



**The relationship between workplace spirituality and
work-related attitudes**

by

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**A research project submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree**

Magister Technologiae in Human Resources Management

in the

Faculty of Management Sciences

at

Central University of Technology, Free State

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Date: March 2015

Declaration

I declare that the research study titled “The relationship between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes” is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete referencing.

Herman Swanepoel

Date

Acknowledgements

I am deeply grateful to my Creator, who gave me the talent, opportunity, and strength to complete this research.

The author would like to acknowledge a special debt of gratitude to Dr F. van der Walt, for her assistance, persistent and competent guidance, motivation, insight, support, and patience throughout the research, and to Anthony Sparg, for editing this manuscript.

I am very grateful to my wife, Yolandé, for all her love, care, reassurance, support, and constant prayers over the past years.

I owe a special debt of gratitude to my children, for their love, support, and understanding.

Abstract

Although workplace spirituality has been investigated over the past 20 years, much remains unknown about this topic. The aim of the current research was to confirm previous research findings and to extend the current limited body of knowledge regarding workplace spirituality, by determining whether a relationship exists between workplace spirituality and various positive work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, perceived organisational support, and work engagement.

A cross-sectional study was conducted with a sample of 412 employees chosen from two organisations in the Free State Province, specifically the Welkom area. The dependent variables, namely workplace spirituality, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, perceived organisational support, and work engagement, were measured using a quantitative measuring instrument. Data was analysed by means of descriptive and inferential statistical analysis, including frequencies and measures of central tendencies (in the case of workplace spirituality), and a t-test, a one-way multivariate analysis, a correlation analysis, and a regression analysis (in the case of work engagement).

The main finding of this research indicated a positive relationship between workplace spirituality and two of the work-related attitudes measured, namely job satisfaction and job involvement. The variables measured showed statistically significant correlations with many of the sociodemographic variables. In this regard, gender was statistically significantly correlated with work engagement, age with job satisfaction, workplace spirituality, and organisational commitment, tenure with organisational commitment, and qualification with work engagement. These findings have deepened the current understanding of workplace spirituality

and positive work-related attitudes. The findings of the study confirmed the significant role that spirituality plays in the context of the workplace.

Keywords: workplace spirituality, work-related attitudes, job satisfaction, job involvement, perceived organisational support, work engagement, organisational commitment.

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CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The volatile, highly unstable economic climate within which organisations are expected to function is characterised by factors such as globalisation, increasingly competitive and unpredictable markets, downsizing, critical skills shortages, and restructuring, to mention a few (Mafini, Surujal & Dhurup, 2013:12). These factors exert considerable pressure, which compels organisations and employees to do more with less, with a strong emphasis on tangible outcomes and financial results. These changing conditions have led to workplaces becoming increasingly detached from emotional and spiritual aspects (Karakas, 2010:91). The aforementioned is cause for concern, taking into consideration that today employees spend more time at work than ever before.

Organisations are currently thus faced with numerous employee-related problems, with employees becoming increasingly dissatisfied (Barrett, 2004:267). This indicates that organisations need to create new systems to deal effectively with changes that are taking place, both internally and externally. Since employees expect more from their organisations than merely a fair wage at the end of the month, organisations need to consider introducing spirituality into the workplace (Van der Walt, 2007:32).

Although workplace spirituality has recently received increased attention, much still remains unknown about this topic, particularly in the South African context. For this reason, it is important to expand the body of knowledge with regard to workplace spirituality, in order to gain a clearer understanding of this phenomenon, and to understand how it influences workplace behaviour and attitudes. Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003:429) are of the opinion that the relationship between workplace spirituality and job-related attitudes is important, and that this is a legitimate area of inquiry. Van Tonder and Ramdass (2009:239) assert that often organisations invest in various costly interventions, with the aim of cultivating positive employee attitudes, but workplace spirituality appears to create positive employee attitudes without any fiscal contribution from the organisation.

1.2 PREVIOUS RESEARCH FINDINGS

Previous studies investigating workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes have focused mainly on the relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction. Noor and Arif (2011:513) found that spirituality plays a pivotal role in employees' job satisfaction. These findings are consistent with those of Van der Walt (2007:96), who established a positive relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction in the South African context.

Milliman et al. (2003:440) indicated a positive association between workplace spirituality and various employee job-related outcomes, such as organisational commitment, an employee's intention to quit, intrinsic work satisfaction, job involvement, and organisation-based self-esteem. The above-mentioned variables were included in a study by Crawford, Hubbard, Lonis-Shumate and O'Neill (2009:64) conducted in the hospitality industry, in which statistically

significant relationships were reported between workplace spirituality and organisational commitment, job involvement, and organisation-based self-esteem. In addition, Pawar (2009:773) reported a statistically significant association between workplace spirituality and work attitudes, including job satisfaction, job involvement, and organisational commitment.

Based on previous research findings, which showed an association between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes, the hypothesis in this research is that workplace spirituality will likewise be positively associated with the work-related attitudes investigated in the study, namely job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, perceived organisational support and work engagement.

1.3 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.3.1 Workplace spirituality

Giacalone and Jurkiewicz (2003a:13) define workplace spirituality as “those aspects of the workplace, either in the individual, the group, or the organisation, that promote individual feelings of satisfaction through transcendence”. Workplace spirituality has also been defined as “the recognition that employees have an inner life that nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work that takes place in the context of community” (Duchon & Plowman, 2005:811). Both these definitions clearly show a reciprocal relationship between the world of work and an individual’s spirituality, and the way the one manifests itself in the other. For this reason, it is important to investigate the concept of workplace spirituality, in

order to gain a deeper and more holistic understanding of the relationship that it has with work-related behaviours and attitudes.

1.3.2 Work-related attitudes

Attitude is defined as a predisposition that includes an affective, a cognitive and a conative component (Hughes & Barnes-Holmes, 2011:465). Attitudes towards various aspects of the working environment are referred to as work-related attitudes. Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009:74) assert that the work-related attitudes that have been reported on most frequently in the organisational behaviour literature are job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, and work engagement. For the purposes of this study, these five work-related attitudes will be investigated.

1.3.2.1 Job satisfaction

The concept of job satisfaction has been studied extensively for many years, and authors are in agreement that job satisfaction can be regarded as a work-related attitude. Job satisfaction is conceived of as an internal response of the employee to the conditions of work, as these perceptions are shaped by objective differences in work conditions, and the interpretations thereof (Okediji, Etuk & Anthony, 2011:544). Job satisfaction can thus be defined as an employee's perception and evaluation of their job, in other words an emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's occupation (Mafini et al., 2013:13). Hence, if employees have a positive attitude towards their work, they will experience job satisfaction, while if they have a negative attitude towards their work, they will experience job dissatisfaction.

1.3.2.2 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment refers to an employee's attitude towards the organisation as an entity. Hart and Willower (2001:174) describe organisational commitment as being "multidimensional in nature, involving an employee's allegiance to the organisation, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, degree of goal and value congruency with the organisation, and desire to maintain membership". Meyer and Allen (1997:11) developed a framework as theoretical underpinning for this work attitude, and proposed that organisational commitment consists of three types of commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment is defined as the employee's "positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in the organisation", continuance commitment refers to an employee's assessment of whether the cost of leaving the organisation is greater than the cost of staying, and normative commitment refers to employees' feelings of obligation to the organisation (McMahon, 2007:2).

1.3.2.3 Job involvement

There appears to have been much confusion and a proliferation of terms in conceptions of the construct of job involvement (Van der Westhuizen, 2006:58). In the past, the terms "job involvement" and "work involvement" have been used interchangeably. Kanungo (1982:342) was the first researcher who felt it necessary to distinguish between different contexts within which an employee can show personal involvement in the workplace, that is, a particular job, and the general work context. Job involvement can be seen as the extent to which employees seek expression and self-actualisation, and thus meaning, in their

work. Job involvement promotes productivity by creating a work environment in which there will be more congruence between individual goals and organisational goals (Ekore & Onomerike, 2004:127).

1.3.2.4 Perceived organisational support

The overall evaluation of the degree to which the organisation is supportive of its workers is known in the organisational behaviour literature as perceived organisational support (POS). Thus, it is the degree to which employees believe that their organisation recognises and is appreciative of their contribution, and is concerned about their well-being (Uchenna & Tolulope, 2013:184). According to organisational support theory, the rule of reciprocity states that employees voluntarily act in a specific manner, because of the return that they envision to receive (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002:699). For instance, an employee will contribute considerably more than what is expected in accordance with their job specifications, if it is perceived that the organisation will meet their emotional needs (such as the need for affiliation or self-esteem).

1.3.2.5 Work engagement

Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2005:679) assert that work engagement is typically conceived of as the opposite of employee burnout. For the purposes of this study, work engagement will be regarded as a multidimensional construct that is defined as a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind, which is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Taris & Van Rhenen, 2008:176).

1.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Positive psychology is used as theoretical underpinning for this research study. The term “positive psychology” refers to the study of positive emotions, as well as character traits and enabling institutions (Seligman, Steen, Park & Peterson, 2005:410). The framework of positive psychology is relatively new, and has been influenced by humanism and growth psychology, which underscores health and well-being, rather than pathology (Bergh, 2012:42). Selvan (2011:5) asserts that positive psychology is an appropriate theoretical framework to use when conducting an empirical study of religion and spirituality. This assertion validates the use of positive psychology as the theoretical framework for the current research study.

1.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 1.1 represents the conceptual framework of the study, which is in line with the theoretical framework that was presented in the previous sections.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework of the study



Figure 1.1 indicates the aim of this study, namely to conduct an empirical investigation of workplace spirituality and its relation to various work-related attitudes. The five work-related attitudes that are investigated in the study are job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, perceived organisational support, and work engagement. It is postulated that if employees perceive their organisations to be spiritual, it will create positive work attitudes, which will, in turn, have a positive impact on the well-being of employees, and enhance the effectiveness of the organisation.

1.6 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Workplace spirituality is a relatively new concept, which has not yet been adequately investigated. It has been identified that there is a paucity of studies that have been conducted on workplace spirituality in the South African context, and most of these studies have been qualitative in nature (see Alberts, 2009; Honiball, 2009; Lakey, 2010). Although some initial quantitative studies have shown a relationship between workplace spirituality and various organisational outcomes (see Milliman et al., 2003; Crawford et al., 2009; Pawar, 2009; Noor & Arif, 2011), the outcomes of these studies have not yet been corroborated or tested on a South African sample.

Furthermore, previous studies have explicitly stated that the association between workplace spirituality and organisational outcomes has been inadequately investigated (Milliman et al., 2003:427). In a study conducted by Van der Walt (2007:203), it was proposed that workplace spirituality should be investigated further, in order to determine the impact thereof on work-related outcomes, specifically individual work-related attitudes and behaviour. Petchsawang and Duchon (2009:466) confirm this, by stating that more empirical work is needed to determine whether workplace spirituality is connected to work outcomes, such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In order to formulate and validate workplace spirituality theories, it is essential that the concept also be quantitatively investigated.

1.7 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.7.1 Main research objective

The main objective of this study is to determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes in the South African context.

1.7.2 Secondary research objectives

In order to achieve the main objective of this research, as stated in section 1.7.1, the following secondary objectives were formulated:

1. To conduct an extensive literature review of workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes;
2. To determine whether sociodemographic variables, such as gender, age, organisation, tenure, and highest academic qualification, influence in a statistically significantly way the dependent variables, namely workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes;
3. To determine whether a significant relationship exists between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction;
4. To determine whether a significant relationship exists between workplace spirituality and job involvement;
5. To determine whether a significant relationship exists between workplace spirituality and organisational commitment;
6. To determine whether a significant relationship exists between workplace spirituality and perceived organisational support; and

7. To determine whether a significant relationship exists between workplace spirituality and work engagement.

1.8 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question is whether there is a statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes.

The main research question will be investigated using the following research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction?
2. Can workplace spirituality statistically significantly predict a change in degree of job involvement?
3. To what degree can a change in organisational commitment be attributed to workplace spirituality?
4. Is there a statistically significant association between workplace spirituality and perceived organisational support?
5. Is there a statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and work engagement?

The secondary research question was whether sociodemographic variables such as age, gender, race, number of years in current job, total number of years working, and highest educational qualification have a statistically significant influence on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes.

1.9 LAYOUT OF CHAPTERS

In chapter 2 a literature review will be presented, which will be regarded as the foundation on which the study is based. The literature will be reviewed according to two main topics, namely workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. Chapter 3 will provide a description and explanation of the methodology that was employed in the research project. The topics that will be covered in this chapter are, among others, the sample selection, the collection of the data, and the statistical methods used in the study. In chapter 4, the results are presented, followed by a discussion thereof. In chapter 5, conclusions are drawn, and possible recommendations are made, based on the findings of the research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

From a systems perspective, individuals are regarded as systems consisting of a physical, psychological and spiritual dimension (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003a:14). However, although many studies have focused on the physical and psychological dimensions of individuals in the context of the workplace, the spiritual dimension was neglected for many years. It is only in the past 20 years that increased attention has been given to the study of spirituality in the context of the workplace (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2004:26).

It is generally assumed that if employees are allowed and encouraged to bring their whole selves to work (including their spiritual attributes), they will be more productive, creative, and fulfilled (Nasina & Doris, 2011:216). Conversely, if employees work in dispirited organisations, the lack of workplace spirituality will manifest in deviant workplace behaviours and attitudes (Nasina & Doris, 2011:217). The main objective of this study is to determine whether a relationship exists between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes for a South African sample.

2.2 WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY

According to Marschke, Preziosi and Harrington (2011:71), there is a general belief that for an organisation in the 21st century to thrive, it is necessary for management and employees to tap into their spiritual resources. However, it seems that this should be a complementary process, where both employees and the organisation should become spiritual. Rust and Gabriels (2011:1355) confirm this, by asserting that when employees are allowed to integrate their personal or spiritual values in the workplace, and to align those values with the company's values, employees and companies can move forward and aspire to greater things, that could give meaning and purpose to all stakeholders. Smith and Rayment (2007:217) contend that workplace spirituality will not only be beneficial to individuals and organisations, but will also contribute in a meaningful way to society at large.

2.2.1 Perspectives on workplace spirituality

Workplace spirituality consists of an individual component and an organisational component. On an individual level, workplace spirituality is discussed from the intrinsic-origin perspective of workplace spirituality, while organisational spirituality is discussed from the existential perspective of workplace spirituality (De Klerk, 2005:70). These two perspectives will be discussed in the following section.

2.2.1.1 Intrinsic-origin perspective

The intrinsic-origin perspective of spirituality argues that spirituality originates inherently (Krishnakumar & Neck, 2002:154), and refers to the application of an individual's personal spirituality to the work environment. Moore and Casper (2006:109) state that individual spirituality has an influence on people's behaviour. According to this perspective, the individual may experience spirituality through his or her work, although the organisation might not necessarily be spiritual.

From a systems perspective, one should recognise that an employee has various subdimensions (such as a physical dimension, a psychological dimension, and a spiritual dimension), which are all brought to work. If organisations are not going to allow employees to experience spirituality at work, this may lead to employees becoming dissatisfied and unfulfilled. Duchon and Plowman (2005:811) state that organisations should recognise employees' spiritual needs, and that these needs cannot be left at home when employees come to work. Furthermore, when employees are spiritual, and the working environment allows them to express their spiritual identity, such employees are likely to feel motivated and valued (Badrinarayanan & Madhavaram, 2008:424).

However, spirituality should not be equated with religion. Conflicting opinions exist with regard to religion and spirituality, and it seems important to be cognisant of these opinions. Some authors are of the opinion that spirituality includes religion (e.g. Graber, 2001:40; MacDonald, 2000), while others see spirituality and religion as not necessarily associated (e.g. Mitroff & Denton, 1999; Dehler & Walsh, 1994).

Graber (2011:40) asserts that “spirituality avoids the formal and ceremonial connotations of religion. It implies an inner search for meaning or fulfilment that might be undertaken by anyone regardless of religion”. Fry (2003:706) suggests that “spirituality is necessary for religion, but religion is not necessary for spirituality”. Van der Walt and De Klerk (2014a:368) argue that although religion can enhance an individual’s experience of spirituality, it can also be restrictive and destructive, which is contrary to the unrestrictive nature of spirituality. For the purposes of this study, spirituality will not include a religious component.

2.2.1.2 Existential perspective

Bennis and Nanus, as cited in Sanders, Hopkins and Geroy (2005:46), state that the existential perspective refers to the capacity of organisations to construct and manage significance in task performance for their employees. Thus, in the context of the workplace, this perspective refers to employees searching for meaning and purpose in what they do. Milliman et al. (2003:429) argue that for employees to be involved in tasks that give meaning and purpose to them is essential for spirituality in the workplace.

According to Krishnakumar and Neck (2002:156) and Kale and Shrivastava (2003:310), the existential perspective includes a sense of “connectedness”. For this reason, organisations should be sensitive to establishing an organisational culture where employees feel that they are connected to others (both internal and external to the organisation). Zumeta (1993:26) suggests that when employees experience true spirituality, they will feel connected to themselves, others, the environment, the planet, and the universe. This is of fundamental importance, if one takes into consideration that the workplace has become the centre of activity

for most people, as well as the nucleus of social contact and interpersonal distress (Bhunia & Mukhuthi, 2011:73).

The existential perspective focuses on the spiritual nature of the workplace itself, and what the organisation can do to assist employees to experience spirituality at work, regardless of their spiritual orientation. According to Giacalone and Jurkiewicz (2003b:87), organisations will be regarded as spiritual if they adhere to spiritual values such as benevolence, generativity, humanism, justice, receptivity, respect, self-transcendence, trust, and mutuality. Furthermore, these spiritual values should be represented in the organisation's philosophy, mission, goals, and objectives (Milliman, Ferguson, Trickett & Condemi, 1999:230). Spiritual-based organisational cultures will be characterised as having a strong sense of purpose, mutual trust, honesty and openness, humanistic work practices, and tolerance of employee expression (De Klerk, 2005:70-71). For the purposes of this study, workplace spirituality will be viewed from an existential perspective.

While the existential perspective focuses on the spiritual nature of the organisation, the intrinsic-origin perspective focuses on individual spirituality within the context of work. Some authors maintain that in order to experience workplace spirituality, these two perspectives should be investigated in conjunction with each other (Kolodinsky et al., 2008:465). This perspective is referred to as the interactive perspective, as it focuses on the relationship between individual and organisational spirituality. According to this perspective, the values of the organisation should ideally be compatible with those of the individual.

2.2.2 Definitions of workplace spirituality

Although there are more than 70 definitions of workplace spirituality (Markow & Klenke, 2005:11), construct clarity is still lacking, which suggests that authors are still not in agreement on what the concept constitutes. Due to the complex and personal nature of the concept of spirituality, it is interpreted differently by different authors (Cavanaugh, 1999:191). This lack of agreement regarding the conceptual definitions of spirituality and workplace spirituality is regarded as one of the obstacles preventing scientific progress in this field of study (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2010:4).

The word “spiritual” has its origins in the Latin word *spiritus*, which means “breath”, or “that which gives life or vitality to a system” (Zohar & Marshall, 2004:28). Although this definition was specifically aimed at human beings, as the “system”, organisations are also regarded as systems, on a sequential level of complexity. This thus shows the relevance of studying spirituality in the context of the workplace.

Ashmos and Duchon (2000:14) define workplace spirituality as “the recognition of an inner life that nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work that takes place in the context of the community”. Giacalone and Jurkiewicz (2003a:23) define workplace spirituality somewhat more comprehensively, as “a framework of organisational values evidenced in the culture that promotes employees’ experience of transcendence through the work process, facilitating their sense of being connected to others in a way that provides feelings of completeness and joy”. Another detailed definition of workplace spirituality is offered by Kinjerski and Skrypnek (2004:27), who define the construct as “the experience of employees that are passionate about and energised by their work, finding

meaning and purpose in the work, feel that they can express their complete selves at work, and feel connected to those with whom they work”. Marques, Marques, Allevato and Holt (2008:85) capture the essence of workplace spirituality in their definition, stating that “spirituality in the workplace is an experience of interconnectedness among those involved in the work process, initiated by authenticity, reciprocity, and personal goodwill engendered by a deep sense of meaning that is in the organization’s work, and resulting in greater motivation and organizational excellence”.

Kolodinsky et al. (2008:467) assert that it is important that the definition of workplace spirituality allow for the difference between spirituality on a personal or individual level, and spirituality on an organisational level. Workplace spirituality from an individual perspective involves a transcending personal experience, finding meaning and purpose in work, and a sense of connectedness to others (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2004:27; Van der Walt, 2007:27). From an organisational perspective, workplace spirituality involves the creation of spiritual-based values that promote interconnectedness and meaningful work (Van der Walt, 2007:28; Wong & Hu, 2011:58).

2.2.3 Measuring workplace spirituality

From the exposition in section 2.2.2, it is clear that the construct of spirituality has been conceptualised differently by different researchers. The lack of conceptual clarity has led to the development of many measuring instruments, which have attempted to measure different aspects of individual spirituality, such as personal spirituality, spiritual well-being, and religion. These measuring instruments have emphasised spirituality from an individual perspective, and therefore have not incorporated organisational spirituality.

The first measuring instrument to determine organisational spirituality, named “Finding Meaning and Purpose at Work”, was developed by Ashmos and Duchon (2000), and it measured spirituality on an individual level, a work unit level, and an organisational level. Subsequent to the development of this instrument, several other measures of workplace spirituality emerged, such as the Workplace Spirituality and Employee Attitudes Scale, which was developed by Milliman et al. (2003). Previous studies of workplace spirituality in South Africa have mainly used the Spirit at Work Scale, which was developed by Kinjerski and Skrypnek (2006), and the Organisational Spiritual Values Scale (OSVS), which was developed by Kolodinsky et al. (2004). For the purposes of this study, the OSVS will be used to measure workplace spirituality from an organisational perspective.

2.2.4 Findings of previous research

In recent years, increased interest in the construct of workplace spirituality has been observed (Van der Walt, 2007:23). This is mainly attributed to the correlation that has been proven between individual spirituality, spiritual well-being, and workplace spirituality, on the one hand, and important individual outcomes, such as life satisfaction, subjective well-being (Pagnini, Lunetta, Rossi, Banfi, Gorni, Cellotto & Castelnuovo, 2011:106; Pashak & Laughter, 2012:186), happiness, self-esteem, hope, and optimism (Emmons, 1999:17), success (Ashar & Lane-Maher, 2004:259), honesty and mutual trust (Wagner-Marsh & Conley, 1999:295), emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy (Hartsfield, 2003:30), on the other hand. This indicates that on an individual level, spirituality statistically significantly influences psychological well-being, which has important positive implications for organisations.

Although the study of workplace spirituality is fairly new, empirical studies over the past two decades have consistently confirmed significant relationships between workplace spirituality and various work-related outcomes. Van der Walt and De Klerk (2014b:380) state that workplace spirituality has been found to be related to organisational effectiveness (Karakas, 2010), organisational performance (Neck & Milliman, 1994; Thompson, 2000), organisational commitment (Rego & Cunha, 2008), job involvement, organisational identification, work rewards satisfaction (Milliman et al., 2003; Kolodinsky et al., 2008), work ethics (Issa & Pick, 2011; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003b), intrinsic, extrinsic and total work rewards (Kolodinsky et al., 2004), work ethic and work values (Issa & Pick, 2011), job satisfaction, and organisational commitment (Pawar, 2009).

One may conclude that groundbreaking work has been conducted in this emerging field of study, which has led to general acceptance of management, religion and spirituality as a legitimate and necessary field of study. Not only is workplace spirituality accepted as a valuable field of academic enquiry, but organisations are also becoming increasingly interested in workplace spirituality ascribed to the benefits it might yield. Sheep (2006:375) asserts that workplace spirituality will not only benefit individual employees and the organisation, but also society at large. However, successful introduction of workplace spirituality to an organisation requires authentic commitment and a comprehensive understanding of the construct.

2.2.5 Concluding remarks

Although the study of spirituality in the context of the workplace is not without criticism, it seems to be more appropriate to build spiritual organisational cultures than to have organisations which are characterised by a lack of mutual understanding, respect, integrity, and justice. In the South African context, the concept of Batho Pele (“People first”) speaks to a spiritual organisational culture, and it is gaining momentum, particularly in the public sector. Lakey (2010:25) argues that developing spirituality in an organisation should not be regarded as just another organisational process which can be documented, but should rather be conceived of as a practice which stretches over the lifespan of an organisation.

In order to obtain an in-depth understanding of the construct of workplace spirituality, continued study is therefore necessary. Although various empirical studies have confirmed the relationship between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes, not all of the work-related attitudes investigated in this research have been studied in relation to workplace spirituality. Furthermore, many of the empirical studies conducted have focused only on individual spirituality and its relationship to work-related outcomes. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the focus will be on workplace spirituality from an organisational perspective, and its relationship to work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, work engagement, and perceived organisational support.

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF ATTITUDE

The concept of attitude has been extensively researched, especially in social and management sciences. Although the word “attitude” is a general term that is often used in everyday conversation, it is a complex concept that needs to be thoroughly understood. One of the most comprehensive definitions of the concept of attitude defines attitude as a predisposition that includes an affective, a cognitive and a conative component (Hughes & Barnes-Holmes, 2011:465). The affective component represents either a favourable or unfavourable sentiment about an attitude object (Robbins et al., 2009:72). For example, if an employee states that they like to spend time at work, they are expressing an affective attitude towards their work. The cognitive component involves thinking patterns and cognitions that relate to the attitude object, while the conative component concerns the individual’s volition (Jonck, Le Roux & Hoffman, 2013:94).

2.3.1 The components of attitude

As can be seen from the definition of attitude, an attitude can be described in terms of three components, namely an affective, a cognitive, and a behavioural component (Bergh & Theron, 2009:147).

2.3.1.1 The cognitive component of attitude

Upon investigation of the concept of attitude, it becomes clear that the concept involves more than a mere feeling about an attitude object. When an attitude is formed, it is formed with beliefs that an individual holds about an attitude object, as well as their evaluation thereof, derived through intellectual reasoning (Jonck et al., 2007a:61). For example, a person might evaluate their house as being spacious and comfortable, based on the knowledge they have about this topic. Applied to the workplace, a person might think of their work as challenging and important, based on their cognitive frame of reference.

The cognitive component of an attitude seems not only to be influenced by an individual's knowledge of an attitude object, but also by the internalised value system of the individual (Bergh, 2012:262). Considering that a cognitive evaluation of an attitude object is based on an individual's frame of reference (which is often incomplete or subjective knowledge) and values (what a person regards as important or right), such an evaluation may be correct or incorrect (Robbins et al., 2009:73). However, regardless of the correctness of the evaluation, a cognitive evaluation of an attitude object influences or determines the other attitude component, which is the affective component.

2.3.1.2 The affective component of attitude

The affective component of an attitude refers to an individual's feelings about an attitude object. Thus, the affective component of an attitude is generally emotional or feeling-based (Robbins et al., 2009:72). For example, after an individual has evaluated their house as being spacious and comfortable, the

person might decide that they like their house. Applied to the working environment, the person who evaluates their work as being challenging and important might have positive feelings about their work, and enjoy doing it.

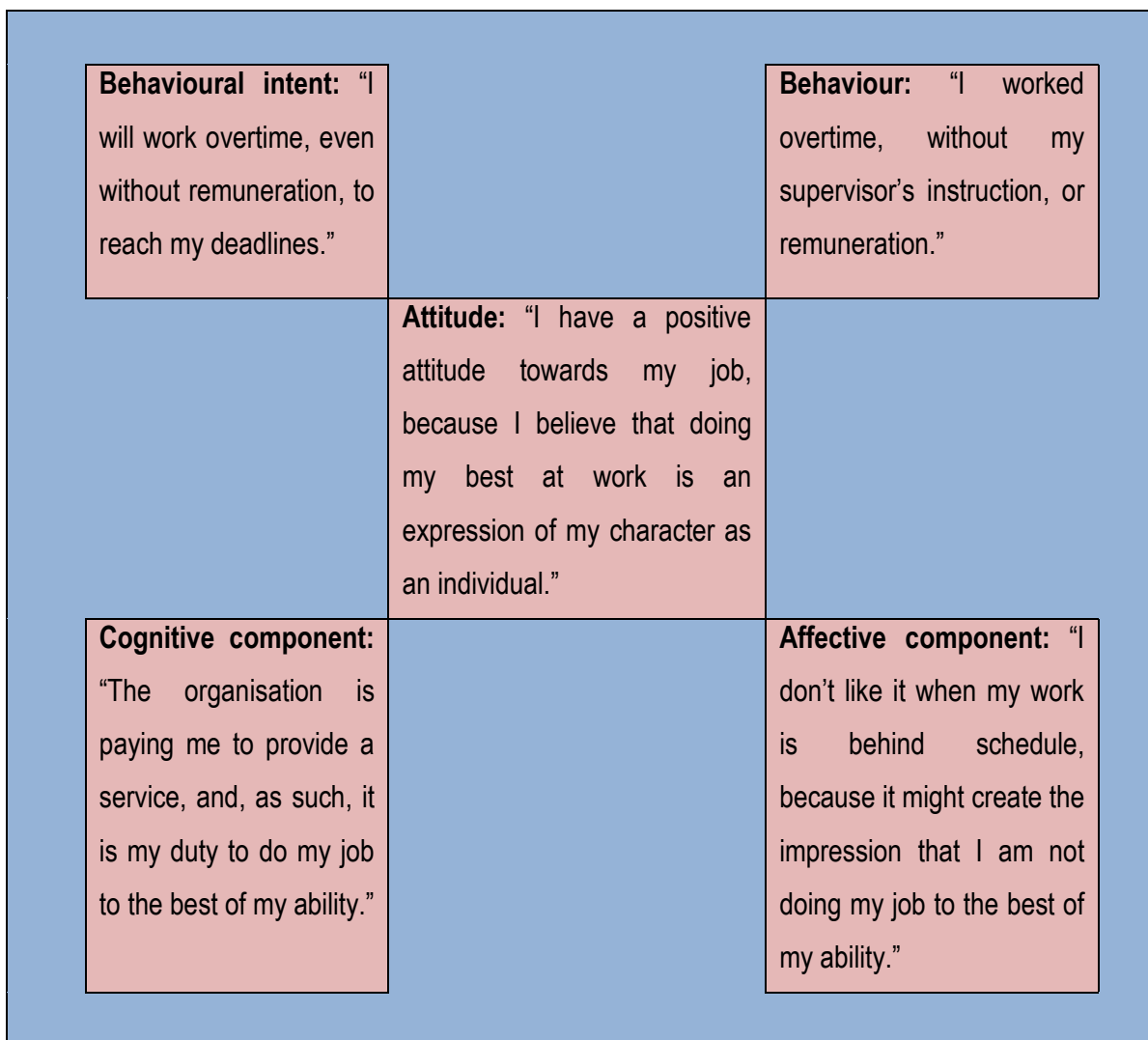
According to Bergh and Theron (2009:147), an attitude may vary according to the extent to which it is predominantly cognitive or affective (or emotional). For example, an individual might have a negative attitude towards the opposite gender (incorporating a strong emotional component), but as the individual gains an improved understanding of this gender group, the attitude could become more evaluative than emotional in nature, which would influence the way in which the individual behaves towards this group.

2.3.1.3 The behavioural component of attitude

The third component of attitude is the behavioural component, which broadly refers to the way in which an attitude is expressed. One might argue that if employees have a positive attitude towards their work and enjoys doing it, they will be productive workers. Unfortunately, the relationship between the concept of attitude and behaviour seems to be more complex than merely assuming that a certain attitude will lead to a certain outcome. According to Robbins et al. (2009:73), research indicates that attitudes do, in fact, predict future behaviour, but this relationship can be moderated by variables such as the importance of an attitude, its correspondence to behaviours, its accessibility, social pressures, and an individual's direct experience with an attitude. Therefore, one may conclude that although emotional or cognitive evaluations may not necessarily predict how an individual will behave, they may influence the way in which an attitude is expressed.

An attitude system based on the components of attitude discussed above is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Attitude system based on the cognitive-affective-behavioural model



(Adapted from Jonck, Le Roux & Verster, 2007b:62)

2.3.2 The functions of attitude

Apart from attitude consisting of various components, it also seems to have different functions. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1997:262), when studying attitude in the context of organisational behaviour, attitude has four functions, namely an adjustment, an ego-defence, a value expression and a knowledge function. The first function of attitude is the adjustment function, which is also referred to as the utilitarian function. The adjustment function is based on the assumption that an employee develops an attitude that is based on the individual's experience, which causes the person to experience either pain or pleasure (Robbins et al., 2009:73). For example, if employees are well treated by other organisational members, these individuals will experience pleasure, which will lead to their having a positive attitude towards the organisation. The adjustment function will also help employees to behave in an acceptable manner, in order to receive a positive outcome, such as recognition from a supervisor, which will lead to the formation of a positive attitude (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2004:27; Robbins et al., 2009:73; Wong & Hu, 2011:58).

The second function of attitude is the ego-defence function. This function of attitude protects people from threats to their dignity and self-image (Van Rooyen, 2002:31). Thus, the ego-defence function will help individuals to maintain a positive sense of self, and will protect them from psychological harm. The third function of attitude is the value-expressive function, which refers to the expression of an individual's values and self-concept (Jonck et al., 2007a:48). For example, if an employee values their work, they are likely to form a positive attitude towards their work, based on the significance that they, as a person, attach to work. The fourth function of attitude is the knowledge function. This function of attitude helps individuals to make sense of the world around them,

and to organise information. Thus, this function helps individuals to simplify complex information and experiences, in order to better understand their environment (Van Rooyen, 2002:31).

From the above exposition of attitude, the complexity of the concept is clear. It is important to understand the various components and functions of attitude, as this can enhance one's understanding of human behaviour, particularly in the context of the workplace.

2.4 WORK-RELATED ATTITUDES

When investigating According to Robbins et al. (2009:73), work-related attitudes can either be general or specific. An employee might hold many work-related attitudes that are highly specific, for example an employee's attitude towards a particular work procedure. On the other hand, an employee's attitude towards the organisation may be regarded as a general attitude, although it can also be distinguished as various specific attitudes.

Previous studies of work-related attitudes have investigated these attitudes from both a general and a specific perspective. For the purposes of this study, work-related attitudes will be studied mainly from a general perspective. The work-related attitudes that will be investigated in this study include job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational involvement, perceived organisational support, and work engagement.

2.4.1 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is frequently studied in industrial and organisational psychology. One aspect that is problematic when reviewing the findings of previous research with regard to job satisfaction is that researchers have used different methods to collect data, namely quantitative methods, qualitative methods, and mixed methods. Due to the different data-collection methods that have been used, researchers have often come to different conclusions and obtained different findings regarding job satisfaction.

Apart from the different data-gathering methods that have been used, different researchers have also used different definitions to explain the concept. It would seem that two main approaches have evolved, one approach focusing on job satisfaction as a universal concept, and the other approach focusing on specific dimensions of job satisfaction. Hence, when investigating job satisfaction from a universal perspective, an employee's overall feeling of satisfaction with his or her work will be emphasised. When studying specific aspects of job satisfaction, the focus will be on employees' attitudes towards various aspects specific to the job itself, such as compensation, promotion, working conditions, number of years of service, demographic factors, and other aspects relevant to the job (see AL-Hussami, 2008; Basset-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Bull, 2005; Diaz-Serrano & Cabral Vieira, 2005; Feldman & Turnley, 2001; Hancer & George, 2003; Kaliski, 2007; Martin, 2007; Mockler, 2002; Mueller & Kim, 2008; Saari & Judge, 2004; Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes & Van Dick, 2007).

From the above exposition, one may conclude that conflicting results have often been reported, depending on the particular researcher's conceptualisation of job satisfaction, as well as the particular research design used. For instance, Scarpello and Campbell (1983:579) argued that an aggregated score of job satisfaction is not equivalent to the sum of the measure of job satisfaction multidimensionally. Other studies have indicated that no statistically significant difference exists between a global measure and a dimension-specific measure of job satisfaction (Van der Walt, 2007:62-64). It would seem that the conflicting findings with regard to job satisfaction have led to much confusion over the concept.

2.4.1.1 Definition of job satisfaction

As mentioned in section 2.4.1, a great number of different definitions of job satisfaction exist. It would seem that the concept has evolved over time, and, as a result, the focus areas within the definitions of job satisfaction have changed. One of the earliest definitions of job satisfaction, which is still valid today, defines job satisfaction as “any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say, ‘I am satisfied with the job’” (Hoppock, 1935:47). One inference that can be drawn from this definition is that an employee's satisfaction with their job is influenced by many external factors. Three decades later, Vroom (1964:99) conceptualised job satisfaction as “affective orientations on the part of individuals toward work roles which they are presently occupying”. This definition clearly shows a shifted focus, from a mere experience of a job, to a more encompassing approach, which takes into consideration a person's *work* experiences.

Locke (1976:1300) defines job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience”. In terms of this definition, Locke (1976:1302) made reference to the multidimensional nature of job satisfaction, stating that job satisfaction includes aspects such as work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, the company, and management. Later, Locke and Henne (1986:5) defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the achievement of one’s job values in the work situation”. This clearly shows that more emphasis was now placed on value congruence, which shows the importance that the individual and the organisation have compatible values.

2.4.1.2 Perspectives on job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been conceptualised as a function of personality characteristics (the dispositional perspective), situational conditions (the situational perspective), and interactions between personality characteristics and situational conditions (the person-environment fit perspective) (Cohrs, Abele & Dette, 2006:363).

2.4.1.2.1 The dispositional perspective

The dispositional perspective of job satisfaction asserts that job satisfaction is associated with an individual’s personality characteristics, thus individual differences (Millet, 2007:44). According to this perspective, an employee enters the workplace with certain dispositions, which will influence their behaviour and

attitudes (Millet, 2007:44). According to Van der Walt and De Klerk (2014b:381), job satisfaction has been found to be related to personality variables such as self-esteem, resilience, tolerance and social trust, and emotional adjustment. Thus, according to this perspective, some individuals will experience more job satisfaction than others, regardless of their job conditions (Cohrs et al., 2006:364).

2.4.1.2.2 The situational perspective

In contemporary organisations, situational changes, such as restructuring and downsizing, might potentially impact on an employee's experience of job satisfaction. Hence, it seems necessary to take cognisance of an individual's job characteristics. It has been suggested that favourable job characteristics should lead to higher levels of job satisfaction (Cohrs et al., 2006:364). One example of a theory supporting the situational perspective is the Job Characteristics Model of Hackman and Oldham (1976). This theory argues that job satisfaction depends on five job characteristics, namely task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, and feedback (Cohrs et al., 2006:364).

According to Gerhart (2005:79), cognisance of dispositional factors may be useful, but situational factors should not be ignored when designing interventions to improve attitudes and behaviour. For this reason, situational factors need to be taken into consideration, in order to gain an in-depth understanding of employee behaviour and attitudes, and thus job satisfaction. This assertion is confirmed by Millet (2007:48), who states that the dispositional and the situational explanations of job satisfaction are not mutually exclusive, but are two related explanations of job satisfaction.

2.4.1.2.3 The person-environment fit perspective

According to the person-environment (P-E) fit perspective, an individual will experience higher levels of job satisfaction when attributes of the person and the situation match, or are congruent (Kristof, as cited in Millet, 2007:49). Robbins et al. (2009:157) states that if there is congruence between an individual and the culture of the organisation, it is likely to result in positive work outcomes, such as commitment, job satisfaction, and retention. Thus, if the working environment fits the personality of the employee, it will lead to the individual experiencing job satisfaction.

2.4.1.3 Theories of motivation

Taking into consideration the different perspectives on job satisfaction, various theories have been formulated to explain the concept of job satisfaction. Currently there are many theories of job satisfaction, and many of them are derived from theories of motivation (Roos, 2005:46). Generally theories of motivation that explain job satisfaction can be categorised as either content theories or process theories.

Content theories of motivation emphasise employees' attempts to satisfy their needs, resulting in employees being motivated and satisfied (Amos, Ristow, Pearse & Ristow, 2009:175). Process theories, on the other hand, are more concerned with how the motivation has taken place. Luthans (2005:246) asserts that the dominant role player in process theories is the concept of expectancy, which is derived from cognitive theory. Thus, process theories attempt to explain

how needs and goals are fulfilled and accepted cognitively (Perry, Phillips & Hutchinson, 2006:7).

2.4.1.3.1 Content theories

The following content theories will be briefly discussed, namely the hierarchy of needs theory, the ERG theory, the two factor theory, and the goal setting theory.

A. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2004:93), Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory can be used to identify factors affecting job satisfaction. In this hierarchy of needs theory, Maslow (1954) identified five distinct levels of individual needs, namely physiological, safety, social, self-esteem and self-actualisation needs. According to this theory, an individual cannot proceed to a higher level in the needs hierarchy until their current recognised need has been completely satisfied (Maslow, 1954:5).

According to Maslow's (1954) theory, as cited in Louw and Edwards (1998:423), an individual's physiological needs are basic natural things that human beings need in order to survive, such as shelter, food, water, and clothing. These needs must be satisfied first before an individual can move on to the next level in the needs hierarchy, which is the need for safety. Safety needs consist of the need for security, protection, and stability in an individual's everyday personal and physical events. When this need is satisfied, the following need will emerge, which is referred to as social needs. Social needs involve the need for love,

affection, and a sense of belonging in relationships with others. Daft (1997:51) describes social needs as the need for an employee to be satisfied within the workplace, through participation with co-workers and managers, and outside the workplace, through interactions with friends and family. Social needs may be regarded as an individual's need to be socially accepted inside and outside the workplace.

When an individual's social needs have been satisfied, the next level of needs becomes dominant, which are self-esteem needs. Robbins (2005:24) asserts that self-esteem needs include an individual's need for status, recognition, and achievement, as well as the need to have a good self-image. The highest level of needs in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs is the need for self-actualisation. According to Daft (1997:51), the need for self-actualisation refers to an individual's attempt to attain self-fulfilment. To help employees achieve self-actualisation, organisations can introduce initiatives such as opportunities to be creative, development opportunities, as well as challenging work assignments.

Although Maslow's (1954) theory has been criticised and refined, it remains a useful theory for managers in an organisation. One important factor that organisational leaders need to acknowledge is that different people have different needs. It also seems important that organisational leaders should be aware of the human capital that is employed by them, in order to manage it effectively. For example, if a supervisor knows that an employee has a dominant need for self-esteem, such an employee can be rewarded publicly by means of a vote of thanks at a staff meeting.

B. Alderfer's ERG theory

Clayton Alderfer (1969) developed the ERG theory in order to address some of the shortcomings of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory. "ERG" refers to three classes of needs, namely existence needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs. Alderfer's (1969) theory combined the five needs of Maslow's (1954) theory into three classes of needs; physiological and safety needs were combined and called existence needs, social needs were called relatedness needs, and esteem and self-actualisation needs were combined and called growth needs (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004:94).

The main differences between Maslow's (1954) and Alderfer's (1969) theories are the number of needs identified, as well as Alderfer's (1969) argument that a lower-level need does not need to be satisfied before an individual can proceed to the next level of need, or a higher level of motivation. The ERG theory supports a frustration-regression process, which implies that when a person is frustrated because they are no longer satisfied by a higher-order need, they can seek to retreat to a lower-level need, and thereby increase the satisfaction that such a need provides. The ERG theory also recognises that an individual can have more than one dominant need at any given time.

C. Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg (1966) constructed a two-dimensional paradigm of factors that affect people's attitudes about work (Loiseau, 2011:1-8). According to this theory, work-related factors that influence employees' motivation may be categorised as hygiene factors (extrinsic factors) and motivators (intrinsic factors). Hygiene factors include factors such as company policy, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and an employee's salary.

According to Herzberg's (1966) theory, the absence of hygiene factors can create job dissatisfaction, but the presence of these factors does not necessarily motivate or create satisfaction (Loiseau, 2011:1-8). Motivators include job-related aspects such as growth, responsibility, recognition, challenge, and variety. Thus, an employee will only be motivated and experience job satisfaction if both hygiene factors and motivators are present. However, although Herzberg's (1966) theory offers a valid explanation of motivation, organisations need to take individual differences into consideration. For example, an employee can experience job satisfaction on account of relationships they have established with their co-workers, even though their work may not necessarily be challenging.

2.4.1.3.2 Process theories

Two process theories of job satisfaction will be discussed, namely the Range of Affect Theory, and the Equity Theory.

A. The Range of Affect Theory

The Range of Affect Theory was developed by Locke (1976:1316), and it highlights the discrepancy between what an employee requires from a job and what they receive from their job. Another important aspect highlighted is how much an employee values a certain facet of their work; because of individual differences, not all facets are deemed equally important. For example, if an employee values independence, and a position allows for the incumbent to act independently, such expectations will be met. This, in turn, will have a positive impact on the employee's job satisfaction, in contrast to a case where the person does not value this particular work facet. On the other hand, when an employee's expectations are not met, this will have a negative impact on the experience of job satisfaction. However, an employee's job satisfaction will not be negatively affected if the employee does not value that particular work facet.

B. The Equity Theory

The Equity Theory was developed by John Stacey Adams (1963) in the early 1960s. According to his research findings, employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs they bring to a job and the outcomes they receive from the job and the perceived inputs and outcomes of others (Adams, 1965:339). An employee will then form a perception concerning the fairness of the distribution of resources. If a perception of fairness is formed, it will motivate the employee, which will contribute to the experience of job satisfaction. Thus, the perception of equity in the workplace is based on the ratio of inputs to outcomes.

The inputs that an employee brings to a job include skills, experience, and knowledge, and outputs include aspects such as being promoted, receiving a fair salary, receiving benefits, and establishing good work relations. Thus, if an employee perceives that their inputs outweigh the outputs, they will strive to correct this imbalance by applying for a promotion or a salary increase, in order to establish equilibrium. However, if attempts to attain equilibrium fail, the employee could become demotivated and dissatisfied with their work, and could eventually decide to leave the organisation.

From the above exposition of the different content theories and process theories, one may conclude that all the theories are useful and will assist organisations to develop a comprehensive understanding of work motivation and job satisfaction. However, it is important that organisations understand that individual differences exist among employees, and that provision should be made for this.

2.4.1.4 Extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction

In later years, researchers divided the factors that influence job satisfaction into two categories, namely intrinsic factors, and extrinsic factors. Basset-Jones and Lloyd (2005:929) define extrinsic factors in job satisfaction as “non-job related variables which cause job dissatisfaction”. Extrinsic job satisfaction refers to how satisfied an employee is with aspects that have little to do with the job tasks or content of the work itself, such as physical working conditions, colleagues, supervisors, and remuneration. Intrinsic job satisfaction refers to the individual’s satisfaction with the job itself, and includes factors such as autonomy, recognition, responsibility, skill or ability utilisation, achievement, and variety (Mafini et al., 2013:14).

2.4.1.5 Outcomes of job satisfaction

The body of literature indicates that various job-related elements are unconditionally related to productivity, profitability, and satisfaction (Dawal, Taha & Ismail, 2009:2; Mafini et al., 2013:15). According to Tummers, Landeweerd and Van Merode (2002:186), stress, burnout, and physical exhaustion are linked to job dissatisfaction, which, in turn, can also lead to high levels of absenteeism. According to Wegge et al. (2007:83), job satisfaction can be used as a forecaster of work behaviours such as absenteeism. The association between job satisfaction and absenteeism has also been confirmed in research studies by Frazer (2001:2) and Yee, Yeang and Cheng (2008:652), among others.

Mafini et al. (2013:15) established a relationship between job satisfaction and performance, although a satisfied worker is not necessarily a productive worker. Job satisfaction has also been found to be related to other work-related attitudes, such as organisational citizenship behaviour (Yoon & Suh, 2003:599), organisational commitment (Agarwal & Ferrat, 2001:59), and job involvement (Brown, 1996:244; Mafini et al., 2013:12).

2.4.1.6 Job satisfaction and workplace spirituality

Both personal and workplace spirituality and their relationship to job satisfaction have been investigated before. In a study by Van der Walt (2007:v), a positive correlation was reported between organisational spirituality and job satisfaction, and a weak negative relationship was reported between personal spirituality and job satisfaction for a South African sample. Globally, the association between spirituality and job satisfaction has also been confirmed. Pawar (2009:776) found

a strong positive relationship between personal spirituality and job satisfaction, while Noor and Arif (2011:512) indicated that spirituality plays a pivotal role in employees' job satisfaction. However, the majority of research studies investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and spirituality have focused on personal spirituality. Although previous studies have established a positive relationship between job satisfaction and workplace spirituality, it seems that more studies are needed, to expand the body of knowledge with regard to workplace spirituality and job satisfaction.

2.4.2 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is deemed an important work-related attitude, and it has been studied extensively in the field of industrial and organisational psychology (Clinton-Baker, 2013:51; Joo & Park, 2010:482; Somers, 2009:75). The rationale behind the seeming importance of the concept of organisational commitment originates from its prediction of pivotal organisational outcomes, such as turnover, job performance, and organisational citizenship behaviour (Kell & Motowidlo, 2012:214). Previous studies have found correlations between organisational commitment and other work-related attitudes and behaviours (Meyer & Maltin, 2010:334; Suliman & Iles, 2000:79).

2.4.2.1 Definitions of organisational commitment

Several definitions of organisational commitment can be found in the literature. In earlier years, Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979:226) suggested that organisational commitment consists of three major components, and they defined the concept as “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation”. In later years, Ferris and Aranya (1983:87) defined organisational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation as well as the willingness to exert effort and remain in the organisation”.

Bateman and Strasser (1984:95) described organisational commitment as “multidimensional in nature, involving an employee’s loyalty to the organisation, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, degree of goal and value congruency with the organisation, and desire to maintain membership”. Martin and Roodt (2008:24) asserted that “despite the lack of consensus on various definitions, conceptualisations and measurements, a common theme is shared across all these deviations, namely that organisational commitment is considered to be a bond or linkage of the individual to the organisation”.

In the light of the above definitions of organisational commitment, one may conclude that an employee that experiences organisational commitment would theoretically form a strong emotional or psychological attachment with the organisation, which should lead to the employee internalising the organisation’s goals and values, if these goals and values are in line with the employee’s personal goals and values. This goal acceptance and congruence would

potentially motivate employees to exert effort in order for the organisation to reach its goals. Furthermore, the employee's emotional attachment to the organisation would also cause the employee to desire to have a long-term affiliation with the organisation. Thus, it seems that in order for organisations to be effective, it is essential for employees to have this work-related attitude.

2.4.2.2 Approaches to organisational commitment

Organisational commitment can be discussed from two different approaches, namely a behavioural approach, and an attitudinal approach. From a behavioural perspective, commitment is based on an employee's past behaviour that attaches the employee to the organisation (Salancik & Staw, as cited in Loong & Wei, 2009:149). The attitudinal approach refers to commitment as an employee's identification with the organisation's values and goals, as well as his or her desire to maintain organisational membership (Porter et al., as cited in Loong & Wei, 2009:149). Thus, the attitudinal approach includes an exchange or transactional relationship, during which individuals attach themselves to a particular organisation, in exchange for certain organisational rewards or payments (Mowday et al., as cited in Clinton-Baker, 2013:54).

The behavioural approach is based on the work of Becker (1960:32), who states that "organisational commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity". This implies that individuals will remain committed to the organisation because of the money, seniority, pension, etc. (that is, the side bets) that they receive, rather than the conditions they experience (Clinton-Baker, 2013:55).

Apart from the above main approaches to organisational commitment, authors have also included alternative approaches to organisational commitment. Kanter, as cited in Loong and Wei (2009:149), asserts that commitment depends on attachment to social relationships within the organisation. Martin and Roodt (2008:25) focus on a motivational approach to organisational commitment, referring to commitment as a cognitive predisposition. This shows that the approach to studying organisational commitment may vary from researcher to researcher. However, the approaches discussed above all refer to at least one of the following dimensions of organisational commitment, namely the cost of leaving the organisation, the obligation to stay with the organisation, and the feeling that one should stay with the organisation (Loong & Wei, 2009:149).

2.4.2.3 The components of organisational commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991:61) proposed a comprehensive model of organisational commitment that goes beyond the traditional view of distinguishing mainly between attitudinal and behavioural commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991:61) proposed a three-component model of organisational commitment, which is regarded as the dominant model in organisational commitment research (Clinton-Baker, 2013:59; Nazari & Emami, 2012:485-486). According to this model, organisational commitment is a psychological state that binds the employee to the organisation, and reduces the employee's intent to leave the organisation (Clinton-Barker, 2013:54; Meyer & Allen, 1991:67). This model proposes that organisational commitment consists of three components, namely affective commitment, which reflects a desire, continuance commitment, which reflects a need, and normative commitment, which reflects an obligation.

2.4.2.3.1 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment has been researched since the 1960s. Beck, as cited in Meyer and Allen (1984:372), developed a Side Bet Theory, which Meyer and Allen (1984:372) referred to as continuance commitment, and it refers to the opportunity and cost associated with leaving the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001:301). According to this theory, employees will remain in an organisation because they are engaged in consistent lines of activity (that is, employment, or maintaining membership) as a result of side bets, which will be lost if the activity is discontinued. These side bets include aspects which are important to employees in the workplace, such as pension fund contributions, medical aid benefits, etc., which will be lost if the employee decides to leave the organisation. Thus, the employee will be committed to the organisation because they perceive that what has been invested in the organisation will be lost or will be worthless if the employee intends to leave the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1984:372).

The continuance component of organisational commitment is based on the economic rationale approach, which indicates the costs and benefits associated with organisational membership (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990:710). Thus, if there are high unemployment rates in the labour market (which would mean a lack of alternative positions), and an employee has made a significant contribution to a pension fund (loss of which could be perceived by the employee as a loss), the employee will be committed to the organisation because he needs to be. Clearly, continuance commitment does not include an affective attachment to the organisation, which is the main distinguishing feature between this type of commitment and affective commitment.

2.4.2.3.2 Affective commitment

While continuance commitment refers to employees' commitment to an organisation based on need, not desire (thus continuance commitment can be seen as the cognitive facet of a work-related attitude), affective commitment entails employees' commitment based on choice. The concept of affective commitment was originally researched by Porter and his associates (Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974). Affective commitment is defined as "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1997:11). Clinton-Baker (2013:64) indicated that affective commitment is the most desired form of commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991:64) suggest that affective commitment is characterised by three factors, namely the acceptance of an organisation's values, a willingness to exert effort, and a desire to maintain organisational membership.

Bagram (2003:13) maintains that affective commitment develops when employees are able to meet their expectations and fulfil their needs within the organisation. This clearly highlights the significance of goal congruence between the employee and the organisation, thus person-job fit (Clinton-Baker, 2013:65). Therefore, one may argue that an employee will desire to maintain membership with an organisation because the organisation's goals are in line with the employee's personal goals.

2.4.2.3.3 Normative commitment

Normative commitment refers to an employee's commitment to an organisation based on an obligation or responsibility towards the organisation. According to Laka-Mathebula (2004:31), this component of organisational commitment has often been overlooked by researchers, and it has only been included in a paucity of studies investigating organisational commitment. One may argue that this type of commitment is less prevalent in the current organisational context, due to downsizing, performance-based contracts, which are the norm in senior professions, and the increasing phenomenon of employees not making a lifetime commitment to organisations.

Weiner (1982:418) described normative commitment as a "generalized value of loyalty and duty". This view was supported by Meyer and Allen (1991:67), who suggested that normative commitment is exhibited by employees since they feel it is morally the correct thing to do. This clearly indicates that normative commitment has ethical undertones, prompting employees to making the "right moral decision" to be committed to an organisation, and to remain with a specific organisation. Thus, normative commitment is not necessarily developed after organisational entry, but can also be a deep-seated value within an individual before organisational entry.

Different explanations have been offered to explain the causes of normative commitment. Some authors are of the opinion that normative commitment is learned from one's culture or socialisation during early childhood in a particular society, while others argue that normative commitment is the result of an effective socialisation process to which the employee was exposed to in the organisation (Clinton-Baker, 2013:67). Another explanation is that an employee

might feel a reciprocated commitment towards an organisation because of receiving a benefit, such as the organisation investing in the employee by offering training and such, or because of the manner in which they are treated (Jex, cited in Toga, 2011:60).

2.4.2.4 Outcomes of organisational commitment

Over the past three decades, numerous research studies have investigated the outcomes of organisational commitment, which have been attributed to high levels of commitment leading to other favourable organisational outcomes (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006:39). As far as other work-related attitudes are concerned, the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction is well documented. Shivangulula (2009:64) reports a positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Organisational commitment has also been studied in relation to the different aspects of job satisfaction, and organisational commitment was found to be positively related to all the aspects measured, namely job security, supervision, training opportunities, and work itself (Chughtai & Zafar, 2006:53). In addition, Colakoglu, Culha and Atay (2010:125) report that job satisfaction had a significant positive effect on affective, normative and continuance commitment.

In a study by Ho, Oldenburg, Day and Sun (2012:68), a positive relationship was noted between organisational commitment and job involvement. The aforementioned study also reported a positive correlation between organisational commitment and work values (Ho et al., 2012:67). Riketta (cited in Chughtai & Zafar, 2006:39), conducted a meta-analysis and found organisational commitment to be positively related to organisational citizenship behaviours. Organisational commitment has also been found to be positively related to

perceived organisational support (Darolia, Kumari & Darolia, 2010:72). Furthermore, organisational commitment has been found to be positively related to work engagement (Cho, Laschinger & Wong, 2006:54).

2.4.2.5 Organisational commitment and workplace spirituality

Organisational commitment and its relationship with workplace spirituality has been investigated on occasion. Nasina and Doris (2011:218) indicate that when employees find meaning in their activities, and feel involved in a spiritual-based organisation, they become healthier and happier, and will act in a committed way. Rego and Cunha (2008:60), commenting on the relationship between the components of organisational commitment and workplace spirituality, indicate a strong positive correlation between workplace spirituality and normative as well as affective commitment. However, a strong negative correlation was found between workplace spirituality and continuance commitment (Rego & Cunha, 2008:60). The relationship between organisational commitment and workplace spirituality has been studied in countries such as the United States (see Milliman et al., 2003), Portugal (see Rego & Cunha, 2008), Brazil (see Rego, Cunha & Daniel, 2010), and Thailand (see Petchsawang & Duchon, 2009). In the light of the above, one would expect the relationship between organisational commitment and workplace spirituality to be confirmed in the South African context.

2.4.3 Job involvement

Although some may argue that the constructs of job involvement and organisational commitment are similar, or related, clear differences exist between these two work attitudes (Ho et al., 2012:65). In essence, organisational commitment refers to an employee's attachment to the organisation, as such, while job involvement refers specifically to an individual's job. According to Latha (2012:2), job involvement is important from both an employee perspective and an organisational perspective. From an employee perspective, job involvement is considered a key factor that could lead to personal growth, satisfaction, and goal-directed behaviour within the workplace, and from an organisational perspective, job involvement has been considered essential in ensuring employee motivation, which, in turn, is a fundamental factor in facilitating a competitive advantage (Latha, 2012:2).

2.4.3.1 The definition of job involvement

The definition and measurement of job involvement has caused a great deal of controversy (Kaplan, Boshoff & Kellerman, 1991:4). One of the earlier definitions of job involvement states that job involvement refers to the extent to which employees identify psychologically with their work, or the importance of their occupation to their self-image, and the degree to which their work performance affects their self-esteem (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965:24). This definition of job involvement implies that in order for an employee to experience job involvement, the individual needs to perceive work as a key factor in their self-identity. This implication is confirmed by Lawler and Hall (1970:305), who define job involvement as the degree to which an individual perceives the work situation to

be an important and central part of their life and identity, due to the opportunity it affords them to satisfy important needs. This definition extends the previous definition, and indicates a link between job involvement and job satisfaction. However, it remains uncertain whether job involvement precedes job satisfaction, or the other way round.

McKelvey and Sekaran (1977:303) define job involvement as “the merging of a person’s ego identity with his or her job”. It seems that when an individual has achieved this integration, they will become cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with their present job (Paullay, Alliger & Stone-Romero, 1994:225). The previous definition suggests that when an individual experiences job involvement, they will show emotional or mental identification with their job (Li & Long, 1999:54). According to Kahn (1992:83), involved employees are connected to others in the workplace. This sense of connectedness is also a dimension of spirituality, thus theoretically linking job involvement and spirituality.

According to Kaplan et al. (1991:4), Kanungo (1982) has produced one of the most consistent definitions and measurements of job involvement. Kanungo (1982:342) defines job involvement as an individual’s psychological identification with their job. He further distinguishes between work involvement and job involvement, stating that job involvement refers to involvement in a specific job, while work involvement refers to a person’s involvement in their work (Kanungo, 1982:342). Work involvement seems to be related to work centrality, and a person can only experience work involvement if they value their work and see it as an extension of their life. For an employee to experience job involvement, the job must satisfy their needs, and the individual must perceive the job as important, and must psychologically identify with it.

2.4.3.2 Dimensions of job involvement

Four important dimensions of job involvement have been identified, namely how a person responds to their work, their expression of job involvement, an employee's sense of duty and feelings about unfinished work, and absenteeism (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965:24-33). Govender and Parumasur (2010:239) assert that employees do not express job involvement in the same way, and that employees' expression of job involvement depends on the level of job involvement that they experience.

2.4.3.3 Perspectives of job involvement

There would seem to be a paucity of contemporary theories and perspectives regarding the concept of job involvement (Govender & Parumasur, 2010:239). Van der Westhuizen (2006:60-64) discussed job involvement in terms of the dispositional perspective, the situational perspective, and the interaction between these two approaches. According to Govender and Parumasur (2010:239), researchers have often debated whether job involvement is the result of individual and personality differences (see, for instance, Dubin, 1956; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965), situational factors (see Bass, 1965; Vroom, 1962), or an individual-situation interaction (see Lawler & Hall, 1970; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Muchinsky, 1990).

2.4.3.3.1 The dispositional perspective of job involvement

According to the dispositional perspective of job involvement, job involvement will be determined by individual characteristics related to the employee. Thus, some employees will experience job involvement because of an innate disposition, and not due to the situation that they find themselves in. In this regard, job involvement has been found to be related to age (see, for instance, Chuang, 2001; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977), education (see Abboushi, 1990; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977), income (see Chen, Wu, Tsai & Chen, 1998; Tang, 2000), occupational position (see Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Tang, 2000), gender, tenure, need strength, locus of control, and values (see Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Thus, according to the dispositional perspective, job involvement results from the socialisation process, and is unlikely to change in response to other organisational factors (Carmeli, 2005:458).

2.4.3.3.2 The situational perspective of job involvement

From the situational perspective, certain situational variables have been shown to be related to job involvement. These variables are challenging work (see, for instance, Hall, Goodale, Rabinowitz & Morgan, 1978), task autonomy (see Lorence & Mortimer, 1985; Brown, 1996), pressure for quality work (see Lawler & Hall, 1970), task significance, task identity, skill variety, and feedback and supervisory behaviours, such as leader consideration, participative decision making, and amount of communication (see Brown, 1996:236). The situational perspective suggests that job involvement can be influenced by experiences and psychological reactions to a person's work (Carmeli, 2005:458).

2.4.3.3.3 The interactive perspective of job involvement

The interactive perspective of job involvement explains job involvement as a function of the interaction between personal characteristics and the situation (or the working environment). According to Kanungo (1982:341), the interaction between individual differences and situational factors influences job involvement. Thus, personality and situational factors jointly influence a person's level of job involvement. Ho (2006:35) postulates that if personality characteristics and situational factors are in congruence, an employee will develop higher levels of job involvement.

2.4.3.4 Outcomes of job involvement

Job involvement is a key factor influencing important individual and organisational outcomes (Lawler, 1986:692). From an organisational perspective, job involvement has been considered instrumental in employee motivation, a fundamental factor in establishing a competitive edge in business markets (Latha, 2012:2). Brown (1996:254) maintains that job involvement has positive implications for the organisation, as it influences the degree to which an employee will support the organisation, and this, in turn, will result in an increase or a decrease in productivity.

From an individual perspective, job involvement is regarded as a key factor that may lead to personal growth and satisfaction within the workplace, as well as goal-directed behaviour (Latha, 2012:2). Job involvement has been linked to individual outcomes such as absenteeism (see, for instance, Blau, 1986; Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Shore, Newton & Thornton, 1990) and turnover intentions (see

Baba & Jamal, 1991; Huselid & Day, 1991; Ingram, Lee & Lucas, 1991; Shore et al., 1990). According to Mudrack (2004:492), a person that is involved in their job is a person that might feel morally obligated to do their job, in that they will do everything in their ability to overcome any obstacle that comes their way. Wiener, Muczyk and Gable (1987:457) state that when a person is involved in their job, it has some kind of influence on the person's well-being.

Because employees with a high degree of job involvement are more likely to regard work as central to their self-concept (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1995:1), they are also more likely to increase their self-respect through successful job performance (Burke, 1991:836) and displaying organisationally beneficial behaviours (Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin & Lord, 2002:93). Because this type of job identification can satisfy personal psychological needs (Brown, 1996:255), many scholars have considered job involvement as an important predictor of employee attitudes and performance (see, for instance Pfeffer, 1994). Job satisfaction, in particular, has been found to correlate with job involvement (see, for instance, Baba & Jamal, 1991; Elloy, Everett & Flynn, 1991; Gerpott, 1990; Mathieu & Farr, 1991; Paterson & O'Driscoll, 1990; Shore et al., 1990).

2.4.3.5 Job involvement and workplace spirituality

Limited attention has been given to the relationship between job involvement and workplace spirituality. In a study by Crawford et al. (2009), workplace spirituality and various employee variables in the lodging hospitality industry were investigated. The findings of the study indicated that a significant relationship exists between job involvement and workplace spirituality (Crawford et al., 2009:64). Word (2012:147) also investigated the link between workplace spirituality and job involvement, and reported that workplace spirituality has the

potential to increase employees' job involvement. As far as the researcher could establish, no studies have investigated the relationship between job involvement and workplace spirituality for a South African sample.

2.4.4 Perceived organisational support

Perceived organisational support (POS) has not received the same amount of attention as the other work-related attitudes that have been discussed, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and job involvement. However, the construct has been defined, and important relationships have been established between POS and various organisational outcomes. Although POS is in some ways similar to other work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment, it is generally agreed that POS is distinct from these constructs (Herington & Weaven, 2009:5). It seems that the construct of POS emerged when organisations started questioning whether employees' organisational commitment is based on the organisation's commitment towards them.

2.4.4.1 Theoretical perspectives of POS

POS can be explained from the Social Exchange Theory (SET) organisational support theory. SET focuses on understanding employee motivation and its relationship with the achievement of organisational goals (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003:491). The theory regards employment as the trade of effort and loyalty for tangible benefits and social rewards (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002:698). With specific reference to POS, this implies that an exchange occurs

between the employee's perception of the amount of support they receive from the organisation and the contribution and commitment the individual is prepared to make towards the organisation.

The exchange relationship is regarded as reciprocal in nature, implying that if one party is treated well, this favourable treatment will be returned, which will lead to positive outcomes for both parties. Thus, if an employee perceives that the organisation cares about them, they will be loyal and committed to the organisation, which may lead to outcomes such as increased productivity (an organisational outcome) and an increase in remuneration (an individual outcome).

In line with organisational support theory (OST), POS is encouraged by employees' tendencies to attribute humanlike characteristics to an organisation (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986:501). It is further stated that this characterisation of the organisation is maintained by an organisation's legal, moral and financial responsibility for the actions of its agents, and it is reinforced by organisational policies, norms and culture that provide continuity and prescribe role behaviours (Levinson, as cited in Dehn, 2010:19). This shows that the actions of organisational agents (such as managers) may be interpreted as the intentions of an organisation. This, in turn, will create an impression with an employee of whether the organisation values their contribution, and cares about their well-being.

Organisational support theory addresses psychological procedures that form the fundamental outcomes of POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002:699). One particular exchange procedure involves the establishment of a felt obligation to care about the organisation's welfare, and to help the organisation reach its objectives. Another procedure involves the caring, approval, and respect which

are brought about by POS because socio-emotional needs are fulfilled, leading workers to incorporate organisational membership and role status into their social identity. In addition, POS strengthens employees' beliefs that the organisation recognises and rewards increased performance (that is, performance-reward expectancies). It is important that these outcomes should be satisfactory to both employees and the organisation (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002:699). Furthermore, outcomes that are given by discretionary choice are valued more than forced outcomes, for example a voluntary salary increase, rather than one negotiated by a trade union.

2.4.4.2 The definition of POS

POS can be defined as employees' perceptions concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contribution, or continued membership, and cares about their well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002:702; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001:832). It has been asserted that POS influences how employees are treated within an organisation, which, in turn, influences employees' interpretation of organisational motives underlying this treatment (Dehn, 2010:19).

POS seems to be especially important to supervisors and managers, who should not only be available to employees, but should also establish an appropriate relationship with them. If an employee perceives that a supervisor or manager is available, that an appropriate relationship has been established, and that they are appreciated by their supervisors, they will perceive the organisation as supportive (Rothmann & Rothmann, 2006:14).

2.4.4.3 The antecedents of POS

It is commonly agreed that three general forms of perceived favourable treatment from the organisation will increase POS, namely fairness, supervisor support, and organisational rewards and job conditions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002:699).

2.4.4.3.1 Fairness of treatment

When considering fairness of treatment, it is important to consider the four types of justice, namely procedural, distributive, interpersonal and informational justice. Distributive justice refers to fairness in the distribution of outcomes, such as remuneration, while procedural justice refers to the fairness of the procedures used to determine the distribution of outcomes or rewards (Greenberg, as cited in Ling, 2013:12). Interpersonal justice relates to the quality of interpersonal treatment (for example dignity and respect) received from the organisational agents that establish the process of distributing outcomes, while informational justice entails explanation of the reasons behind applying procedures in a particular manner (Colquitt, as cited in Ilie, 2012:15). Thus, if an employee perceives that there is fairness, and that they are being treated equally, it will enhance the individual's perception of organisational support.

2.4.4.3.2 Supervisor support

The working relationship that emerges between an employee and their supervisor is often referred to as a “leader-member exchange relationship” (Liu, 2004:5). Employees develop general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being, which is referred to as “perceived supervisory support” (Kottke & Sharafinski, as cited in Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002:700). Because supervisors are regarded as representatives of the organisation, the way they treat employees contributes to employees’ perception of the support that they receive from the organisation. Ilie (2012:9) asserts that in a high-quality leader-member exchange relationship, employees receive more resources from the leader, and tend to reciprocate by performing their jobs better. At an emotional level, a high-quality leader-member exchange relationship will be characterised by feelings of mutual trust, respect, and shared values (Liden & Maslyn, as cited in Ilie, 2012:9).

2.4.4.3.3 Organisational rewards and job conditions

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002:700) assert that early research conducted by Greenberg (1990) established a positive relationship between rewards (such as recognition, pay, and promotions) and employee contribution. Presence of organisational rewards and favourable job conditions may be indicative of organisational support. Eisenberger et al., as cited in Worley, Fuqua and Hellman (2009:112), assert that “organisational support is a global belief that the organisation recognises and values employees’ contributions as reflected in tangible resources such as pay, rank, job enrichment, rewards and other forms of

compensational benefits, and that the organisation is concerned about the socio-emotional wellbeing of its employees”.

2.4.4.4 The outcomes of POS

The findings of previous research have established interesting associations between POS and various work-related attitudes and outcomes. POS has been found to be related to work-related attitudes and behaviours such as organisational commitment (specifically affective commitment), organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), job performance, and turnover intention (Liu, 2004:7). These outcomes associated with POS are beneficial to the organisation (see, for instance, Herington & Weaven, 2009:2), while other outcomes have been found to be beneficial to the employee, such as job satisfaction, well-being, and reduced stress (e.g. Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch, 1997).

2.4.4.5 POS and workplace spirituality

Not much research has been conducted into the relationship between POS and workplace spirituality. Studies by Fasolo and Kraimer et al., as cited in Chinomona (2011:10004), assert that supportive organisations are those that take pride in their employees' welfare, compensating them fairly, and looking after their needs. Such supportive organisational environments are likely to stimulate a positive perception of fairness among their employees (Chinomona, 2011:10004), which, in turn, will increase workplace spirituality.

2.4.5 Work engagement

The concept of work engagement is a fairly new area of interest (Rice, 2009:2), which emerged from research on burnout, in an attempt to understand burnout within the spectrum of employee well-being, ranging from burnout to work engagement, which is seen by some researchers as employee well-being (Schaufeli, Taris & Van Rhenen, 2008:176). Currently two different perspectives are held regarding work engagement. One of these perspectives regards work engagement as the direct opposite of burnout, while the other perspective regards work engagement and burnout as independent but related concepts (Kassing, Piemante, Goman & Mitchell, 2012:240; Storm & Rothmann, 2003:63). Thus, an employee may have low levels of dedication to their work, but will not necessarily experience burnout.

2.4.5.1 The definition of work engagement

Work engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour (i.e. high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence also in the face of difficulties), dedication (i.e. a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge) and absorption (i.e. being fully concentrated and engrossed by one’s work whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work)” (Schaufeli et al., 2008:176). Therefore, work engagement is often referred to as a “passion for work” (Truss, Soane, Edwards, Wisdom, Croll & Burnett, 2006:50).

2.4.5.2 The dimensions of work engagement

In line with Schaufeli et al.'s (2008:176) definition of work engagement, given above, work engagement consists of three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication, and absorption. Vigour refers to high mental resilience and high levels of energy in the workplace, clear and conscientious efforts to devote oneself to one's work, and persistence when facing difficulties (Kassing et al., 2012:241). Goosen (2011:17) asserts that employees with high levels of vigour will execute their work with energy, zest, and stamina, while those with low levels of vigour will have less energy, zest, and stamina when working. Vigour may be regarded as the opposite of exhaustion, which is a dimension of burnout (Kassing et al., 2012:241).

As is indicated in the above definition, dedication is characterised by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Goosen (2011:17) suggests that employees that have high levels of dedication strongly identify with their work because they experience it as meaningful, inspirational, and challenging, which creates in them a sense of pride and enthusiasm for their work. Dedication may be regarded as the opposite of cynicism, which is a dimension of burnout (Kassing et al., 2012:241).

Full concentration, and being engrossed in one's work to the extent that an employee finds it difficult to detach themselves from their work, is referred to as absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2008:176). Unlike the other two dimensions of work engagement, namely vigour and dedication, which are viewed as opposite to the dimensions of burnout, absorption is not regarded as opposite to a lack of professional efficacy (a dimension of burnout). Goosen (2011:17) asserts that a

person with high levels of absorption will feel happily engrossed in and immersed in their work, and they will find it difficult to detach themselves from it.

2.4.5.3 The antecedents of work engagement

According to Bakker, Albrechts & Leiter (2011:6), there are two main antecedents of work engagement, namely job resources and personal resources. Personal resources are defined as “an individual’s positive psychological state of development, characterized by (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed in challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering towards goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success” (Bakker et al., 2011:7).

Job resources, on the other hand, refer to supervisory support, innovativeness, information, appreciation, and organisational climate (Rice, 2009:5). Sonnetag (2011:33) proposes that a third influence on work engagement is task-related aspects, which concern specific task features.

2.4.5.4 The outcomes of work engagement

Work engagement has been found to be negatively related to the intention to quit, and positively related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Schaufeli et al., 2008:179). In a study by Kassing et al. (2012:239), work engagement was studied in relation to employee dissent (that is, the expression of disagreement or contradictory opinions about organisational policies and practices). Kassing et al.'s (2012:239) findings indicate that expression of dissent is related to work engagement, particularly dissent expressed towards management and co-workers. Calitz (2013:1) asserts that workers that are engaged in their work are likely to perform well and to experience positive health and positive emotions. It has also been suggested that engaged employees are better equipped to address issues in the workplace, such as stress and change (Rice, 2009:2). Furthermore, employees that experience work engagement are more driven, and are key role players in helping to move the organisation forward (Krueger & Killham, as cited in Rice, 2009:2).

2.4.5.5 Concluding remarks on work engagement

Although work engagement has generally been found to have positive outcomes, one needs to consider that employees may become too engaged in their work, and this may have negative outcomes for the individual, as well as for the organisation. Furthermore, it seems that although work engagement can become fairly stable over the long term, it may potentially vary from week to week, day to day, or even hour to hour (Sonnetag, 2011:32).

2.5 CONCLUSION

Chapter 2 presented a literature review of workplace spirituality and various work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, and work engagement. Workplace spirituality is a fairly new field of study, which has gained support from both academics and business leaders. The study of attitudes in the context of the workplace remains an important area of study, because of the effect thereof on work behaviour. Previous studies have established relationships between workplace spirituality and some of the work-related attitudes included in this study. However, most of these studies have been conducted in Western settings, hence the importance of establishing and confirming empirical relationships for a South African sample.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

A literature review was presented in the previous chapter. This chapter provides an explanation of the research methodology used to investigate the relationship between workplace spirituality and the work-related attitudes of job satisfaction, work engagement, organisational commitment, job involvement, perceived organisational support, and work engagement. Topics that will be discussed include the research design of the study, the population and the sampling method used, the measuring instruments employed, and the data-collection method used, to mention a few.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design of this study can be described as a cross-sectional quantitative research design. Cross-sectional research is research that is carried out “at a specific point in time”, over a short period, on “several groups of people”, without repeat measures (Salkind, 2009:249). The benefits of cross-sectional quantitative research are that it is cost-effective, it is quick and easy to conduct, data on all the different variables is collected simultaneously, all the factors under investigation can be measured with ease, various outcomes can be studied, and such research is excellent for descriptive analysis (Salkind, 2009:249).

This study is quantitative in nature. McDaniel and Gates (2001:98) assert that quantitative studies involve data that are subjected to mathematical analysis, where such analysis can reveal statistically significant differences. Leedy and Ormrod (2010:94) explain that “quantitative research involves looking at amounts, or quantities, of one or more variables of interest”. Hence, a quantitative research design was appropriate for the purposes of this research, which are to determine the relationship between the independent variable of workplace spirituality and the dependent variables of certain work-related attitudes.

For the purposes of this study, quantitative data were collected by means of a structured questionnaire consisting of a biographical section and questions related to measures of workplace spirituality, job satisfaction, work engagement, organisational commitment, job involvement, and perceived organisational support.

3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

A population is defined as “a group of potential participants to whom you want to generalize the results of a study” (Salkind, 2009:89). Polit and Hungler (1999:37) define a population as a large collection of individuals or objects that is the main target or focus of a study. Various South African organisations in the Lejweleputswa district were approached to participate in the study. After several of the organisations declined to participate, two organisations were ultimately included in the sample. The rationale for inclusion of the said organisations was their willingness to participate in the study, as well as logistical factors that were conducive to convenient sampling. Thus, the population for this study consisted

of employees working at two different organisations in the Lejweleputswa district of the Free State province in South Africa.

Both organisations were requested to provide the researcher with a list of employees employed by the organisation. Respondents included in the sample frame of each organisation had to meet the minimum requirement of having a Grade 10 qualification. The reason for this was that in order to mindfully complete the questions posed in the questionnaire, and to provide reliable responses, the respondents needed to have an adequate literacy level.

The population of the study consisted of 2,536 employees working at two organisations in the Lejweleputswa district. Due to time and budget constraints, not all the employees working at these two organisations could be included in the study. Hence, a sample was drawn. Salkind (2009:89) defines a sample as a subset of a population, while Brynard and Hanekom (2005:43) define a sample as “a small group of subjects that represent the larger population”. When selecting a sample, two types of sampling methods can be used, namely probability sampling, or non-probability sampling (Brynard & Hanekom, 2005:56). For the purposes of this study, a non-probability sampling technique was used, namely convenience sampling (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:212). Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where participants are selected on the basis of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:212).

Gay and colleagues, as cited in Leedy and Ormrod (2010:213-214), indicate that for a population size of 5,000, a sample of 400 is adequate. Although a sample of 254 would have been adequate in order to conduct statistical analysis and generalise the findings to the larger population, 675 questionnaires were distributed, to make provision for a low response rate, which is often associated with mail surveys.

Babbie (2001:256) indicates that in a mail survey, a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis and reporting, a response rate of 60% is regarded as “good”, and a response rate of 70% is seen as very good. In total, 412 completed questionnaires were returned, which equates to a 61% response rate. Thus, the response rate can be regarded as good. The survey group varied in terms of sociodemographic variables. Information with regard to the sociodemographic variables of the respondents will be given according to the questions that were asked in Section A of the questionnaire (see Appendix A).

Table 3.1 Biographical details of the respondents (N=412)

Variable	Level of the variable	N	%	Cumulative %
Gender	Male	228	55.3	55.3
	Female	184	44.7	100
Race	Black African	363	88.1	88.1
	White	38	9.2	97.3
	Coloured	11	2.7	100
	Indian/Asian	0	0	0
Age	20-39 years	184	44.7	44.7
	40-59 years	221	53.6	98.3
	60+ years	7	1.7	100
Number of years in current job	1-15 years	329	79.9	79.9
	16-30 years	76	18.4	98.3
	31-45 years	7	1.7	100
Total number of years working	1-15 years	138	33.5	33.5
	16-30 years	213	51.7	85.2
	31-45 years	61	14.8	100
Highest academic qualification	Grade 10-11	23	5.6	5.6
	Grade 12	64	15.5	21.1
	Post-matric certificate	84	20.4	41.5
	National diploma/degree	241	58.5	100

As can be seen from Table 3.1, the gender distribution of the sample was almost equal, with 228 (55.3%) males and 184 (44.7%) females. In terms of race, the majority of respondents were black African (n=363, 88.1%), followed by 38 (9.2%) white respondents, and 11 (2.7%) Coloured respondents. The majority of the respondents were in the age group of 40-59 years (n=222, 53.6%), followed by 184 respondents (44.7%) in the age group of 20-39 years, and 7 respondents (1.7%) of 60 years or older.

Most of the respondents had been employed for a period of between 1 and 15 years in their current job (n=329, 79.9%). A significant smaller number of respondents had been employed for between 16 and 30 years in their current job (n=76, 18.4%), and a very small number had been employed for between 31 and 45 years (n=7; 1.7%) in their current job. The variable relating to tenure, or total number of years working, showed that 138 respondents (33.5%) had been working for between 1 and 15 years, 213 respondents (51.7%) had been working for between 16 and 30 years, and 61 respondents (14.8%) had been working for between 31 and 45 years.

With regard to highest academic qualification, 23 respondents (5.6%) indicated that their highest academic qualification was Grade 10 or 11, 64 respondents (15.5%) held a matric certificate, 84 respondents (20.4%) were in possession of a post-matric certificate, and the majority of respondents (n=241, 58.5%) held a national diploma or degree qualification.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The primary objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between workplace spirituality (the independent variable) and the work-related attitudes of job satisfaction, work engagement, organisational commitment, job involvement, and perceived organisational support (the dependent variables). The questionnaires consisted of closed-ended questions with a Likert scale, and respondents were requested to select a response from a list of possible response categories. In the following section, the various measuring instruments used in the study will be discussed.

3.4.1 The Organisational Spiritual Values Scale (OSVS)

Workplace spirituality was measured using the Organisational Spiritual Values Scale (OSVS), which was developed by Kolodinsky et al. (2004:5). The OSVS was designed to measure respondents' perception of the spiritual values that are characteristic of the organisational structure (Kolodinsky et al., 2004:2). It consists of 20 Likert-scale items, with possible response categories ranging from 1 (completely false) to 5 (completely true). The items in the questionnaire consist of statements such as "In this organisation we are encouraged to actively seek a sense of purpose in our lives" and "We are urged to set aside time for personal reflection and growth in this organisation".

Kolodinsky et al. (2008:469) reported an internal consistency reliability estimate of 0.93 for the OSVS. In a South African study, Van der Walt (2007:141) reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.95 for this instrument. This provides support for the assumption that the OSVS can be used unabridged with confidence in the South African context to measure workplace spirituality.

3.4.2 The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

Job satisfaction was measured by means of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), which was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967). The MSQ short form was used, which is a 20-item self-report inventory that can be administered to individuals or groups. It takes approximately 5 minutes to complete, and it measures job satisfaction as well as intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. In a South African study, Van der Walt (2007:145) reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.93 for this instrument, providing justification for the assumption that the MSQ short form can be used unabridged with confidence in the South African context to measure job satisfaction.

3.4.3 The Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ)

Job involvement was measured using the Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ), which was developed by Kanungo (1982). Kanungo (1982:342) distinguishes between job involvement and work involvement, and indicates that job involvement refers to a person's psychological identification with a particular job. The JIQ consists of 10 items, and responses are listed on a six-point Likert-type

scale, with possible response categories ranging from “strongly agree” (1) to “strongly disagree” (6). The items in the questionnaire consist of statements such as “Most of my interests are centred around my job” and “I consider my job to be central to my existence”.

Kanungo (1982:345) reported reliability coefficients of between 0.67 and 0.69 for the JIQ. In a South African study, Van Wyk, Boshoff and Cilliers (2003:63) reported a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.88 for the JIQ. This indicates that the JIQ can be considered an appropriate questionnaire to use to measure job involvement for a South African sample.

3.4.4 The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Organisational commitment was measured by means of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ was developed by Porter and his associates (Mowday et al., 1979:224). This questionnaire consists of 18 items, and responses are listed on a five-point Likert-type scale, with possible response categories ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5). Items in the questionnaire consist of statements such as “I would not leave my organisation right now, because I have a sense of obligation to its people” and “My organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me”. Meyer and Allen (1984:375) report that the OCQ has been widely used in research, and has acceptable psychometric properties. Bull (2005:68) reports that the OCQ has a reliability coefficient ranging from 0.82 to 0.93, with a median value of 0.90. In a South African study by Lumley (2009:145), a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.75 was reported for the OCQ. This provides support for the assumption that the OCQ can be used with confidence in the South African context to measure organisational commitment.

3.4.5 The Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS)

For the purposes of this study, the eight-item Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS) was used. This eight-item scale was developed following the judgement of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002:699) that “because the original scale is uni-dimensional and has high internal reliability, the use of shorter versions does not appear problematic”. The responses are listed on a seven-point Likert-type scale, with possible response categories ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). Worley, Fequa and Hellman (2009:115) reported a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.93 for the eight-item scale.

3.4.6 The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

In order to measure work engagement, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was used. This questionnaire determines three aspects of work engagement, namely vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003:5). The questionnaire consists of 17 questions measured on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“every day”), and includes items such as “I am bursting with energy in my work” and “My job inspires me”. In a South African study by Du Plooy and Roodt (2010:7), the three subscales of the UWES yielded a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.880 (vigour), 0.911 (dedication), and 0.859 (absorption), respectively.

3.5 QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTRATION

It was decided to collect data by using self-administered questionnaires, due to the view that it is an acceptable data-collection method to use when individuals are the unit of analysis of a study. Other reasons that self-administered questionnaires were chosen as the method of data collection include the numerous advantages that this method holds. Some of the advantages associated with this data-collection method are the low costs, respondent freedom, and easily quantifiable results (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:57).

Because of the low response rate associated with self-administered questionnaires, the researcher gave careful consideration to the construction of the questionnaire. When considering the format of the questionnaire, the researcher ensured that the questions were evenly distributed. Furthermore, subsections were used, and questions were presented in the form of a table, which made it easy for the respondents to indicate their answers. Consideration was also given to the ordering of items within the questionnaire, as well as the general appearance of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections, namely Section A, which included a biographical section, and Section B, which included existing questionnaires measuring workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. The questionnaires were included in the order of the following work-related attitudes, namely perceived organisational support, work engagement, job involvement, job satisfaction, workplace spirituality, and organisational commitment. Questionnaires with the same Likert-scale options were grouped together, starting with a seven-point Likert scale, followed by a six-point Likert scale, and ending with a five-point Likert scale. Clear instructions were given to the

respondents for completing the questionnaire. Furthermore, every subsection started with a short overview of the content and purpose of the subsection, so as to ensure that the respondents understood the subsection, and so that they could choose appropriate responses to the questions posed.

An introductory letter was attached to the questionnaire which was sent out to the respondents (see Appendix B). In the introductory letter, the purpose of the research project was explained. The letter also contained the name and logo of the educational institution, the title of the research project, details about the researcher and the supervisor, and their contact details. Respondents were informed that they would be participating voluntarily and anonymously, and that the information would be treated confidentially.

In order to determine whether the questionnaire was adequately constructed and error-free, a pilot study was conducted. Respondents were requested to complete the questionnaire and to provide critical feedback, general comments, and/or advice, in order to ensure that the questionnaire was error-free and understandable to respondents. All questionnaires were returned, and comments were considered. The final questionnaires were distributed to the sample.

Respondents were requested to complete the questionnaire, and to place the completed questionnaire in an envelope which was supplied to them. The envelope was marked "Confidential". The researcher personally collected the questionnaires in the envelopes from the respondents, and placed them in a box. This ensured that the questionnaires were treated confidentially.

3.5.1 Handling of data, and returned questionnaires

The analysis of the responses was planned and directed by the researcher, in collaboration with the study supervisor, and statistical analysis was carried out by an independent research psychologist. Returned questionnaires were coded, and data were captured on an Excel spreadsheet, after which the data were analysed by the independent research psychologist, using SSPS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 2.0).

3.5.2 Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis was performed to determine the frequency, percentages, cumulative frequencies, mean, median, and normality of the distribution. Inferential statistical analysis included a t-test, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), the Pearson product-moment correlation, and multiple regression analysis. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the different scales was not determined, since the unabridged scales, discussed in sections 3.4.1, 3.4.2 and 3.4.4, were used.

In order to explore a possible relationship among the variables measured, a Pearson product-moment correlation was performed. The objective of the correlation analysis was to determine whether a relationship exists between workplace spirituality and the work-related attitudes measured, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, work engagement, and perceived organisational support (POS). A multiple regression analysis was used after a significant correlation had been established, in order to determine the

“appropriate linear model to predict dependent variables” (Mertler & Vanatta, 2002:14).

In order to determine whether the sociodemographic variables had statistically significant influences on the continuous variables (that is, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, work engagement, and POS), parametric statistical tests were used. A t-test was performed, with the objective to test the differences between the means of two independent samples or groups, due to the fact that the variable of gender consists of only two levels. A MANOVA was used to determine the statistical influence of variables with three or more levels.

3.5.3 Ethical considerations

Ethical clearance was firstly obtained from the faculty research committee of the higher education institution concerned, after which the two participating organisations gave permission for the research project to be conducted. In order to ensure that respondents gave informed consent to participate in the study, an introductory letter was attached to the questionnaire (see Appendix B). In the introductory letter, the objective and aims of the research were clearly stated. In addition, it was indicated that participation was voluntary, and that participants could withdraw at any point during the study. Furthermore, respondents were assured that their information would be kept confidential, and that they could complete the questionnaire anonymously. At the end of the questionnaire was a request to respondents to supply the researcher with their email address if they wish results of the study to be made available to them (see Appendix A). Respondents were also guaranteed that no physical or psychological harm would be incurred as a result of participation in the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:101).

3.6 CONCLUSION

Chapter 3 gave an overview of the research methodology used in this research study. In the following chapter, the results of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 provides a discussion of the results of the study, in accordance with the research objectives stated in chapter 1. The descriptive statistical analysis will be presented, after which the inferential statistical results will be presented.

4.2 LEVEL OF WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY AND WORK-RELATED ATTITUDES IN THE CURRENT SAMPLE

Before a discussion is presented of the results of the inferential statistical analysis, which are used to determine whether the research objectives have been met, it is necessary to determine the level of respondents' scores with regard to workplace spirituality, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, and work engagement. Measures of central tendency, including the mean, the standard deviation, and the maximum and minimum scores, are depicted in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistical analysis of work-related attitudes

Variable	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Perceived organisational support	3.94	3	5	3.92	0.48
Work engagement	4	3	5	4.0	0.50
Job involvement	2.8	2	3	2.83	0.47
Job satisfaction	3.8	3	4	3.80	0.23
Workplace spirituality	3.05	2	4	3.03	0.28
Organisational commitment	3.17	3	4	3.15	0.21

As is evident from Table 4.1, respondents' perceived organisational support is slightly negatively, where the mean score was 3.92 (SD=0.48). While respondents indicated that they often felt engaged at work (mean=4.0; SD=0.50), their mean score for job involvement was low (mean=2.83; SD=0.47). With regard to job satisfaction, the respondents indicated that they were generally satisfied with their job (mean=3.8; SD=0.23). Mean scores for workplace spirituality (mean=3.03; SD=0.28) and organisational commitment (mean=3.15; SD=0.21) were average.

4.3 SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC DETERMINANTS OF WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY AND WORK-RELATED ATTITUDES

This section presents the results of the inferential statistical analysis, in order to answer research question 1, namely "Is there a statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction?" A t-test and a multivariate analysis were performed to determine the association between the

sociodemographic variables and workplace spirituality, and the relationship between workplace spirituality and the various work-related attitudes. To test the main research hypothesis, which posits that there is a statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes, a Pearson product-moment correlation was performed, followed by a multiple regression analysis.

4.3.1 The influence of gender on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

To determine whether the sociodemographic variable of gender statistically significantly influenced workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes, a t-test for independent groups was performed. In addition, multivariate analyses of variance were performed on the remaining sociodemographic variables. Equality of variance was assumed.

Table 4.2 T-test results for gender, workplace spirituality, and work-related attitudes

Variable	T value	DF	p-value
Organisational support	0.220	409	0.639
Work engagement	9.204	409	0.003**
Job involvement	0.317	409	0.574
Job satisfaction	0.317	409	0.143
Workplace spirituality	0.309	409	0.578
Organisational commitment	0.244	409	0.621

** $p \leq 0.01$

Table 4.2 illustrates that gender statistically significantly influenced work engagement, at the 1% level of significance. The remaining dependent variables were not statistically significantly influenced by gender. Thus, males and females statistically significantly differ with regard to work engagement.

4.3.2 The influence of race on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the influence of race on workplace spirituality, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, and work engagement. Results were considered separately, and are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Multivariate analysis of variance results for race and workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

Variable	Mean squared	F value	DF	p-value
Organisational support	0.240	1.047	2	0.352
Work engagement	0.351	1.428	2	0.241
Job involvement	0.404	1.853	2	0.158
Job satisfaction	0.016	0.283	2	0.754
Workplace spirituality	0.229	2.959	2	0.053
Organisational commitment	0.006	0.145	2	0.865

The Pillai's trace score was used to determine the impact of race on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. From the data presented in Table 4.3 one can see that there was no statistically significant difference between the different race groups, workplace spirituality and the various work-related attitudes that were measured.

4.3.3 The influence of age on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the influence of age on workplace spirituality, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, and work engagement. Results for the various dependent variables were considered separately, and are depicted in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Multivariate analysis of variance results for age and workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

Variable	Mean squared	F value	DF	p-value
Organisational support	0.215	0.939	2	0.392
Work engagement	0.243	0.986	2	0.374
Job involvement	0.364	1.667	2	0.190
Job satisfaction	0.269	4.981	2	0.007**
Workplace spirituality	0.695	9.235	2	0.000**
Organisational commitment	0.615	14.813	2	0.000**

** $p \leq 0.01$

As can be seen from Table 4.4, age statistically significantly influenced job satisfaction, workplace spirituality, and organisational commitment, at the 1% level of significance. Thus, the different age groups statistically significantly differ from each other with regard to job satisfaction, workplace spirituality, and organisational commitment.

4.3.4 The influence of number of years in current job on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the influence of number of years in current job on workplace spirituality, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, and work engagement. Results for the variables were considered separately, and are tabulated in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Multivariate analysis of variance results for number of years in current job and workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

Variable	Mean squared	F value	DF	p-value
Organisational support	0.256	1.119	2	0.328
Work engagement	0.259	1.051	2	0.350
Job involvement	0.079	0.361	2	0.697
Job satisfaction	0.050	0.901	2	0.407
Workplace spirituality	0.100	1.276	2	0.280
Organisational commitment	0.189	4.338	2	0.014*

* $p \leq 0.05$

As can be seen from Table 4.5, number of years in current job had a statistically significant influence only on organisational commitment, at the 5% level of significance.

4.3.5 The influence of number of years working on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the influence of number of years working on workplace spirituality, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, and work engagement. Results for the variables were considered separately, and are illustrated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Multivariate analysis of variance results for number of years working and workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

Variable	Mean squared	F value	DF	p-value
Organisational support	0.018	0.076	2	0.926
Work engagement	0.142	0.573	2	0.564
Job involvement	0.180	0.822	2	0.440
Job satisfaction	0.25	0.459	2	0.632
Workplace spirituality	0.132	1.890	2	0.186
Organisational commitment	0.409	9.622	2	0.000**

** $p \leq 0.01$

The results depicted in Table 4.6 show that total number of years working had a statistically significant influence on organisational commitment.

4.3.6 The influence of academic qualification on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the influence of highest academic qualification on workplace spirituality, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, and work engagement. Results for the variables were considered separately, and are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Multivariate analysis of variance results for qualification and workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes

Variable	Mean squared	F value	DF	p-value
Organisational support	0.308	1.347	3	0.259
Work engagement	0.943	3.905	3	0.009**
Job involvement	0.230	1.052	3	0.370
Job satisfaction	0.23	0.410	3	0.746
Workplace spirituality	0.056	0.711	3	0.546
Organisational commitment	0.022	0.494	3	0.687

** $p \leq 0.01$

As is evident from Table 4.7, the level of academic qualification achieved by respondents statistically significantly influenced work engagement, at the 1% level of significance. Thus, the different qualification categories statistically significantly differed in terms of perceived work engagement.

4.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY AND WORK-RELATED ATTITUDES

In order to investigate the main aim of the research study, which is whether there is a relationship between the independent variable of workplace spirituality and the dependent variables of the various work-related attitudes, namely job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, work engagement, and perceived organisational support, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were determined. Results of the various Pearson product-moment correlations are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Results of the Pearson product-moment correlations

Variable	Perceived organisational support (POS)	Work engagement (WE)	Job involvement (JI)	Job satisfaction (JS)	Workplace spirituality (WS)	Organisational commitment (OS)
POS	1					
WE	-0.38	1				
JI	0.446 0.035	0.167	1			
JS	0.483 0.080	0.001** 0.114	0.140	1		
WS	0.103 -0.40	0.020* 0.078	0.004** 0.140	0.179	1	
OC	0.416 -0.010	0.112 -0.084	0.004** 0.191	0.000** 0.124	0.55	1
	0.840	0.088	0.000**	0.011	0.263	

* $p \leq 0.05$ ** $p \leq 0.01$

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient results shown in Table 4.8 indicate that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between job involvement and work engagement, at the 1% level of significance. This implies that if job involvement increases, so does work engagement. A similar result was found between job satisfaction and work engagement ($p \leq 0.05$), and job satisfaction and job involvement ($p \leq 0.01$). Workplace spirituality was positively correlated with both job involvement and job satisfaction. It was also established that organisational commitment has a statistically significant positive relationship with job involvement.

The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between workplace spirituality (the independent variable), and job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, work engagement, and perceived organisational support (the dependent variables). From the above data, one may conclude that workplace spirituality is positively related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The research questions that will be tested based on the above results are:

1. Does workplace spirituality statistically significantly predict job involvement?
2. Does workplace spirituality statistically significantly predict job satisfaction?

In order to answer these questions, a multiple regression analysis was performed. The results thereof are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Multiple regression analysis of workplace spirituality, job satisfaction, and job involvement

Variable	R	R ²	F	P	β	t	p	Tolerance	VIP
JI	0.023	0.021	9.799	0.000**	0.153	3.130	0.002**	1.000	1.000
JS	0.187	0.035	14.860	0.000**	0.187	3.855	0.000**	1.000	1.000

** $p \leq 0.01$

The results shown in Table 4.9 reveal that workplace spirituality statistically significantly predicted both job involvement and job satisfaction ($p \leq 0.01$). Furthermore, 15.3% ($\beta = 0.153$) of the variance in job involvement, and 18.7% ($\beta = 0.187$) of the variance in job satisfaction can be attributed to workplace spirituality. These results show that when workplace spirituality increases, so do job involvement and job satisfaction.

4.5 CONCLUSION

The secondary objective of this study was whether the sociodemographic variables measured have a statistically significant influence on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. The results indicate that some of the sociodemographic variables measured do have a statistically significant influence on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. The aim of this study was to determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. The results presented in this chapter show that there is a statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and two of the work-related attitudes measured, namely job satisfaction and job involvement. In the following chapter, these results will be discussed and interpreted.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research questions of the study will be answered, and the most important findings will be discussed. Thereafter the limitations and contribution of the present study are highlighted, and recommendations will be given for future research.

The main objective of this study was to determine whether a relationship exists between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. The work-related attitudes that were investigated were job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, perceived organisational support, and work engagement.

5.2 WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY, WORK-RELATED ATTITUDES, AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

The influence of the measured sociodemographic variables on workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes will be discussed in this section. The measured sociodemographic variables are gender, race, age, tenure, and academic qualification.

5.2.1 Workplace spirituality, work-related attitudes, and gender

The t-test results for gender show that gender is not statistically significantly related to workplace spirituality ($p=0.578$). Similar findings were reported by Van der Walt and De Klerk (2014:375), who found no statistically significant correlation between gender and workplace spirituality. In terms of gender and work-related attitudes, the t-test results show that gender is statistically significantly correlated with work engagement ($p=0.003$), but no statistically significant relationship was established with POS ($p=0.639$), job involvement ($p=0.574$), job satisfaction ($p=0.143$), and organisational commitment ($p=0.621$).

In terms of gender and work-related attitudes, the results obtained were consistent with previous findings which indicate no significant correlations with gender. When considering organisational commitment, Mahanta (2012:51) reported similar results, finding no statistically significant influence of gender on organisational commitment. Similarly, Buitendach and Rothmann (2009:185) found no statistically significant influence of gender on job satisfaction, while Van der Velde, Bossink and Jansen (2003:153) reported no significant gender differences for job involvement and organisational commitment. A meta-analysis conducted by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002:708) showed that demographic characteristics, such as gender, had very little influence on POS. Therefore, one may conclude that gender differences in terms of work-related attitudes would seem to be decreasing.

The only work-related attitude which was statistically significantly related to gender was work engagement ($p=0.003$). Coetzee and De Villiers (2010:40) also found a statistically significant influence of gender on work engagement for a South African sample, with females having higher levels of work engagement than males (Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010:40). It is likely that the female members in the current sample are exposed to some flexible work structures, which would increase their work engagement despite their having difficulties at work.

5.2.2 Workplace spirituality, work-related attitudes, and race

The one-way multivariate analysis of variance results for race, workplace spirituality, and work-related attitudes indicate that race did not have any statistically significant relationship with either workplace spirituality ($p=0.053$) or any of the work-related attitudes that were measured, namely POS ($p=0.352$), work engagement ($p=0.241$), job involvement ($p=0.158$), job satisfaction ($p=0.754$), and organisational commitment ($p=0.865$). The findings of the current study regarding race and workplace spirituality confirm the findings of Van der Walt and De Klerk (2014:375), who reported no statistically significant relationship between race and workplace spirituality. Govender and Parumasur (2010:244,246) reported similar findings with regard to work-related attitudes for a South African sample, which shows no statistically significant differences between race and employee motivation and job involvement in a South African context. One may conclude that racial differences are decreasing, and that workplaces in South Africa have indeed transformed as far as equality and non-discriminatory practices are concerned.

5.2.3 Workplace spirituality, work-related attitudes, and age

The multivariate analysis of variance results for age, workplace spirituality, and work-related attitudes indicate that age had a statistically significant influence on job satisfaction ($p=0.007$), workplace spirituality ($p=0.000$), and organisational commitment ($p=0.000$). Contradictory results have been obtained regarding the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Some researchers have reported a U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction (Sarwar, Mirza, Ehsan, Khan & Hanif, 2013:415), while others have reported either a positive, a negative, or no significant influence (Martin & Roodt, 2008:24). The findings of this study are consistent with the dispositional or genetic components model of job satisfaction, which holds that individual differences are just as important as the working environment itself when explaining job satisfaction (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010:172).

In terms of age and organisational commitment, Mahanta (2012:51) and Martin and Roodt (2008:28) found similar results, which suggest that different age groups have different levels of organisational commitment. Martin and Roodt (2008:28) observed a tendency for organisational commitment to increase as age increases. It is possible that older employees are more committed to the organisation because they have adjusted to the working situation, and have formed realistic expectations about the organisation (Newstrom, as cited in Igbal, 2010:18). In terms of age and workplace spirituality, Van der Walt (2007:163) reported similar findings for a South African sample, which suggests that different age groups have different levels of workplace spirituality. This shows that it is possible that different generational cohorts could have different levels of workplace spirituality.

5.2.4 Workplace spirituality, work-related attitudes, and tenure

In this section, both number of years employed in current job and length of service will be discussed in relation to workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. Although the term “tenure” generally refers to the period of time an employee has been in a particular job (Robbins et al., 2009:54), researchers also use the term to refer to number of years in the employ of an organisation (Ekmekçi, 2011:71). Since similar results were obtained for number of years in current job and length of service, for the purposes of discussion of the findings these two variables will be subsumed under the combined variable of tenure.

The multivariate analysis of variance results for number of years in current job, workplace spirituality, and work-related attitudes indicate that number of years in current job was statistically significantly related only to organisational commitment ($p=0.014$). Similar results were obtained in the multivariate analysis of variance for number of years working, workplace spirituality, and work-related attitudes, which shows that number of years in current job is statistically significantly related to organisational commitment ($p=0.000$).

The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Azeem (2010:297), Mahanta (2012:51), and Salami (2008:31), who report that organisational commitment is significantly correlated with tenure. Mahanta (2012:55) maintains that an employee needs to work for an organisation for a long period of time to become emotionally attached to it. The findings of this study confirm that when an employee establishes a long-term relationship with a particular organisation, they become more emotionally attached and loyal to the organisation.

There is a paucity of research on the relationship between tenure and work engagement. In a study by Rice (2009:18), work engagement was statistically significantly correlated with two of the subcomponents of work engagement, namely dedication and absorption. In another study, Bakker, Demerouti and Brummerhuis (2012:560) found no significant relationship between work experience and work engagement. Because the study of work engagement is fairly new, it is important that research is extended to explore this area further.

With regard to job involvement and tenure, contradictory findings have also been reported. The findings of the current study support the findings of Ekmekçi (2011:71), which show no statistically significant relationship between tenure and job involvement. Conversely, Rabinowitz, as cited in Teng (2010:18), found a positive relationship between job involvement and tenure.

Contradictory findings have also been reported for job satisfaction and tenure. While some studies have indicated a relationship between these two variables (see, for instance, Akdere, Gider & Top, 2012:1244; Natarajan & Nagar, 2011:59), other researchers have found no statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and tenure (see, for instance, Nestor & Leary, 2000:10). This shows that length of service cannot be used as a predictor of job satisfaction.

The finding that there is no significant relationship between workplace spirituality and tenure confirms previous research findings, where the same results were obtained (see, for instance, Huang & Lin, 2014:501; Van der Walt & De Klerk, 2014:373). With regard to tenure and POS, the findings of the current study are consistent with other research findings. Huang and Lin (2014:501) and Valle, Harris and Andrews (2004:116) reported no significant relationship between POS and tenure. Similarly, Eisenberger, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002:567) report

that tenure is not statistically significantly related to either perceived supervisory support or POS.

5.2.5 Workplace spirituality, work-related attitudes and academic qualification

The multivariate analysis of variance results for workplace spirituality, work-related attitudes, and academic qualification (see Table 4.7) indicate that academic qualification is statistically significantly correlated only with work engagement ($p=0.009$). Contradictory results have been reported regarding the relationship between workplace spirituality and qualification. Sangweni (2010:50) reports a statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and qualification, while Van der Walt and de Klerk (2014:373) reported no significant relationship between the two variables. The findings of the current study confirm these findings. With regard to organisational commitment and level of qualification, Martin and Roodt (2008:29) found a significant negative correlation between the two variables for a South African sample, reporting that organisational commitment decreased as level of education increased.

The relationship between qualifications and work engagement has been studied in the context of South Africa, and similar results have been reported. Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2006:43) found a statistically significant relationship between qualification and work engagement, and they found that academics with a doctoral degree were more absorbed in their jobs than academics with only a four-year degree or an honours degree. According to Gilbert, as cited in Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2006:44), highly educated workers, referred to as knowledge workers, find it difficult to detach themselves from their jobs, because work has become more important to them psychologically, and they spend

increasingly more hours at work. However, in the current study the sample included all employees working at the two organisations included in the sample, not only knowledge workers.

5.3 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY AND WORK-RELATED ATTITUDES

The results of the Pearson product-moment correlations (see Table 4.8) indicate that a statistically significant positive relationship exists between workplace spirituality and job involvement ($r=0.140$, $p\leq 0.01$). Similar findings have been reported by other researchers. In a study by Huang and Lin (2014:494), a positive relationship was reported between workplace spirituality and job involvement ($r=0.58$, $p\leq 0.05$). Pawar (2009:770) determined the relationship between the different components of workplace spirituality and job involvement, and reported that two of the three components, namely meaning in work ($r=0.39$, $p\leq 0.001$) and positive organisational purpose ($r=0.26$, $p\leq 0.001$) were related to job involvement. Milliman et al. (2003:440) indicated a positive relationship between workplace spirituality, specifically meaningful work and community, and job involvement. From these results, one may conclude that if an organisation has spiritual values which are expressed by organisational leaders, it will lead to employees becoming more involved in their jobs.

The results of the Pearson product-moment correlations (see Table 4.8) also indicate that a statistically significant positive relationship exists between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction ($r=0.179$, $p\leq 0.01$). Similar findings have been reported by Pawar (2009:770), as well as by Van der Walt and De Klerk (2014b:385). Pawar (2009:770) found a positive relationship between two components of workplace spirituality and job satisfaction, namely meaning in

work ($r=0.49$, $p\leq 0.01$) and community ($r=0.62$, $p\leq 0.01$), while Van der Walt and De Klerk (2014b:385) reported a positive relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction ($r=0.47$, $p\leq 0.0001$). Compared to the findings of the studies mentioned above, the relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction that was reported for the current study is somewhat weaker than the relationship that was found by the above-mentioned studies. However, one may draw the conclusion that if an organisation is perceived as having spiritual values, employees will be involved in and satisfied with their jobs.

In order to determine whether workplace spirituality (the independent variable) predicts the dependent variables of job involvement and job satisfaction, a multiple regression analysis was performed. The results of the multiple regression analysis (see Table 4.9) show that workplace spirituality predicts both job involvement ($\beta=0.153$) and job satisfaction ($\beta=0.187$). This implies that workplace spirituality explains 15.3% of the variance in job involvement, and 18.7% of the variance in job satisfaction. This signifies that workplace spirituality explains a large proportion of the variance in both job involvement and job satisfaction. Therefore, one may conclude that to enhance positive work attitudes, employees need to perceive that the organisation is spiritually based, and that the spiritual values of the organisation are lived by the leaders of the organisation.

5.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings of the study confirm the importance of studying spirituality in the context of the workplace. Due to the fact that the study of spirituality in the workplace has been neglected in for many years, and due to the lack of scientific research on workplace spirituality in South Africa, the study was descriptive, exploratory, and explanatory in nature. This allowed the researcher to establish a relationship between workplace spirituality and the work-related attitudes of job satisfaction and job involvement. The findings of the study can be practically applied in the work setting.

The current study elaborated on the research findings of previous studies, confirming the importance of creating spiritually based workplaces in order to ensure that employees are satisfied with, and involved in, their jobs. However, organisations should realise that workplace spirituality cannot be used as a ‘quick fix’ to solve organisational problems, but should be implemented authentically, and lived by organisational leaders, if it is to have positive outcomes for the organisation.

5.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The first limitation of the current study is the lack of an agreed-upon definition for workplace spirituality. Although various reasons have been offered for the lack of conceptual clarity, it seems important that researchers in the field attempt to operationally define workplace spirituality. Furthermore, the absence of construct clarity may potentially have an impact on the results obtained in various studies, this makes the comparison between studies, or so-called meta-analysis, difficult.

Secondly, although the ideal would have been to include a random sample, the researcher had to use a convenience sample due to time and budget constraints. Consequently, the external validity of the study is compromised. The results of this study should therefore be interpreted with caution, as they cannot be generalised to a wider population.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although the results of the study affirmed a statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction, as well as job involvement, it would have been interesting to determine whether the subcomponents of job satisfaction (namely intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction) are related to workplace spirituality and the subcomponents thereof. The study found no statistically significant relationship between workplace spirituality and the work-related attitudes of organisational commitment, POS, and work engagement. However, it would have been interesting to determine whether the subcomponents of these work-related attitudes are related to workplace spirituality and its subcomponents.

Although the current study and past studies have established a positive relationship between workplace spirituality and job satisfaction, as well as job involvement, it would seem that more research is needed to confirm this relationship in other industries and in other countries. Much of the past research has been conducted in North America, and it is therefore important to compare the findings of this First World country with those of a developing country, such as South Africa. Furthermore, the current study was quantitative in nature, and future studies will make a valuable contribution if they could combine both quantitative and qualitative research methods when investigating the relationship

between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes. This will lead to a more in-depth understanding of the relationship between these constructs.

5.7 CONCLUSION

Although the relationship between workplace spirituality and various work-related attitudes has been confirmed in First World countries, very little is known about workplace spirituality and its relationship to work-related attitudes in developing countries. The aim of this research study was to determine whether a relationship exists between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes for a South African sample, in order to expand the current body of knowledge of human resources management. Further empirical research is recommended to expand the current knowledge of workplace spirituality. This will lead to the development of workplace spirituality theories, and it will also have benefits for organisations endeavouring to create and sustain spiritual workplaces. Worldwide, organisations need to realise that in order to cultivate positive work-related attitudes, organisations should become more spiritual.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Section A: Biographical details

Please use a cross (x) to indicate your particulars:

1. Gender

Male	Female
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2. Race

Black African	White	Coloured	Indian/Asian
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3. Job title

--

4. My age is ____ years.

5. Number of years in current job

--

6. Total number of years working

--

7. Highest educational qualification completed

Grade 10-11	Grade 12	Post-matric certificate	National diploma/ degree
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Below are statements that represent possible opinions or feelings that YOU may have about your organisation. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by placing a cross (x) in the box, that best represents your point of view about your organisation. Please choose from the following responses:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

1. The organisation values my contribution to its well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The organisation would ignore any complaint from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The organisation really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The organisation shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the “0” (“never”) in the box after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	Almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Always

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Time flies when I’m working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. In my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. To me, my job is challenging.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I get carried away when I’m working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. In my job, I am very resilient mentally.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. In my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Place a cross (x) in the relevant box to reflect your views.

1	2	3	4	5	6
I strongly disagree	I disagree	I disagree somewhat	I agree somewhat	I agree	I strongly agree

1. The most important things that happen to me involve my current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. To me my job is only a small part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am very much involved personally in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I live, eat, and breathe my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Most of my interests are centred around my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I have very strong ties with my current job, which would be very difficult to break.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Usually I feel detached from my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I consider my job to be central to my existence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5	6

With the next questionnaire we want you to ask yourself “How satisfied am I with these aspects of my job?” Cross the number that best indicates to what extent each of the statements is true or not true in the boxes provided at the end of each statement. Place a cross (x) in the appropriate box.

1	2	3	4	5
Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied

In my current job, this is how I feel about:					
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	1	2	3	4	5
2. The chance to work alone on the job	1	2	3	4	5
3. The chance to do different things from time to time	1	2	3	4	5
4. The chance to be “somebody” in the community	1	2	3	4	5
5. The way my supervisor handles his or her work	1	2	3	4	5
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
7. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience	1	2	3	4	5
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	1	2	3	4	5
9. The chance to do things for other people	1	2	3	4	5
10. The chance to tell people what to do	1	2	3	4	5
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	1	2	3	4	5
12. The way policies are put into practice	1	2	3	4	5
13. My pay and the amount of work I do	1	2	3	4	5
14. The chances for advancement in this job	1	2	3	4	5
15. The freedom to use my own judgement	1	2	3	4	5
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	1	2	3	4	5
17. The working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
18. The way my colleagues get along with each other	1	2	3	4	5
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	1	2	3	4	5
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	1	2	3	4	5

We would like to ask you some questions about the general climate in your company. Using the options below, please answer the following in terms of the way it really is in your company, not how you would prefer it to be. Please be as candid as possible. Remember that all your responses will remain strictly confidential. Please select the response which is most true for you and place a cross (x) in the corresponding box provided.

1	2	3	4	5
Completely false	Somewhat false	Neither true nor false	Somewhat true	Completely true

1. In this organisation, there is a sense of the sacredness of life.	1	2	3	4	5
2. In this organisation, there is a real sense of connection with the world at large.	1	2	3	4	5
3. We are urged to set aside time for personal reflection and growth in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This organisation values the relationships among everyone who works here.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Being truthful is important to a successful life in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. In this organisation, one can find meaning in life by creating close relationships with those working here.	1	2	3	4	5
7. This organisation fosters giving to others in need.	1	2	3	4	5
8. This organisation is sensitive to the pain and suffering of others.	1	2	3	4	5
9. It is important to this organisation that employees are whole and complete people.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The organisation encourages each of us to find meaning in our lives.	1	2	3	4	5
11. In this organisation, all forms of life are valuable.	1	2	3	4	5
12. There is an overall sense of sadness when someone in this organisation is in pain.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The world of nature is ignored in the daily functions of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5

14. In this organisation, people listen closely when others tell them their problems.	1	2	3	4	5
15. This organisation promotes health and inner peace.	1	2	3	4	5
16. It is common for individuals who work here to share their private thoughts with someone else in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
17. The organisation encourages us to put the interests of others before our own when making a decision.	1	2	3	4	5
18. In this organisation, we are encouraged to actively seek a sense of purpose in our lives.	1	2	3	4	5
19. In this organisation, it is expected that everyone tell the truth.	1	2	3	4	5
20. We are encouraged to mentor and help new people entering the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5

Below are statements that represent possible opinions or feelings that YOU may have about your organisation. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by placing a cross (x) in the box that best represents your point of view about your organisation. Please choose from the following responses:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

1. My organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I owe a great deal to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5

7. I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I really feel as if my organisation's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
9. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I would not leave my organisation right now, because I have a sense of obligation to its people.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The organisation deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
18. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5

You have reached the end of the questionnaire. Thank you for your time and input. It is much appreciated. If you would like to receive feedback regarding the findings of this study, please provide me with your email address:

Appendix B

WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY AND WORK-RELATED ATTITUDES

Dear respondent

A research study is being conducted by me under the supervision of Dr F. van der Walt. I am currently a Master's degree student in the Faculty of Management Sciences at Central University of Technology, Free State. The title of my research project is "The relationship between workplace spirituality and work-related attitudes".

You are a member of a carefully chosen sample. You are hereby requested to participate in this study on a voluntary basis. You have the right not to respond, and to withdraw from the study at any stage. Please be so kind as to complete the enclosed questionnaire, which will take only a few minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers to any of the questions. I am interested in your personal view only.

All information that you provide through your participation in this study will be kept confidential, and it will only be used for research purposes. The names of individuals or organisations participating in the project will not be disclosed. There are no known or anticipated risks to participation in this study. While you will not experience any direct benefits from participating in the project, information collected in this study may benefit the profession of human resource management in the future.

If after receiving this letter, you have any questions about this study, or you would like any additional information, please feel free to contact me on _____.

Kindly return the completed questionnaire anonymously to me in the envelope provided.

Your participation and the sacrifice of your time is appreciated and valued.

Herman Swanepoel

Date