job satisfaction. This questionnaire also provides substantiation of the Job-Career-Calling distinctions (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997). All factors in this research had high alpha coefficients, especially work calling ($\alpha = 0.76$) which is in the acceptable internal consistency of 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Though work: career and work: job had lower coefficients, they were not significantly below the acceptable internal consistency (Work: career $\alpha = 0.64$ and work: job $\alpha = 0.66$).

3.3.3. The Psychological Meaningfulness Scale (PMS)

3.3.3.1. Rationale and description

The *Psychological Meaningfulness Scale* (PMS; May *et al.*, 2004) was used to measure Psychological meaningfulness and was measured by averaging six items drawn from Spreitzer (1995) and May *et al.* (2004). For all items, a 5-point agreement-disagreement Likert format from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used. These items measured the degree of meaning that individuals discovered in their work-related activities (e.g., "The work I do on

this job is very important to me” and “My job activities are personally meaningful to me.” According to May *et al.* (2004), the internal consistency of the PMS in a large insurance company is represented by a Chronbach alpha coefficient of 0.90.

3.3.3.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

The administration of the questionnaire was done in a paper and pen format and participants were instructed to put an ‘X’ besides the statement they felt reflected the meaningfulness they experienced in their work activities. Data interpretation was done using SPSS, after the researcher had manually entered the collected questionnaire information on a Word spread sheet.

3.3.3.3 Reliability and validity

The six items ($\alpha = 0.90$) measured the degree of meaning the participants discovered in their work activities. They were drawn from Spreitzer (1995) and May (2003). In this research the Chronbach alpha coefficient was 0.64, which is acceptable.

3.3.3.4 Motivation for inclusion

Psychological meaningfulness has been found to be an important psychological condition that employees experience at work. May *et al.*, (2004) found that of the three psychological conditions, psychological meaningfulness has the strongest effect on work engagement. Psychological meaningfulness is defined as the significance individuals attach to the work they do.

3.3.4. The Work Engagement Scale (WES)

3.3.4.1. Rationale and description

The *Work Engagement Scale* (WES; May *et al.*, 2004) was adapted and used to measure work engagement. For all items, a 5-point agreement-disagreement Likert format from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) was used. The items reflect each of the three components of Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of work engagement, namely cognitive ("Time passes quickly when I perform my job"), emotional ("I really put my heart into my job"), and physical engagement ("I take work home to do"). Olivier and Rothmann (2007) found a one-factor engagement model consisting of cognitive, emotional and physical engagement ($\alpha = 0.72$).

3.3.4.2 Administration, scoring and interpretation

The Engagement Questionnaire was administered using a pen and paper format. All items in the questionnaire were measured on a 7-point agreement-disagreement Likert Scale, which ranges from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*). The respondents were instructed to put an 'X' on the answers they felt reflected their engagement at work on the questionnaire. The answers that were thus collected were manually entered on to a spread sheet at the completion of the data gathering exercise. These results were then run through an SPSS program to test the measuring instrument and then correlations with other factors were determined.

3.3.4.3 Reliability and validity

May *et al.* (2004) found that the 13 items were statistically reliable with a high Chronbach alpha value of ($\alpha = 0.77$). In a study conducted in South Africa by Van Van Zyl *et al.*, (2010) found that the 13 items had reliability ($\alpha = 0.93$). In the present research, the Chronbach alpha coefficient was ($\alpha < 0.70$), which is the acceptable internal consistency as stated by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

3.3.5.4 Motivation for inclusion

The 13 items that May *et al.* (2004) adopted in this questionnaire reflects the three components of work engagement as they were conceptualised by Kahn (1990), which are cognitive, emotional and physical engagement. According to May *et al.* (2004) they chose these 13 items out of the 24 originally used by Kahn because these 13 confirmed good reliability and were a more balanced representation of the three forms of engagement. This measurement scale was found by Olivier and Rothmann (2007) to not only be adequate in identifying the antecedents to engagement, but it also helps to highlight the possible mediating effects that underlying conditions may have on work engagement.

3.4 Research ethics

The names of the participants were not asked so as to protect their confidentiality. The participants were informed on one-on-one interaction that answering the questionnaire is voluntary. Should they have felt uncomfortable in any way, they were free to consult the researcher or to withdraw from the process. Participants were made aware that the

information obtained would be used entirely for educational purposes. The information will be made available to the public but these will in no way bias the respondents in any way or affect them at work. The outcomes may be used by education policy makers to improve work conditions and to ensure they (the educators) have an improved and highly productive workforce.

3.5 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The target population for this research are the active in-service educators in Zambia who are in government run schools. Those from privately run schools in the province were not included in this research. The exclusion of privately run schools from this research was that a number of private schools do not necessarily employ graduated educators. Some teachers may be qualified, but in most cases they have completed some training, but they may not have graduated or still need to re write a course or two. The educators that were used in the research are those who are employed by the Ministry of Education of Zambia.

At the time the research was conducted, the office of the Choma District Education Office of the Ministry of Education provided a record that they had approximately three thousand five hundred (3500) educators in permanent employment. There are a total of twenty (20) primary schools, three (3) community schools, and twenty (20) secondary and/or high schools. The representative population that was used for this research is primary and secondary/high school educators who live in Choma district of Zambia.

In order to collect the data, a convenience sampling procedure was applied. A convenience sample ($n = 150$) of educators was used who were drawn from different schools in the area.

Half ($n = 75$) the sample were primary teachers and the other half ($n = 75$) secondary school educators in Choma, Zambia. A total of 200 questionnaires were initially distributed and 150 questionnaires were collected; this collection indicates a 75% response rate. The researcher obtained verbal consent from the schools' authorities and/or the individual research participants. The questionnaires were handed out to individuals by the researcher and time was allowed for the participants to fill in the questionnaires. The questionnaires were then collected by the researcher from the individual participants. In some cases the researcher found that some participants had misplaced or lost the questionnaires; therefore, new questionnaires were administered to participants from schools that had not yet participated in the research.

The research was conducted in the following manner. The researcher printed hard copies of the questionnaire in annexe 1. The researcher then went around to the different schools and after obtaining permission from the school head educators, the questionnaires were distributed to individual educators. Seven basic schools were covered by the researcher, and then extra questionnaires were distributed to other schools, depending on the collection rate. The questionnaires were not re-administered to participants who lost or failed to return the questionnaire; instead, a new random sample was selected to fill in new questionnaires. The total number of high schools used in the research was five, and within these schools the required number of respondents was collected.

Though many respondents showed lack of familiarity with this type of questionnaire, most of them were eager to participate. Many questioned the researcher on the expected responses but the researcher made it clear to them that there were no wrong answers. This is one of the disadvantages of self report questionnaires; respondents have a tendency to want to fake

appropriate responses. It is, however, hoped that the respondents gave their honest opinions in answering the questionnaires.

3.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical analyses were carried out by means of the SPSS program (SPSS Inc., 2009). Descriptive statistics in terms of means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis were used in order to analyse the data. Exploratory factor analyses and Cronbach alphas were used to determine the construct validity and reliability of the measuring instruments (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The Pearson correlation was used to specify the relationships between the variables. A 95% confidence interval with p-value smaller than or equal to 0.05 was used for statistical significance. A cut-off point of 0.30 (medium effect) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients, as set by Cohen (1992). Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the amount of variance in the dependent variable, predicted by the independent variables.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) methods as implemented in AMOS (Arbuckle, 2008) were used to test the measurement and structural models in this study by using the maximum likelihood analyses. The following indexes produced by AMOS were used in this study (Hair, Black, Babin, & Andersen, 2010): the Chi-square statistic, which is the test of absolute fit of the model, the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), the Normed Fit Index (NFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and the Root-Means-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Indirect effects were assessed using the procedure explained by Hayes (2009). Bootstrapping was used to construct

two-sided bias-corrected confidence intervals to evaluate mediation effects. The significance of bootstrap-estimated indirect effects was assessed (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

3.7 HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses that were formulated for this research were as follows;

Hypothesis 1: Calling as a work belief is related to work role fit.

Hypothesis 2: Work role fit is related to psychological meaningfulness.

Hypothesis 3: Calling as a work belief is related to psychological meaningfulness.

Hypothesis 4: Calling as a work belief is related to work engagement.

Hypothesis 5: Work role fit is related to work engagement.

Hypothesis 6: Psychological meaningfulness is related to work engagement.

Hypothesis 7: Work role fit mediates the relationship between calling as a work belief and psychological meaningfulness.

Hypothesis 8: Work role fit mediates the relationship between a calling work belief and work engagement.

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter there was a discussion of the research design, the characteristics of the participants, and the measuring instruments that were used to collect the data. There was a discussion on the measuring instrument, the rationale and their development, and the reliability and validity of the instruments. Finally, there was a discussion of statistical analysis that was used to interpret the data.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter focuses on the results of the empirical study. The results will be presented as analysed through SPSS, then a descriptive analysis of the data will be discussed, followed by a discussion of the correlations that exist among the variables. Finally, the results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses will be discussed.

4.1 RESULTS

Next, the results are discussed. First, measurement models will be tested. Second, the descriptive statistics, correlations and multiple regression analyses will be reported.

4.1.1 Testing the measurement model

4.1.1.1 PMS

A principal component analysis was carried out on five items of the psychological meaningfulness scale (PMS). The results showed that two factors with eigenvalues larger than 1 could be extracted (factor 1:- eigenvalue = 2.138; 42.760% of variance explained. Factor 2:- eigenvalue = 1.044; 20.873% of variance explained.) Table 2 shows the component matrix and commonalities of the principal component analysis.

Table 2

Principal Component Analysis of the Psychological Meaningfulness Scale

Item description	Loading	h^2
1. I feel that the work I do on my job is valuable.	0.49	0.24
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	0.53	0.28
3. My job activities are significant to me.	0.80	0.64
4. The work I do on this job is very important to me.	0.78	0.61
5. The work I do on this job is worthwhile.	0.61	0.37

The component matrix shows that two items are at high loadings (item 3; “My job activities are significant to me” and item 4; “The work I do on this job is very important to me”). A statistically significant number of respondents attach psychological meaningfulness to; ‘the significance of their job activities’ and ‘the importance of the job to them’.

4.1.1.2 WRF

A principal component analysis was carried out on four items of the Work Role Fit (WRF) scale. The results showed one factor with eigenvalue larger than 1 could be extracted (factor 1:- eigenvalue = 2.598; 64.948% of variance explained).

Table 3 shows the component matrix and commonalities of the principal component analysis.

Table 3

Principal Component Analysis of Work Role Fit

Item description	Loading	h^2
1. My job 'fits' how I see myself	0.74	0.55
2. I like the identity my job gives me.	0.83	0.68
3. The work I do on this job helps me satisfy who I am	0.83	0.68
4. My job fits how I see myself in future	0.83	0.69

The component matrix show that the following four items are at high loadings: Item 1: "My jobs 'fits' how I see myself"; Item 2: "I like the identity my job gives me"; Item 3: "The work I do on this job helps me satisfy who I am", and Item 4: "My job fits how I see myself in future".

4.1.1.3 WLS

A principal component analysis was carried out on the 18 items of Work Life Scale. The results showed that five components had eigenvalues higher than 1 explaining 56.90% variance. Initial analysis showed that 1 item should be removed because of a low communality. Given that item 18 had a communality of 0.38, it was decided to remove the item. A factor analysis was conducted on the 17 remaining items, and three other factors that continually gave loadings of less than 0.50, so item 4, item 10, and item 14 were also removed. We then carried out a factor analysis on the remaining 14 items and 5 factors had eigenvalues larger than 1 and that is explained by the 59.0% variance. Given the theoretical framework underlying the questionnaire, it was decided to extract 3 factors:

Factor 1 = 26.79% of variance (cumulative variance = 26.79%)

Factor 2 = 12.89% of variance (cumulative variance = 39.68%)

Factor 3 = 10.72% of variance (cumulative variance = 50.40%)

The initial eigenvalues totals for the three factors were:

Factor 1 = 3.751

Factor 2 = 1.805

Factor 3 = 1.501

A principal axis factor analysis with a varimax rotation was used to extract the three factors on the Work Life Scale, namely work: calling, work: career, and work: job (Appendix ³). The rotated matrix is reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Rotated Factor Matrix for Work Life Scale

Item description	Factor		
	1	2	3
MOW1. I enjoy talking about my work to others	0.71	-0.10	-0.14
MOW7. I would choose my current work life again if I had the chance.	0.65	-0.11	-0.20
MOW2. My work is one of the most important things in my life.	0.59	-0.24	-0.17
MOW12. I tend to take my work with me on vacations.	0.57	-0.04	0.02
MOW13. I find my work rewarding.	0.49	-0.35	-0.09
MOW5. If I was financially secure, I would continue my current work even if I stopped getting paid	0.48	-0.09	-0.04
MOW6. . My work makes the world a better place.	0.30	-0.26	-0.02
MOW17. I never take work home with me.	-0.07	0.71	-0.27
MOW15. . I would not encourage young people to pursue my kind of work.	-0.19	0.65	0.18
MOW16. When I am not at work, I do not think much about my work.	-0.16	0.60	0.01
MOW11. I am very conscious of what day of the work week it is and I greatly anticipate weekends. I say, "Thank God it's Friday!"	-0.12	0.43	0.27
MOW9. I view my job as a stepping stone to other jobs.	-0.10	0.11	0.73
MOW8. I expect to be in a higher level job in five years.	-0.01	-0.12	0.63
MOW3. My main reason for working is financial-to support my family and lifestyle.	-0.13	0.08	0.31

The rotated varimax matrix shows that three factors can be extracted, which are work: calling, work: career, and work: job. The first factor which was extracted was work: calling factor and showed high loadings in 7 items with the highest four having loadings higher than 0.50. The last three items had loadings lower than 0.50 but they were statistically significant. The second factor that was extracted is the work: career, and it showed high loadings in four items, with three having loadings higher than 0.60. The last item had a loading lower than 0.50, but it was still statistically significant: 'I am very conscious of what day of the work week it is and I greatly anticipate weekends. I say, "Thank God it's Friday!"' The third and

last factor to be extracted was the work: job, and two items had loadings higher than 0.60. The last item had a loading lower than 0.50.

4.1.1.4 WES

A principal component analysis was performed to assess the number of factors. A principal axis factor analysis with an oblimin rotation was used to extract the three factors on the engagement scale: cognitive, emotional and physical engagement. An analysis of the eigenvalues showed that one factor could be extracted which explained 40.90% of the total variance (Factor 1= 40.899% of variance). The initial eigenvalue total for the one factor is Factor 1= 4.090. The pattern matrix is reported in Table 5.

Table 5

Pattern Matrix for Engagement Scale

Item description	Factor		
	1	2	3
Eng_ emot3. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0.76	0.15	-0.02
Eng_ emot4. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0.67	-0.06	0.05
Eng_ emot2. I feel energised when I work.	0.61	-0.05	-0.12
Eng_ emot1. I am passionate about my job	0.44	0.03	-0.23
Eng_ cog1. I get so into my job that I lose track of time.	0.18	0.81	0.03
Eng_ cog5. When I'm working, I often lose track of time.	-0.14	0.67	-0.03
Eng_ phys2. I am full of energy in my work.	-0.12	-0.07	-0.96
Eng_ phys4. I feel physical strong at work.	0.03	0.09	-0.67
Eng_ phys3. I feel alive and vital at work.	0.19	0.08	-0.53
Eng_ phys1. I feel a lot of energy when I am performing my job.	0.29	-0.04	-0.47

The pattern matrix shows that three factors can be extracted which are engagement: emotional, engagement: cognitive, and engagement: physical. The three factors are about

how an employee engages their energy at work, emotionally, cognitively and physically. All the engagement factors showed high loadings with all but two items having loadings higher than 0.50, which is statistically acceptable.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, ALPHA COEFFICIENTS AND CORRELATIONS

The descriptive statistics, alpha coefficients and correlations of the Work role fit, meaningfulness and engagement are reported in Table 6.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients of the Measuring Instruments

Variable	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
1. Work role fit	2.24	0.87	4.30	1.06	0.82
2. Meaning	1.87	0.60	4.09	2.90	0.64
3. Work: Calling	2.16	0.65	2.15	0.15	0.76
4. Work: Job	3.16	0.72	3.67	0.44	0.66
5. Work: Career	1.92	0.94	3.95	1.25	0.64
6. Engage: Emotion	4.01	0.80	7.53	8.73	0.78
7. Engage: Cognitive	2.73	0.85	1.06	0.52	0.70
8. Engage: Physical	3.85	0.79	2.94	1.23	0.82

Table 6 shows that high alpha coefficients, ranging from 0.64 to 0.82, were obtained. The alpha coefficients of most of the scales were higher than the 0.70, indicating acceptable internal consistency (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). However, the internal consistencies of three scales, namely meaning, work: job, and work: career were slightly lower than the recommended value.

The Pearson correlations scales of work role fit, meaningfulness, and engagement are reported in Table 7. In line with Cohen's (1988) guidelines, a cut-off point of 0.50 (large effect) and 0.30 (medium effect) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients. In terms of statistical significance, the value was set at confidence interval level ($p < 0.05$, medium effect) and ($p < 0.01$, large effect).

Table 7

Pearson Correlations of the Scales

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Work Role Fit	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Psychological Meaningfulness	0.68**++	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Work: Calling	0.59**++	0.48**+	-	-	-	-	-
4. Work: Job	-0.41**+	-0.32**+	-0.37**+	-	-	-	-
5. Work: Career	0.09	0.08	0.17	0.09	-	-	-
6. Engagement: Emotional	0.40**+	0.32**+	0.54**++	-0.35**+	0.13	-	-
7. Engagement: Cognitive	0.14	0.01	0.13	0.00	0.02	0.13	-
8. Engagement: Physical	0.42**+	0.42**+	0.51**++	-0.26**	0.13	0.64**++	0.14

** $p < 0.01$

* $p < 0.05$

++ $r > 0.50$ practically significant (large effect)

+ $r > 0.30$ practically significant (medium effect)

The information in Table 7 shows the following correlations among the constructs:

- A calling work orientation is positively related to work role fit (large effect), and work: calling, physical engagement and emotional engagement (all medium effects). Psychological meaningfulness is also practically significantly and negatively related to work: job (medium effect).
- Work role fit is statistically and practically significantly positively related to psychological meaningfulness (large effect), and work: calling (large effect). Work

role fit is also statistically and practically significantly negatively related to work: job (medium effect).

- Work: calling is statistically and practically significantly negatively related to emotional engagement (large effect) and physical engagement (large effect).

4.3 REGRESSION ANALYSES

Table 8 shows the results of multiple regression analyses with Work: Calling, Work: Career, Work: Job, and Work Role Fit as independent variables and psychological meaningfulness as the dependent variable.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analyses with Work: Calling, Work: Career, Work: Job, and Work Role Fit as Independent Variables and Psychological Meaningfulness as the Dependent Variable

Step	Item	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	ΔR^2
		Beta	SE	Beta					
1	(Constant)	7.11	1.82			3.92	0.00	14.30*	0.25*
	Work: Job	-0.16	0.09	-0.15		-1.78	0.08		
	Work: Career	0.01	0.13	0.01		0.08	0.94		
	Work: Calling	0.29	0.06	0.44		5.03	0.00*		
2	(Constant)	4.76	1.62			2.95	0.00	24.43*	0.20*
	Work: Job	-0.07	0.08	-0.06		-0.85	0.40		
	Work: Career	-0.02	0.11	-0.01		-0.16	0.87		
	Work: Calling	0.08	0.06	0.12		1.29	0.20		
	Work Role Fit	1.98	0.31	0.57		6.36	0.00*		

$p < 0.01$

The results in Table 8 show that Work: Job, Work: Career, and Work: Calling predicted 25% of the variance in psychological meaningfulness ($F = 14.30$, $p \leq 0.01$). The regression coefficient of Work: Calling ($\beta = 0.44$, $p \leq 0.01$), was statistically significant. Adding Work-Role Fit to the regression equation in the second step resulted in the explanation of an additional 20% of the variance in psychological meaningfulness ($F = 23.43$, $p \leq 0.01$). The regression coefficient of Work-Role Fit ($\beta = 0.57$, $p \leq 0.01$) was statistically significant.

Table 9 shows the results of multiple regression analyses with Work: Calling, Work: Career, Work: Job, and Work Role Fit as independent variables and Engagement: Emotional as the dependent variable.

Table 9

Multiple Regression Analyses with Work Beliefs and Work Role Fit as Independent Variables and Emotional Engagement as the Dependent Variable

Step	Item description	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	ΔR^2
		Beta	SE	Beta				
1							17.13**	0.29**
	(Constant)	18.75	1.95		9.62	0.00		
	Work: Job	0.17	0.10	0.15	1.77	0.08		
	Work: Career	0.07	0.14	0.04	0.47	0.64		
	Work: Calling	-0.34	0.06	-0.47	-5.55	0.00**		
2							12.95**	0.29
	(Constant)	18.96	2.02		9.38	0.00		
	Work: Job	0.16	0.10	0.14	1.634	0.11		
	Work: Career	0.07	0.14	0.04	0.48	0.63		
	Work: Calling	-0.33	0.07	-0.45	-4.42	0.00**		
	Work Role Fit	-0.04	0.10	-0.04	-0.41	0.69		

The results in Table 9 show that Work: Job, Work: Career, and Work: Calling predicted 29% of the variance in Engagement: Emotional ($F = 17.13, p \leq 0.01$). The regression coefficient of Work: Calling ($\beta = -0.47, p \leq 0.01$) was statistically significant. Adding Work-Role Fit to the regression equation in the second step resulted in the explanation of the same 29% of the variance in Engagement: Emotional ($F = 12.95, p \leq 0.01$). Only the regression coefficient of Work: Calling ($\beta = 0.45, p \leq 0.01$) was statistically significant.

Table 10 shows the results of multiple regression analyses with Work: Calling, Work: Career, Work: Job, and Work Role Fit as independent variables and Engagement: Physical as the dependent variable.

Table 10

Multiple Regression Analyses with Work Beliefs and Work Role Fit, as Independent Variables and Physical Engagement as the Dependent Variable

Step	Item	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	ΔR^2
		Beta	SE	Beta					
1								14.85**	0.25
	(Constant)	18.65	1.91			9.76	0.00		
	Work: Job	0.10	0.10	0.08		0.99	0.32		
	Work: Career	0.11	0.14	0.06		0.81	0.42		
	Work: Calling	-0.33	0.06	-0.47		-5.41	0.00*		
2								11.67**	0.26
	(Constant)	19.37	1.98			9.79	0.00		
	Work: Job	0.07	0.10	0.06		0.67	0.50		
	Work: Career	0.11	0.14	0.07		0.82	0.41		
	Work: Calling	-0.29	0.07	-0.40		-3.95	0.00**		
	Work Role Fit	-0.12	.09	-0.13		-1.34	0.18		

$p < 0.01$

The results in Table 10 show that Work: Job, Work: Career, and Work: Calling predicted 25% of the variance in Engage: Physical ($F = 14.85$, $p \leq 0.01$). The regression coefficient of Work: Calling ($\beta = 0.47$, $p \leq 0.01$) was statistically significant. Adding Work-Role Fit to the regression equation in the second step did not result in an additional explanation of the variance in Engagement: Physical ($F = 11.67$, $p \leq 0.01$). Only the regression coefficient of Work: Calling ($\beta = 0.40$, $p \leq 0.01$) was statistically significant.

Multiple regression analyses with Work: Calling, Work: Career, Work: Job, and Work Role Fit as independent variables and Engagement: Cognitive as the dependent variable was carried out. However, the regression equation was not statistically significant ($F = 1.02$, $p >$

0.05). None of the statistically significant independent variables predicted cognitive engagement.

4.4 TESTING THE MEASUREMENT AND STRUCTURAL MODEL

Based on the results of this study, a model of meaning and work engagement for teachers in Zambia was subsequently tested. In this model, the constructs of calling, work role fit, psychological meaningfulness and work engagement were integrated into one model.

4.4.1 Testing the measurement model

Evidence was sought for the construct validity of the exogenous and endogenous variables. Using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), a hypothesised measurement model was tested to assess whether each of the measurement items would load significantly onto the scales with which they were associated. Each latent variable included three to four observed variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

The measurement model consisted of four latent variables, namely a) work orientation: calling, measured by seven observed variables; b) work role fit, measured by five observed variables; c) psychological meaningfulness, measured by four observed variables, and work engagement, d) consisting of two latent variables, namely emotional engagement (measured by four observed variables) and physical engagement (measured by four observed variables). The measurement model is shown in Figure 1.

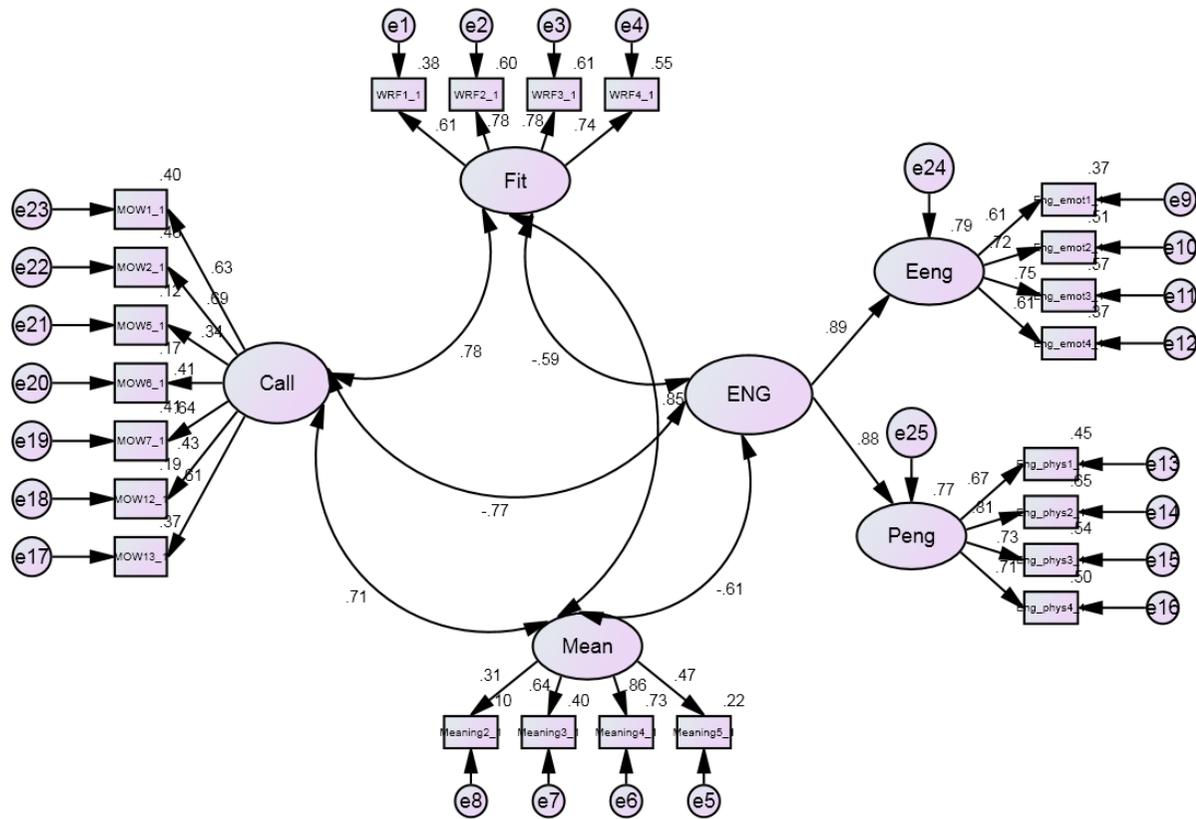


Figure 1. The measurement model

The fit indices indicate that the measurement model 1 fit the data well. A χ^2 value of 313.58 ($df = 222, p < 0.01$) was obtained for the model. The other fit indices were all higher than the recommended values: TLI = 0.91, CFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.06. Therefore the hypothesised four-factor measurement model had an acceptable fit with the data. The results in Table 11 show that the R^2 for one item measuring meaning (Meaning2_1) was low (0.10, which means that the latent factor extracted only 10% of the variance in the item). Therefore the item was removed. The fit indices indicate that the adapted measurement model had a χ^2 value of 273.87 ($df = 201, p < 0.01$). The change in χ^2 was statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 39.71, \Delta df = 22, p < 0.01$). The other fit indices were all higher than the recommended values: TLI = 0.93, CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.04 and SRMR = 0.05. The standardised coefficients from items to factors ranged from 0.32 to 0.89. Furthermore, the results indicated that the relationship between each observed variable and its respective construct was statistically significant ($p < 0.01$), establishing the posited relationships among indicators and constructs (see Hair *et al.*, 2010).

Table 11

Standardized Regression Weights for the Measurement Model

Variable		Estimate	Variable	Estimate
Eeng	<--- ENG	0.89	Eng_emot4_1 <---	Eeng 0.61
Peng	<--- ENG	0.88	Eng_phys1_1 <---	Peng 0.67
WRF1_1	<--- Fit	0.61	Eng_phys2_1 <---	Peng 0.81
WRF2_1	<--- Fit	0.78	Eng_phys3_1 <---	Peng 0.73
WRF3_1	<--- Fit	0.78	Eng_phys4_1 <---	Peng 0.71
WRF4_1	<--- Fit	0.74	MOW13_1 <---	Call 0.61
Meaning5_1	<--- Mean	0.47	MOW12_1 <---	Call 0.43
Meaning4_1	<--- Mean	0.86	MOW7_1 <---	Call 0.64
Meaning3_1	<--- Mean	0.64	MOW6_1 <---	Call 0.41
Meaning2_1	<--- Mean	0.32	MOW5_1 <---	Call 0.34
Eng_emot1_1	<--- Eeng	0.61	MOW2_1 <---	Call 0.69
Eng_emot2_1	<--- Eeng	0.72	MOW1_1 <---	Call 0.64
Eng_emot3_1	<--- Eeng	0.75		

4.4.2 Testing the structural model

The descriptive statistics and alpha coefficients of the constructs of the structural model are reported in Table 2. The results in Table 2 show that the scales had acceptable alpha coefficients (> 0.70), except for psychological meaningfulness, which was below the cut-off of 0.70 (see Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Evaluating the hypothesised model

The hypothesised relationships were tested using structural equation modelling as implemented by AMOS (Arbuckle, 2008). Results indicated a fair fit of the structural model compared to the measurement model ($\chi^2 = 273.87$, $df = 201$, $TLI = 0.93$, $CFI = 0.94$, $RMSEA = 0.04$ and $SRMR = 0.05$). The standardised regression coefficients are given in Figure 2.

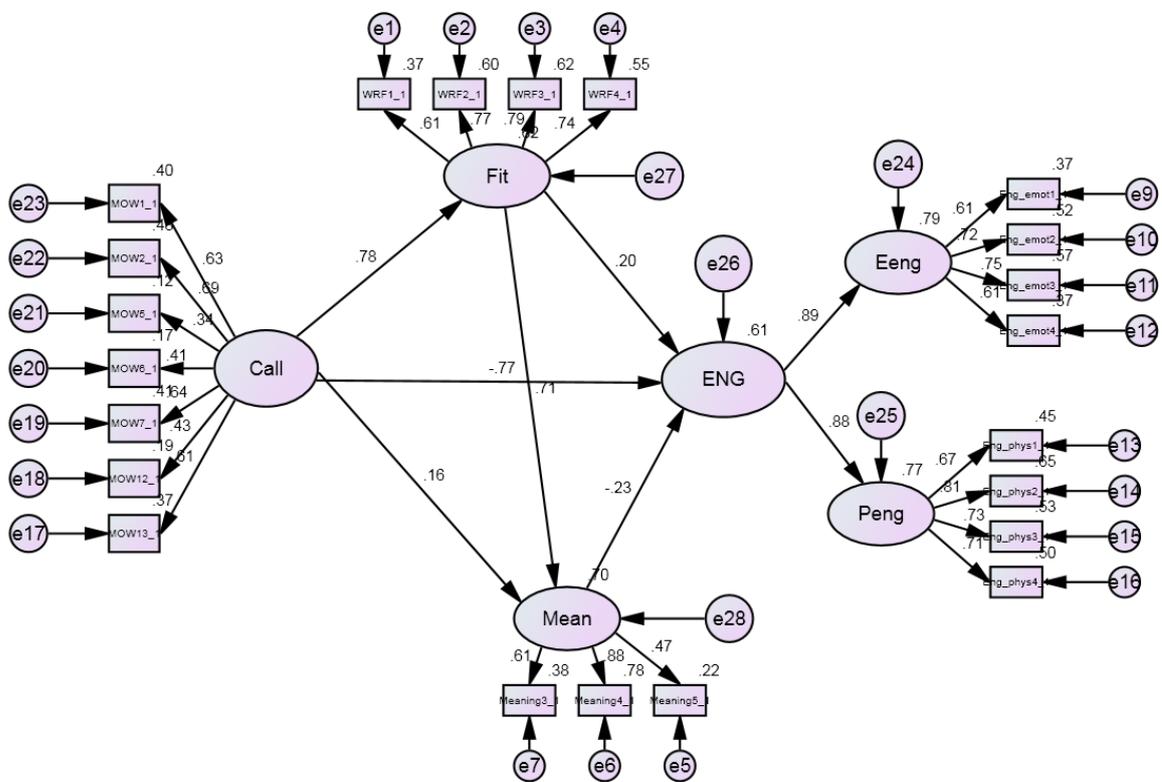


Figure 2. The structural model

Hypothesis 1

For the portion of the model predicting work role fit, the path coefficient was significant and had the expected sign. Having a calling as work orientation had a positive relation with work role fit. The ML-estimated equation accounted for a large proportion of the variance in work role fit ($R^2 = 0.62$). Hypothesis 1 is, therefore, accepted.

Hypothesis 2 and 3

For the portion of the model predicting psychological meaningfulness, the path coefficient of work role fit was significant and had the expected sign. Work role fit has a positive relationship with psychological meaningfulness. The ML-estimated equation accounted for a large proportion of the variance in psychological meaningfulness ($R^2 = 0.70$). These results provide support for Hypothesis 2. However, the path coefficient of a calling work orientation was not statistically significant. Hypothesis 3 is rejected.

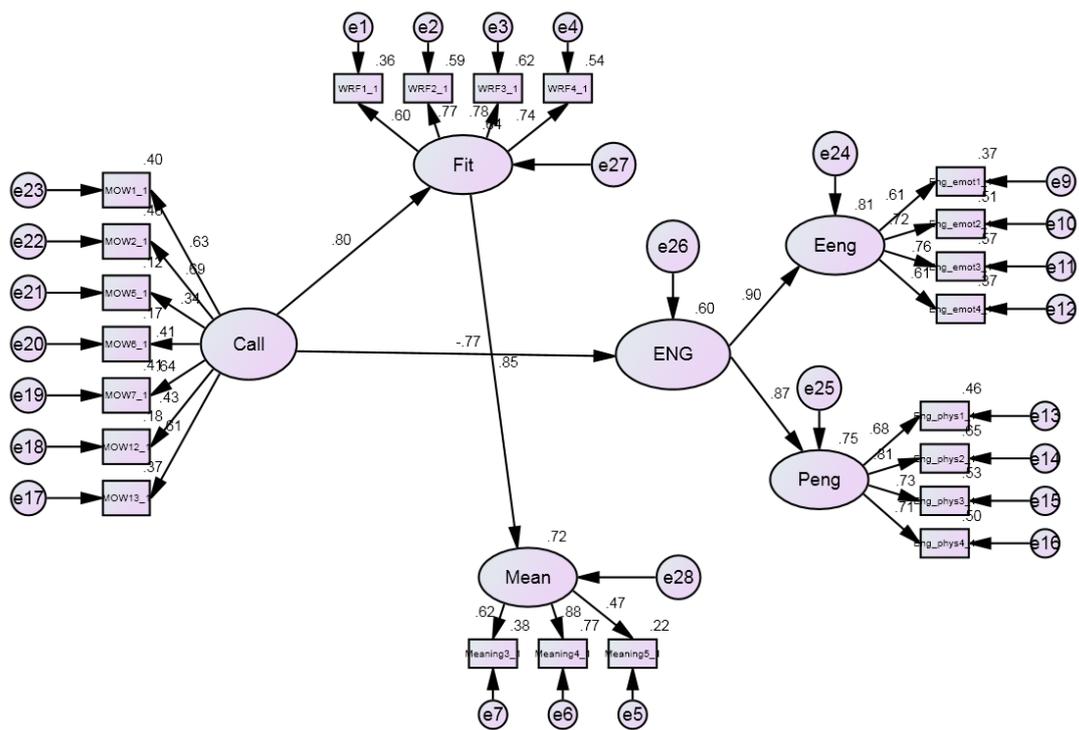
Hypothesis 4, 5 and 6

For the portion of the model predicting work engagement, the path coefficient of calling work orientation was significant and had the expected sign. A calling orientation had a positive relation with work engagement. (Note that a low score on calling orientation indicates a high calling.) The ML-estimated equation accounted for a large proportion of the variance in job satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.61$). Hypothesis 4 is, therefore, accepted. However, the path coefficients of work role fit and psychological meaningfulness on work engagement were not statistically significant.

Revised model

To test the last two hypotheses, three insignificant paths in the structural model were removed, namely the path from a calling work orientation to psychological meaningfulness, the path from work role fit to work engagement, and the path from psychological meaningfulness to work engagement. The revised model showed acceptable fit: $\chi^2 = 276.82$, $df = 204$, TLI = 0.93 CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.04 and SRMR = 0.05. The non-significant chi-squared difference tests, after these path deletions, indicated that the removal of these paths did not significantly impact the model's degree of overall fit ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2.95$, $\Delta df = 3$, $p > 0.01$).

The revised model is shown in Figure 3.



* $p < 0.01$

Figure 3. The revised model

To determine whether the relationship between a calling orientation and psychological meaningfulness were, indeed, mediated by work role fit, the procedure explained by Hayes (2009) was used. Bootstrapping was used to construct two-sided bias-corrected confidence intervals so as to evaluate mediation effects. Lower CIs (LCIs) and upper CIs (UCIs) are analysed. The bias-corrected confidence intervals for work role fit did not include zeros (effect = 0.33, SE = 0.05, LCI = 0.23, UCI = 0.44). Therefore, work role fit mediated the relationship between a calling work orientation and experiences of psychological meaningfulness at work. Hypothesis 7 is, therefore, accepted.

Taken together, the model fit indices suggest that the relationships posited in the revised model account for a substantial amount of the covariation in the data. The revised model accounts for a large proportion of the variance work role fit (64%), work engagement (60%) and psychological meaningfulness (72%).

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results of the empirical study were discussed. The results, as analysed with the SPSS program, were presented, and a descriptive analysis of the data was discussed, followed by a discussion of the correlations that exist among the variables. Then the results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were discussed.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter focuses on the discussion of the results of the empirical study. There will be a discussion of the regression analysis, the hypotheses for the study will be discussed using structural equation model. Lastly, the implications of these results will be discussed, with emphasis on the relationship between these results and the findings in the research literature.

5.1 DISCUSSION

The general objective of this study was to explore the relationships among meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness, work role fit, and work engagement in a sample of educators in Zambia. The results showed that meaning in work (i.e. having a calling orientation to work) directly impacted work role fit and work engagement. A calling towards work also impacted psychological meaningfulness at work indirectly.

The correlations in this study showed that work role fit, a calling orientation towards work and psychological meaningfulness of educators were strongly and positively related. Hierarchical regression analyses showed that work orientation (and specifically a calling orientation towards work) predicted a large percentage of the variance in psychological meaningfulness. When work role fit was added to the regression equation for psychological meaningfulness, the regression coefficient for a calling orientation became insignificant. This finding suggests that although a calling orientation was an important predictor of

psychological meaningfulness, the effects of work role fit was even more important. Therefore hypothesis 2 was accepted; work role fit is significantly related to psychological meaningfulness. This finding also gives partial acceptance to hypothesis 7; work role fit mediates the relationship between a calling orientation to work and psychological meaningfulness.

The hierarchical regression analyses for work engagement showed that a calling orientation towards work strongly predicted both vitality (the physical component of work engagement) and dedication (the emotional component of work engagement). The results showed that a calling orientation towards work was the only significant predictor of both components of work engagement even when work role fit was entered into the regression equation. This shows that educators who have a calling orientation to work experienced emotional and physical engagement at work. This led to the acceptance of hypothesis 4; Calling as a work belief is related to work engagement.

In order to further test the hypothesised relationships structural equation modelling (SEM) was used. The structural model in this study showed that having a calling orientation to work was positively related with work role fit; hypothesis 1 was therefore accepted. The educators who viewed their work as a calling also experienced a work role fit. Work role fit was also positively related to psychological meaningfulness; hypothesis 2 was accepted. Educators who perceive a fit between their work roles and their self concepts experience psychological meaningfulness at work. This finding shows that the common link between the calling orientation to work and psychological meaningfulness is work role fit. The calling orientation to work and psychological meaningfulness are both positively related to work role fit.

The results also showed that the educators with a calling orientation to work displayed vitality and dedication at work. A calling orientation impacted work engagement directly and strongly; hypothesis 4 was accepted. Consequently it can be said that having calling orientations towards work have direct and indirect effects on work role fit, psychological meaningfulness and work engagement. On further investigation, it was found that work role fit mediated the relationship between a calling orientation and experiences of psychological meaningfulness at work; hypothesis 7 was accepted. The educators in Zambia who participated in this study experienced psychological meaningfulness at work when they viewed their work experience as a calling and this relationship was mediated by the perception that their work roles fit how they view themselves. Therefore, educators with a calling orientation to work will experience psychological meaningfulness when they perceive a fit between their work roles and their concepts of the self.

The results showed that work beliefs (and specifically a calling orientation) explained 26.7% of the variance in psychological meaningfulness at work, which increased to 45.5% if work role fit was included as a predictor. A calling orientation to work explained approximately 52% of the variance in emotional and physical engagement of educators, but work role fit and psychological meaningfulness did not predict work engagement when work beliefs were controlled for. Structural equation modelling confirmed a model in which a calling orientation impacted psychological meaningfulness and work engagement. A calling orientation predicted work engagement directly, while such work orientation impacted psychological meaningfulness indirectly via work role fit. The results suggest that

psychological meaningfulness and work engagement are two separate individual outcomes at work, and that a calling orientation impacted both outcomes.

The findings of this study differ from the findings of other researchers who found that psychological meaningfulness is the strongest predictor of employees' engagement (May *et al.*, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The findings of this research also confirm that work role fit was the strongest predictor of psychological meaningfulness (May *et al.* 2004; Olivier & Rothmann, 2007). When educators view their work as callings, they experience work role fit and they perceive their work experience as being psychologically meaningful. Additionally, because of the callings, they are engaged in their work. This means that Zambian educators value their perceived fit with the role as being more meaningful than the inherent characteristics of a job, which is consistent with findings in other research studies (May *et al.*, 2004; Olivier & Rothmann, 2007).

Work role fit played an important role in the experiences of psychological meaningfulness by educators. Educators who experience work role fit perceive their work as an opportunity to express themselves, which results in psychological meaningfulness (May *et al.*, 2004). Educators who fit in their roles feel that they can express their true selves. Having a calling orientation to work seems to contribute to people extending their work roles to the selves because educators perceive that they are in work roles that are congruent to their self-concepts. The identity one's work gives will be readily assumed by educators if it fits how they see themselves (Kahn 1990; May *et al.*, 2004). A person can also feel a sense of calling to their work when the work they do is closely related to their vocational identity (Hirschi,

2011). Vocational identity shares a close relationship with callings in that, like callings, it also leads to striving to find meaning in work.

Cartwright and Holmes (2006) have highlighted that there has been mounting pressure to align work with the personal values of employees. They also highlight that people are prompted to change their careers because the jobs they occupy are not aligned to their personal values and self-concept. There is a very strong connection between an employee's motivation and the organisation's action towards relating corporate image and organisational identity to the employees' own sense of the self or who they are. Therefore it is imperative for organisations to develop work roles that are challenging, rewarding and humane. These work roles should also make people feel energized and passionate about work. The energy they will feel is defined as the positive arousal that a person can experience when working, and it will be experienced as either a mood or an emotion.

When the work roles of educators are not fitting their self-concepts, educators with a calling orientation might recraft their work to match how they perceive the self (Wrzesniewski, 2003; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Berg *et al.*, (2008) asserts that there are three main ways in which employees can re-craft their work: a) by reframing the societal rationale of their work so that the work is aligned with their passion; b). by taking on additional work that is more closely related to one's passion; c) by giving more time, energy and attention to tasks that are related to the person's passion. Job crafting is an effective tool for coping with organisational stress and other work pressures. Therefore, it is important for the organisation to leave room for employees to craft their work. But managers should also monitor the

situation so that the extra work that the employees take on does not lead to employee burnout. Job re-crafting has the unintended side effect of causing employees to regret their present job choice and also of causing additional stress.

The results of this study confirm the findings of Van Zyl *et al.*, (2010) that work role fit predict the psychological meaningfulness in a sample of organisational psychologists in South Africa. However, contrary to their findings, work role fit did not predict work engagement of educators. In line with the perspective of Seligman (2002), meaning and engagement might be two different pathways to well-being of people.

5.2 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, a discussion of the overall results and the implications of these results ensued, with emphasis on the relationship between these results and the findings in the research literature, as previously noted.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter there will be a discussion of the conclusions that can be drawn from the findings of this research. Additionally, a discussion will be made of the limitations of the study and, finally, recommendations will be made about how similar research could be conducted to explore the topic of work engagement beyond the scope of this study. There will also be recommendations for future areas of research related to work engagement.

6.1 CONCLUSIONS

The general objective of the research was to investigate the relationships among work role fit, work beliefs, psychological meaning and work engagement in a sample of educators in Zambia. The specific objectives of this study were to investigate how work-role fit, meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness, work engagement, and the relationships between these constructs are conceptualised in literature. Additionally, the mediating effect of the psychological conditions (psychological meaningfulness) in employees' engaging in their work was investigated, especially how it mediates the relationship between engagement and other constructs. The conclusions that can be drawn from the findings of this research, which are based on the research objectives, are discussed below.

The first research objective was to investigate the relationships among work role fit, work beliefs, psychological meaning, and work engagement in a sample of educators in Zambia

and how these constructs are conceptualised in the literature. The relationship found in this research between psychological meaningfulness and work role fit are different from the findings of previous research (May *et al.*, 2004), who found that people will experience a sense of meaningfulness when they view their work roles as an opportunity to express themselves. In this research, it was found that when people perceive that their work roles are congruent with their self concept, they perceive their work experience as being meaningful. Meaning of work orientation of work: calling had a statistically significant correlation with emotional and physical engagement on the one hand, and psychological meaningfulness via work role fit on the other hand. A calling looks at reasons for people's attachment to their work and the nature of this attachment. This finding is consistent with the findings in the literature that when people view their work as a calling they are more physically and emotionally engaged in their work. They perform better than their colleagues; they are more likely to report intentions to continue working even if they won the lottery and will not need the money earned from working. They report very high levels of intrinsic motivation and strongly identify with their work (Hall & Chandler 2005; Wrzesniewski, 2012; Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997).

According to Kahn (1990), employees are said to be engaged in their work when they attach themselves to their roles on a physical, emotional, and cognitive level. Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) found that employees are engaged in their work roles as a result of having the resources to be able to attach themselves to the role on these three levels. The Cronbach alpha of the three levels of employee engagement was high, ranging from 0.70 to 0.82. Other researchers have shown that certain psychological conditions mediate the outcome of engagement with its antecedents. The most significant of these psychological conditions that

mediates the relationship between engagement and its antecedents, is psychological meaningfulness (May *et al.*, 2004). Psychological meaningfulness had a statistically acceptable reliability with a Cronbach alpha 0.64. However, in this research psychological meaningfulness does not mediate any relationship between engagement and its antecedents. It was found that psychological meaningfulness is an independent outcome of employees perceiving their work as a calling, as is work engagement. The calling work orientation impacted psychological meaningfulness indirectly via work role fit. When educators have a calling orientation to work they are more engaged emotionally and physically in their work on the one hand. They also experience psychological meaningfulness and this relationship is mediated by the perception of congruence between their work roles and their concepts of the self, a work role fit. The results found in this research are that people who perceive the meaning of their work as a calling are more engaged in their work (Wresniewski, 2012). However, unlike other studies previously mentioned, it was found that the relationship between calling and engagement is not mediated by any other constructs, and there is a direct link between the two. Educators are engaged in their work because they perceive their work as a calling.

The antecedents of employee engagement in Zambia were similar to those in other studies (May *et al.*, 2004; Olivier & Rothmann, 2007). In total, only one antecedent to engagement was extracted from the data set, namely work: calling. It showed significantly high reliability with Cronbach alpha value of 0.76.

The second objective of this study was to investigate how educators in Zambia experience the meaning of their work. The work: calling orientation to work had a high Cronbach alpha

value of 0.76, while the work: career and work: job had statistically acceptable Cronbach alphas ranging from 0.64 to 0.66. The work: career orientation had statistically insignificant correlations with the other constructs, while work: job had practically significant correlations with psychological meaningfulness of 0.32, with work: calling of 0.37, and with work role fit of 0.41 with medium effect. Work: calling had statistically and practically significant correlations with engagement: emotional of 0.54, and with engagement: physical of 0.51, with a large effect. This is consistent with findings in other research where it was found that employees who had work: calling orientation to work were more engaged in their work. They invested the self in role performance and even went beyond the call of duty (Hall & Chandler 2005; Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997; Wrzesniewski 2012). Not only are these people engaged in their work but they also perceive a work role fit and this in turn leads them to experience psychological meaningfulness at work.

Several regression analyses were conducted to investigate the third objective to determine whether the psychological conditions mediated the relationship between engagement and its antecedents in a sample of educators in Zambia. It was found that the calling orientation to work is directly related to educators' physical and emotional engagement at work. These findings are inconsistent with other findings found elsewhere (May *et al.*, 2004; Kahn 1990). However, the relationship between work: calling and engagement was not perfectly mediated by psychological meaningfulness. These findings are consistent with the findings of Wrzesniewski *et al.*, (1997) and Wrzesniewski (2012). Psychological meaningfulness does not mediate the relationship between engagement and its antecedents as found in other research (Kahn 1990; May *et al.*, 2004), but in this research psychological meaningfulness is an outcome of educators having a work: calling orientation to work. This relationship is

mediated by educators perceiving a work role fit. Engagement is also the outcome of educators having a work: calling orientation to work.

These findings highlight why educators in Zambia stay in their jobs in spite of having unfavourable conditions of service. As found by Kelly (1999), educators are the most engaged of the civil servants in the country. This research study found that this engagement is a result of educators perceiving their work as a calling; they feel their work has a higher purpose and is for the greater societal good (Wrzesniewski *et al.*, 1997; Wrzesniewski (2012). The calling to work orientation also leads the educators to perceive their work experience as being psychologically meaningful; this relationship is mediated by the perception that their work roles fit how they see themselves.

6.2 LIMITATIONS

One of the limitations of the study was that it was discovered that most of the respondents had not previously participated in any such well-being research, so most of the respondents were not giving consistent responses. In some cases respondents were ‘faking good’ since they were known to the researcher. The other limitation of the study was that this research was done using a cross sectional design, which is effective for collecting data from a wide range of respondents who are similar in one sense or another. However, it is difficult to establish causal relationships with definite certainty using the cross sectional design; these causal relationships can be established by conducting longitudinal studies. The risk of biased findings is relative in longitudinal studies because it depends on whether the predictor (X) is more stable than the mediator (M) (Maxwell 2007). Another disadvantage of the cross

sectional design is that it is primarily influenced by the mean population trends while overlooking other influencing variables. The relationships that were hypothesized in this research are, however, consistent with previous research and theory (May *et al.*, 2004; Kahn 1990). The results of the principal components factor analyses that have been discussed earlier also help to reduce the possibility that common method variance could explain the findings in this research.

Most researchers recommend a minimum sample size of 200 to effectively conduct multivariate statistical analysis. Although a sample size of 150 was used in this research, some authors have confirmed that the effect of the sample size is not so crucial and that conclusive multivariate statistical analysis and factor analysis can still be conducted on smaller sample sizes (Dochtermann & Jenkins, 2010). The other limitation is that this tool has not been used in the Zambian context, and no pre test was conducted to assess the suitability of the research instruments used to collect the data. Though the tools have been successfully used in the Southern African context, there may be slight cultural distinctions that could have been considered. This could be explored in future research on the subject matter.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Next recommendations to solve the research problem as well as for future research are made.

6.3.1 Recommendations to solve the research problems

The following recommendations can be made to solve the research problems:

- Workshops should be organised to promote meaning-making processes of educators.
- Psychological assessment and human resource development initiatives should be implemented to promote work role fit of educators, which will result in psychological meaningfulness.
- Educators and educational institutions should be made aware of the concept of job re-crafting and should implement interventions to promote job crafting. Recrafting jobs to allow educators to discover the factors that contribute to a calling orientation will contribute to educators' engagement at work.
- Educators should be provided with the opportunity to express their own values and strengths within the organisational environment.

6.3.2 Recommendations for future research

The research could be expanded to explore not only educators, whose work conditions are considered poor among civil servants in Zambia, but it could also explore engagement among doctors. Doctors hold a higher social status in the country and are considered among the most well paid civil servants in the country. The findings of that research could then be compared to the findings of the present research. There can also be longitudinal studies conducted to help establish causal relationships and draw conclusions on cultural similarities. This will also help to reduce the limitations of the cross sectional research design. Future studies could

also explore the other two psychological conditions of work, psychological safety and psychological availability, and their effects on educators' engagement in Zambia. They could also compare the findings of the present research to a new similar study which would have a larger sample size of educators as respondents.

Future research could be conducted on a longitudinal scale to determine causal effects and the changes in the conceptualisation of the concepts of meaning of work for educators in Zambia. Callings are said to change over time among and within an individual, and a longitudinal study could help to determine what causes such changes, and to determine what should be maintained or changed to encourage positive work attitudes. This research would inform policy makers about which factors should be reinforced and which factors cause a reduction or loss of meaningfulness. Future research can also look at modifying or readapting the research questionnaires that were used. To the best of this researcher's knowledge, these questionnaires have not been previously used in Zambia; therefore, some of the questions might need to be aligned with the cultural context of the country.

6.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This last chapter focused on a discussion of the research objectives, the findings of the research, and the resultant conclusions. A discussion of the limitations of the study ensued, followed by recommendations for future studies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 *Characteristics of the Participants*

Item		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	67	44.7
	Female	81	54
	Missing values	2	1.3
Age	<25	2	1.3
	25 – 29	37	24.7
	30 – 34	31	20.7
	35 – 39	33	22
	40 – 44	27	18
	45 – 49	8	5.3
	≥50	8	5.3
	Missing Values	4	2.7
Language	Tonga	74	49.4
	Bemba	8	5.3
	Lozi	16	10.7
	Other	14	9.3
	Missing Values	38	25.3
Marital Status	Single	26	17.3
	Married	110	73.3
	Engaged	7	4.7
	Divorced	1	0.7
	Widowed	6	4
	Missing Values	0	0
Education	Primary Diploma	39	26
	Secondary Diploma	53	35.5
	B.A.ED.	36	24
	Certificate	22	14.7
Years in service	Less than 1 year	4	2
	1 to < 5 years	60	40
	5 to < 10 years	31	20
	10 to < 15 years	18	12
	15 to <20 years	24	16
	20 to < 25 years	5	3.3
	25 and more years	11	7
	Missing values	0	0
Live with immediate family	Yes	92	61.4
	No	53	35.3
	Missing Values	5	3.3

Appendix 2



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22 August 2010

Dear Participant

RESEARCH PROJECT

The purpose of this study is to investigate educators' meaningfulness and work engagement within the Zambian context.

All information we receive will remain **confidential**. Your participation and details will remain anonymous. Your contribution to this study is extremely important and its success depends on the number of participants who complete these questionnaires. Please assist us in submitting a truthful reflection of your thoughts surrounding aspects of your work and work environment.

Answer all the questions as accurately and honestly as possible. Full details on how to complete the questionnaires are provided. The amount of time needed to complete the questionnaires is approximately 35 minutes.

If you have any questions and would like to discuss this with us, please contact:

- Prof. Sebastian Rothmann: ian@ianrothmann.com
- Lukondo Hamukang'andu: lukondo@yahoo.co.uk.

Kind regards,

Sebastian Rothmann

Project Leader

Lukondo Hamukang'andu

Researcher

BIOGRAPHICAL

INFORMATION

This questionnaire contains questions relating to your work activities, work-role fit, the meaning of work, psychological meaningfulness, and work engagement. For the first questionnaire you are required to write down your answer, in the blank space to the right:

	Question	Answer				
		Male		Female		
1.	Gender (tick below appropriate gender)					
2.	Age in years					
4.	Language					
5.	Marital Status (tick below appropriate answer)	Single	Engaged	Married	Divorced	Widowed
6.	Parental Status ;					
	(Number of children)					
	(Number of dependants)					
8.	Highest Level of Professional Education					
9.	Years Served in Teaching Service					
10.	Name of your school					
11.	Do you live with your immediate family					
12.	Is this province your preferred choice					

SECTION A

The purpose of this survey is to assess how you view your satisfaction with life. The following are statements of life satisfaction that you may agree or disagree with. It is expected of you to indicate your agreement with each of the statements by putting an “X” on the appropriate number next to each statement, using the 7-point scale below.

SCALE:

0 = Strongly disagree	1 = Disagree	2 = Slightly disagree	3 = Neither agree nor disagree	4 = Slightly agree	5 = Agree	6 = Strongly agree
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STATEMENTS		SCALE						
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	In most ways my life is closely to my ideal.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	The conditions of my life are excellent.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	I am satisfied with my life.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION B

The purpose of this survey is to assess your orientation to happiness. The following are statements of happiness orientation that you may agree or disagree with. It is expected of you to indicate your agreement with each of the statements by putting an “X” on the appropriate number next to each statement, using the 5-point scale below.

1 =	2 =	3 =	4 =	5 =
Very much like me	Unlike me	Sometimes like me	Like me	Very much like me

STATEMENT		SCALE				
		Very much unlike me	Unlike me	Sometimes like me	Like me	Very much like me
1.	My life serves a higher purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Life is too short to postpone the pleasures it can provide.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Regardless of what I am doing, time passes very quickly.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	In choosing what to do, I always take into account whether it will benefit other people.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I go out of my way to feel excited.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I seek out situations that challenge my skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I have a responsibility to make the world a better place.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	In choosing what to do, I always take into account whether it will be pleasurable.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Whether at work or play, I am usually “in a zone” and not conscious of myself.	1	2	3	4	5

10.	My life has a lasting meaning.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I agree with this statement: "Life is short – eat dessert first."	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I am always very absorbed in what I do.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	What I do matters to the society.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I love to do things that excite my senses.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	In choosing what to do, I always take into account whether I can lose myself in it.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I have spent a lot of time thinking about what life means and how I fit into its big picture.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	For me, the good life is pleasurable life.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I am rarely distracted by what is going on around me.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C

Please read the following statements and indicate how each statement relates to the work you usually do. It is expected of you to indicate your agreement with each of the statements by putting an “X” on the appropriate number next to each statement, using the 5-point scale below.

SCALE:

1 = Totally agree	2 = Agree	3 = Neither agree, nor disagree	4 = Disagree	5 = Totally disagree
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STATEMENT		SCALE				
		Totally Agree	Agree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Disagree	Totally disagree
1.	I feel that the work I do on my job is valuable.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	My job ‘fits’ how I see myself.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I like the identity my job gives me.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My job activities are significant to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The work I do on this job helps me satisfy who I am.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	My job ‘fits’ how I see myself in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	The work I do on this job is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	The work I do on this job is worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D

The purpose of this survey is to assess the way in which you view your work. Please read the three paragraphs below. After you have read all three, indicate how much each category of people is like you by crossing out one of the choices below. It is expected of you to indicate your agreement with each of the paragraphs by choosing the appropriate response from the Scale (1-4) and writing down the number (#) next to each statement.

SCALE:

1 =	2 =	3 =	4 =
Very much like me	Somewhat like me	A little like me	Not at all like me

	STATEMENT	SCALE
1	<p>Category A people work primarily enough to earn enough money to support their lives outside of their jobs. If they were financially secure, they would no longer continue with their current line of work, but would really rather do something else instead. To these people, their jobs are basically a necessity of life, a lot like breathing or sleeping. They often wish the time would pass more quickly at work. They greatly anticipate weekends and vacations. If these people lived their lives over again, they probably would not go into the same line of work. They would not encourage their friends and children to enter their line of work. Category A people are very eager to retire.</p>	
2	<p>Category B people basically enjoy their work, but do not expect to be in their current jobs five year from now. Instead, they plan to move on to better, higher level jobs. They have several goals for their futures pertaining to the positions they would eventually like to hold. Sometimes their work seems a waste of time, but they know that they must do sufficiently well in their current positions in order to move on. Category B people can't wait to get a promotion. For them, a promotion means recognition of their good work, and is a sign of their success in competition with co-workers.</p>	
3	<p>For Category C people, work is one of the most important parts of life. They are very pleased that they are in their line of work. Because what they do for a living is a vital part of who they are, it is one of the first things they tell people about themselves. They tend to take their work home with them and on vacations, too. The majority of their friends are from their places of employment, and they belong to several organizations and clubs relating to their work. They feel good about their work because they love it, and because they think it makes the world a better place. They would encourage their friends and children to enter their line of work. Category C people would be pretty upset if they were forced to stop working, and they are not particularly looking forward to retirement.</p>	

SECTION E

The purpose of this survey is to assess the way in which you view your work. Please read the following statements and indicate how each statement relates to the work you usually do. . It is expected of you to indicate your agreement with each of the statements by putting an “X” on the appropriate number next to each statement, using the 4-point scale below.

SCALE:

1 = Very much like me	2 = Somewhat like me	3 = A little like me	4 = Not at all like me
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STATEMENT		SCALE			
		Very much like me	Somewhat like me	A little like me	Not at all like me
1.	I enjoy talking about my work to others.	1	2	3	4
2.	My work is one of the most important things in my life.	1	2	3	4
3.	My main reason for working is financial-to support my family and lifestyle.	1	2	3	4
4.	I am eager to retire.	1	2	3	4
5.	If I was financially secure, I would continue my current work even if I stopped getting paid.	1	2	3	4
6.	My work makes the world a better place.	1	2	3	4
7.	I would choose my current work life again if I had the chance.	1	2	3	4
8.	I expect to be in a higher level job in five years.	1	2	3	4
9.	I view my job as a stepping stone to other jobs.	1	2	3	4
10.	I expect to be doing the same work in five years.	1	2	3	4
11.	I am very conscious of what day of the work week it is and I greatly anticipate weekends. I say, “Thank God it’s Friday!”	1	2	3	4
12.	I tend to take my work with me on vacations.	1	2	3	4
13.	I find my work rewarding.	1	2	3	4
14.	I feel in control of my work life.	1	2	3	4
15.	I would not encourage young people to pursue my kind of work.	1	2	3	4
16.	When I am not at work, I do not think much about my work.	1	2	3	4
17.	I never take work home with me.	1	2	3	4
18.	I view my job as just a necessity of life, much like breathing or sleeping.	1	2	3	4

SECTION F

Please read the following statements and indicate how each statement relates to the work you usually do. It is expected of you to indicate your agreement with each of the statements by putting an “X” on the appropriate number next to each statement, using the 5-point scale below.

SCALE:

1 = Never or almost never	2 = Very infrequently	3 = Sometimes	4 = Very frequently	5 = Always
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STATEMENT		SCALE				
		Never or almost never	Very infrequentl y	Sometimes	Very frequently	Always
1.	I get so into my job that I lose track of time.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I am very absorbed in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am rarely distracted when performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel I am able to contribute new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	When I'm working, I often lose track of time.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I am passionate about my job	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I feel energised when I work.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I am enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I get excited when I perform well on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I feel a lot of energy when I am performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am full of energy in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I feel alive and vital at work.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I feel physical strong at work.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 3

Principle Component Analysis for Work Life Scale

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.751	26.790	26.790	3.160	22.571	22.571
2	1.805	12.890	39.680	1.280	9.141	31.712
3	1.501	10.724	50.403	.909	6.495	38.207
4	1.045	7.462	57.865			
5	.888	6.345	64.210			
6	.844	6.025	70.236			
7	.814	5.814	76.050			
8	.733	5.237	81.287			
9	.626	4.469	85.756			
10	.601	4.290	90.045			
11	.402	2.874	92.920			
12	.382	2.729	95.649			
13	.321	2.292	97.941			
14	.288	2.059	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.