

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN**



**The relationship between quality of work-life and quality of life based on the centrality and value of work in an individual's life.**

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PTRREJ001

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## **Abstract**

The study sought to examine the relationship between quality of work-life and quality of life depending on how central work is in an individual's life and what value work holds for them. Literature internationally has shown that because work forms such an integral part of individuals' lives, that this could influence their experience of quality of life, indicating that a high quality of work life could lead to a high quality of life. Similarly, if work is a central life interest and dependent on the value that work holds, the loss of work could potentially influence quality of life. A cross-sectional, descriptive design was used, with a correlational approach. Snowball sampling was used to gather a sample of 163 working adults in South Africa, through a personal network of family and friends. Participants completed scales assessing the four variables of interest provided in an online questionnaire. The results indicated that individuals who experienced their quality of work-life as more positive also indicated a higher quality of life. This relationship was stronger when individuals saw work as having intrinsic value. However, the degree to which work was central to a person's life, and to which work was seen as having value as it provided monetary rewards (extrinsic value), social connections and relationships (social value), or status (prestige value) were not found to alter the relationship between quality of work-life and quality of life. As shown previously in both international and local literature, work is always placed second to family in importance. Based on these findings, limitations and recommendations were suggested, as well as theoretical and practical implications.

*Keywords:* quality of work-life, quality of life, work centrality; extrinsic value, intrinsic value, social value, prestige value, working adults, South Africa

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## Chapter 1: Introduction

Decades of research have shown that essential human needs are met through employment. Some of these needs involve economic, development and relational aspects that can only be sufficiently met through work (O'Toole & Lawler, 2006). Research has also shown that when these needs are met, individuals report better health (Dooley, 1996; Kessler, 1987; Morrell, 1994). The contemporary world of work has been characterised by a great deal of change and as employers attempt to adapt to the changes present, they often overlook these important human needs in their decision making (Boreham, Povey & Tomaszewski, 2016). In South Africa specifically, some of the changes in the world of work come in the form of further job losses due to the impact of the recession and presence of corruption within government (Felix, 2018). Economist Mike Schussler stated that the South African economy does not have the capacity to create more jobs and even less so to maintain the jobs currently available (Felix, 2018).

Due to the changes taking place in the working world, some have begun advocating for replacing employment as the means for a sustainable livelihood, for example by paying everyone a universal basic income; a guaranteed monthly amount paid regardless of whether the individual works or not (Woodbury, 2017). While this might counter the financial hardship of not having a job it would not account for the latent benefits which work can provide for and which would be lost. Such latent benefits are often of a psychological nature and include time structure; social contact; collective purpose; identity/status, and activity. According to Jahoda's (1981, 1982, 1997) latent deprivation model within modern societies, the workplace is the only environment that can provide an individual with all these benefits simultaneously, and to a enough degree. It is thus not surprising that a high-quality work life is a source of individuals' overall quality of life (Sirgy, Reilly, Wu & Efraty, 2008).

When developing alternatives for paid work in order to enable sustainable livelihoods it is thus important to consider the latent benefits which would be lost through the loss of employment and to ensure that these can be fulfilled in alternative ways, too. If individuals place a high intrinsic, extrinsic, social or prestige value on their work, this means that they acquire a certain form of satisfaction gained through work fulfilling these values. Some of the ways in which these values are fulfilled are through pay, personal growth, contribution to society and authority. In addition, if work is a central life interest to them, in that they gain



their most favoured outcomes and satisfaction through being at work and engaging in their work, they may place a greater importance on their quality of work life. If this is the case, they would need to experience a high quality of work life to experience a high quality of life. Thus, it would be important to establish what the consequences would be of losing structured work, even if the financial aspect of it is taken care of. As such, there are various questions that arise, such as what value work holds for South Africans and how central work is in their lives, along with how these two aspects play a role in the relationship between their quality of work life and quality of life. Answering these questions may assist in establishing what the impact of losing structured work would be on the wellbeing on individuals, going beyond the financial impact, and what aspects should be considered as alternatives to work as a means to sustainable livelihoods. In order to do so it is important to understand what work means to those currently in paid work and how it relates to their quality of life.

Thus, the proposed research question is:

How does an individual's quality of work life contribute to their quality of life?

The following hypotheses will be tested within the study:

*Hypothesis 1:* Quality of work life is positively related to quality of life amongst working adults in South Africa.

*Hypothesis 2:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is strengthened if work plays a central role in individuals' lives.

*Hypothesis 3a:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is strengthened by work having an Intrinsic value.

*Hypothesis 3b:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is weakened by work having an Extrinsic value.

*Hypothesis 3c:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is strengthened by work having a Social value.

*Hypothesis 3d:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is weakened by work having a Prestige value.

Chapter 1 serves as an introduction into the literature of employment, the potential benefits thereof, as well as what the possible outcomes may be if employment is lost, especially if it is a central life interest, and if it has a value beyond financial security. The research question as well as the hypotheses will be addressed in the chapters that follow, with a review of relevant literature in Chapter 2. Chapter 2 is comprised of the literature on the variables and their relationships, along with the stated hypotheses guiding this study. Chapter 3 lists the methods that were used to gather the data to test the hypotheses, as well as information regarding the scales used to measure the variables. Following Chapter 3 is Chapter 4 with the stated results of the data gathered and whether the hypotheses have been supported or not. Chapter 5 is a more in-depth discussion of the results stated in Chapter 4, with explanations as to the results within the given sample, followed by implications, limitations and recommendations, and a conclusion.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

This chapter will seek to lay the groundwork in understanding the variables within this study. In doing so, it will provide previous literature on quality of work life; quality of life; work centrality, and work values. Once the literature on each of the variables have been reviewed, each of the hypotheses will be stated.

### **2.1: Quality of Work Life**

Working individuals spend most of their time at work and as such it has been argued that the quality of life at work is one of the most important components of overall quality of life (Kotze, 2005). Research has shown that the quality of work life (QWL) as a consideration of employment can be traced back to the British coal mines pre-1950 and that it gained significance in the USA and Scandinavia during the 1960s and 1970s (Gayathiri & Ramakrishnan, 2013; Koonmee, Singhapakdi, Virakul & Lee, 2010; Kotze, 2005). During the 1950s and 1960s, QWL was indicated by individual outcomes such as job satisfaction, with the emphasis having been on how to improve work to increase these outcomes (Koonmee et al., 2010; Kotze, 2005). However, as recently as 2013, QWL was including good relationships with managers and colleagues, and clearly defined career advancement opportunities, indicating a shift to fulfilment and growth (Ajala, 2013). In academic circles, the term QWL was first publicly discussed in 1972 during an international labour relations conference at Columbia University's Arden house. It received more attention after United Auto Workers and General Motors initiated QWL programmes for work reforms in 1991. Similarly, during 1969 and 1973, employment surveys assessing job experiences were conducted at the University of Michigan, after which many projects were created to improve the employees' QWL through the assessment of the employees' job experiences (Kotze, 2005).

In literature, both internationally and locally, quality of work life has been defined differently. Hillard (1990) stated that QWL is an outcome of a collaborative relationship between the employers and employees, to improve their working lives, in order to enhance productivity. Others have defined QWL as employees' perceptions towards their working environment. These perceptions are comprised of eight dimensions, namely, adequate and fair compensation; safe and healthy working conditions; the immediate opportunity to use and develop relationships; growth and security; social integration; constitutionalism; work and total life space, and social relevance (Walton, 1975, as cited in Almarshad, 2015). Locally, QWL

has been defined as the extent to which the work environment fulfils the employees' personal needs and has a positive interaction effect with their overall life (Ajala, 2013). The underlying common theme among these definitions, however, is that the workplace is an environment in which employees can fulfil their personal needs, can use their talents, and face challenges that encourage self-direction (Ajala, 2013). The assumption is that when employees can satisfy their needs through their work, they are more satisfied in general (Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel & Lee, 2001).

In the creation of their measure of quality of work life, Sirgy et al. (2001) based it on two theoretical approaches, namely need satisfaction and spillover. The idea that *need satisfaction* is important for individuals is based on theoretical models developed by Maslow (1954), McClelland (1961), Herzberg (1966), and Alderfer (1972), which will be briefly introduced below.

### **Maslow's hierarchy of needs**

Maslow (1954, as cited in Freitas & Leonard, 2011) created a five-level hierarchy of needs after observing the growth and development of students. He categorised human needs into five groups, namely, physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs (McLeod, 2017). He believed that an individual's most basic and fundamental need was physiological and involved air, food, clothing and shelter. If these basic needs are not met, the individual is not motivated and thus unable to progress up the continuum to achieve higher level needs (Hamel, Leclerc & Lefrancois, 2003; McLeod, 2017).

The next level on the hierarchy is safety needs and these include physical safety and security, and stability needs. Once an individual can attain this need, the next is the need of belongingness. This includes receiving and giving love and a sense of belongingness within social groups (Cao et al., 2013). The fourth level of the need hierarchy is self-esteem, and this includes the desire to have a high evaluation of the self, characterised by achievement, respect and recognition from others (Cao et al., 2013; McLeod, 2017). The last level of the hierarchy revolves around self-actualisation needs that include the desire to reach one's full potential whilst achieving self-fulfilment and leaving behind a legacy (Cao et al., 2013; Freitas & Leonard, 2011; McLeod, 2017). Although the needs have been structured on a continuum from

basic to higher needs, and each level needs to be attained before moving onto the next, it is flexible (McLeod, 2017).

### **Alderfer's ERG theory**

The theory of existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) was developed between 1961 and 1978, wherein Alderfer (1989) expanded on Maslow's basic needs theory and refined it into existence, relatedness and growth needs (Alderfer, 1969; Caulton, 2012; Yang, Hwang & Chen, 2011). During its development, data was tested to create the theory's core foundations and through an empirical study conducted at a factory in Easton Pennsylvania, along with modifications to the measurements, the ERG theory was validated and presented (Alderfer, 1989).

Existence needs include various forms of physiological, safety, and material needs. Safety needs are needs such as prevention from fear, anxiety and threat, danger and tension. Physiological needs are needs such as the pursuit of happiness through leisure, exercise and sleep, whereas material needs refer to the resources like food and clothing, that are needed to live (Yang et al., 2011). Relatedness needs include needs such as belonging, security, and respect. A sense of security is when an individual has a mutual trust of humanity and an individual is said to have a sense of belonging when they do not feel isolated, lonely or distanced from others. Sense of respect is when the individual perceives to receive respect from others in the form of popularity, social status or importance (Yang et al., 2011). Lastly, growth needs involve self-esteem and self-actualisation. The need for self-esteem refers to the individual's ability to seek knowledge and to achieve their goals, whilst building confidence. The need for self-actualisation is when an individual can realise their greatest potential whilst also supporting the growth of others (Yang et al., 2011).

### **Herzberg's two factor theory**

Similar to Alderfer, Herzberg's (1966) two factor theory is also closely aligned to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, but it focuses more specifically on how individuals can be motivated within the workplace (Ghazi, Shahzada & Khan, 2013). The first factor, hygiene is said to encompass aspects within the workplace context and environment such as company policy and administration, supervision, salary and working conditions, to name a few. These factors, if satisfied, are not said to motivate individuals, but it would prevent them from experiencing job satisfaction (Gawel, 1997; Ghazi et al., 2013). The second factor, motivators,

are aspects relating to the job tasks themselves such as advancement, achievement, responsibility, recognition, and growth. These factors, when satisfied would lead to individuals feeling more motivated to do their jobs (Gawel, 1997; Ghazi et al., 2013). As such, Herzberg (1966) believed that managers should focus on satisfying the motivating factors to ensure job satisfaction and motivated individuals.

### **McClelland's need theory**

McClelland's theory of learned needs suggest that individuals are motivated by three basic drivers and these are achievement, affiliation and power (McClelland, 1961, 1975, 1985). Individuals that need achievement desire to be appreciated (Nayeri & Jafarpour, 2014). This need is satisfied when they can bring into fruition their goals. They dislike gaining their success by chance as they seek to find identifiable and concrete sources for their successes or failures. Individuals who have this need, experience their emotions based on the outcomes of their efforts put into goal attainment. They tend to differentiate themselves from others by seeking out tasks that are more advanced to showcase their mastery and to excel (Heintz & Steele-Johnson, 2004; McClelland & Koestner, 1992; Robbins, 2003; Weiner, 1979; Yamaguchi, 2003). Individuals that have the need of affiliation tend to seek out coordinated relationships and harmony with others (Nayeri & Jafarpour, 2014). This need is satisfied when individuals pursue team activities where interdependence and co-operation is key. Individuals also ensure harmony within the group by avoiding expressing themselves and obeying the overall needs of the group (Nayeri & Jafarpour, 2014; Yamaguchi, 2003).

The last need of power involves the desire to influence others and to achieve higher goals (Nayeri & Jafarpour, 2014). Individuals who have this need may tend to seek out positions that will give them the power they need to compel the actions of others. They might be viewed as being competitive and status-driven, whilst not wanting to lose (Nayeri & Jafarpour, 2014; Royle & Hall, 2012; Veroff, 1992).

Thus, the basic premise of needs-based models is that individuals have basic needs that they fulfil through work. They gain satisfaction from their work, if these needs are fulfilled (Sirgy et al., 2001).

Sirgy et al. (2001) conceptualized quality of work life in relation to the satisfaction of seven types of needs. These are:

1. **Health and safety needs** which involve safety at work, job-related health benefits, and enhancement of good health.
2. **Economic and family needs** which involve adequate wages, job security and other family needs such as childcare and home care.
3. **Social needs** which involve positive social interactions at work and leisure time off work.
4. **Esteem needs** which involve recognition and awards for doing a good job at work, and recognition and appreciation of one's work by an outside party.
5. **Actualisation needs** which involve a realisation of one's potential within the organisation, and as a professional.
6. **Knowledge needs** which involve learning to enhance skills, and professional skills.
7. **Aesthetics needs** which involve creativity at work and personal creativity, and general aesthetics.

These seven needs can be separated into lower-order needs which encompass health and safety needs and economic and family needs, and higher-order needs which encompass the remaining five needs (Marta et al., 2011; Sirgy et al., 2001). Sirgy et al. (2001) found that employees experienced a good quality of work life if the organisation provided the resources, they needed to satisfy their needs.

The *spillover* approach suggests that when an individual experiences satisfaction in one area of their life, that this satisfaction will “spill over” into other areas such as family, leisure, social, etc. (Orpen, 1978; Sirgy et al., 2001; Steiner & Truxillo, 1989). Spillover is further categorised into horizontal and vertical based on the direction in which it goes. Horizontal spillover is when satisfaction is experienced in one life domain, and it spills over into another close life domain. An example of this is when satisfaction experienced at work influences satisfaction experienced at home, and vice versa (Sirgy et al., 2001). Vertical spillover is based on the notion that life domains are organised hierarchically, with overall life being the top domain. Thus, any feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in its subordinate domains such as family or work, influences feelings of life satisfaction, and this is termed vertical bottom-up spillover. Vertical top-down spillover is when the top domain overall life, influences its subordinates such as work or leisure (Sirgy et al., 2001). Thus, in the proposed study, quality of work life is defined as the employee's ability to fulfil their needs through their work.

## **2.2: Quality of Life**

Like quality of work life, quality of life has no single agreed upon definition. Meeberg (1993) defined quality of life as an individual experiencing feelings of overall life satisfaction and evaluating his or her own life as being satisfactory. Similarly, Rejeski & Mihalko (2001) defined quality of life as an individual making a conscious cognitive judgment and evaluation of their satisfaction with their life. Dolnicar, Yanamandram & Cliff (2012) expanded on these definitions to include the evaluation of the degree to which an individual's needs, goals and values are being fulfilled, leading to overall life satisfaction. However, the different definitions available all seem to concur that life satisfaction includes an individual's subjective, but conscious evaluation regarding their satisfaction with life, which is the definition used in this dissertation (e.g. Dolnicar et al., 2012; Rejeski & Mihalko, 2001; Ye, Yu & Li, 2012).

Quality of life has been a concern of American sociologists since 1918 who focused on the living conditions of families (Sewell, 1940, as cited in Sirgy et al., 2006). Since then, several measures were created to measure the living conditions of families. From the 1930s on, different disciplines studied the components of quality of life (Lee, 2008). In an early paper, Cottam and Mangus (1942, as cited in Sirgy et al., 2006) argued that quality of life derived from an individual's level of living, social participation, and social adjustment. The level of living approach was used by the Scandinavians and it drew on the Swedish welfare research practices. This approach views quality of life as depending solely on the individual's ability to control his or her resources, to create or direct his or her living conditions (Erikson, 1974). Over the years, the development of the quality of life construct within literature has expanded from an individual's level of living or life satisfaction, into the medical field, termed health-related quality of life (Gerson, as cited in Sirgy et al., 2006).

## **2.3: The relationship between Quality of Work Life and Quality of Life**

As outlined in the previous two sections, quality of work life focuses on the subjective wellbeing of employees, and quality of life focuses on an individual's satisfaction with life overall. Overall life satisfaction is assumed to be influenced by an individual's satisfaction with their different life domains, including work (Sirgy, 2006). This means that an individual's quality of life is likely affected by their quality of work life.

Research in Europe has shown that paid employment is in fact ranked as one of the most important indicators of quality of life (Clark, 2001; Haller & Hadler, 2006). This is



because work does not only provide income, but a clear structure; a sense of identity; social status and integration, and personal development opportunities (Gallie, 2002, as cited in Drobnic, Beham & Prag, 2010).

### **A clear structure**

Research has shown that individuals who are unemployed have reported having less structured and purposeful time and experiencing heavy psychological burden (Jackson, 1999; Wanberg, Griffiths & Gavin, 1997).

### **A sense of identity**

Work is also believed to provide individuals with a sense of identity. When this is lost, psychological well-being is believed to suffer (Donovan & Oddy, 1982; Evans & Haworth, 1991).

### **Social status and integration**

Having social contact has been shown to have positive effects on wellbeing as it provides a source of social support and social activities to engage in (Hammer, 1993; Underlid, 1996).

### **Personal development opportunities**

Individuals who are unemployed have been found to have less access to personal development opportunities than their employed counterparts, and research has shown that there is a link between personal development opportunities and wellbeing (Creed & Macintyre, 2001; Underlid, 1996).

The degree to which work determines overall quality of life differs between individuals. It is, for example, likely that a person who defines themselves strongly through their work would have their quality of work life strongly related to their overall life satisfaction. This may be less so for a person for whom work is less central to their life and for their personal identity. This means that work centrality and the value working holds for an individual are important variables in determining the importance of quality of work life for overall quality of life (Harpaz & Fu, 2002; MOW-International Research Team, 1987, as cited in Harpaz & Fu, 2002). However, for a person for whom work is not central and for whom the value of work is financial support, losing it may only have financial consequences (Haller & Hadler, 2006;

Sirgy, 2006). In South Africa it has not yet been established what value work holds for individuals, how central work is to their lives, and how the two variables relate to the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life.

*Hypothesis 1:* Quality of work life is positively related to quality of life amongst working adults in South Africa.

## **2.4: Work centrality**

Work centrality is defined as the general importance that work holds for an individual when compared to other life roles (Kanungo, 1982). The work centrality concept is derived from Dubin's (1956) central life interests' theory.

### **Central Life Interests' theory**

This theory postulates that a central life interest (CLI) is an activity that the individual chooses to spend most of their time on. When an activity is a central life interest, it is consciously chosen after the evaluation of the satisfaction that is obtained from pursuing it. The individual controls whether they invest energy in this activity and the amount of energy expended reflects the importance of the activity. Furthermore, emotional significance may also be attached to it (Genis & Wallis; Wallis & Price, 2003). England and Misumi (1986) researched work centrality in Japan compared to work centrality in the United States of America (USA). The general conclusion was that working is a major and important life area, but that work was more important to individuals in Japan, compared to individuals in the USA. However, decades later, in their study across eight different countries (United States of America; Germany; Brazil; South Korea; Poland; The Kyrgyz Republic; Russia, and Hungary), Kuchinke et al. (2011) found that there was an overall high work centrality in most countries included in their study. Work Centrality did, however, place second to family as the most important life domain.

Research has shown that work is in fact, not a CLI for industrial workers, nor for a third of those who aren't in managerial or supervisory positions in commerce or industry (Dubin, 1956; Dubin, Champoux & Porter, 1975). In contrast to this, researchers found that individuals who have occupations that are classified as professional, view their work as a CLI (Dubin, 1992; Friedlander, 1966; Orzack, 1959). These findings were still consistent over a decade ago

as both Genis and Wallis (2005) and Wallis and Price (2003) found that South Africans did not have work as their CLI, and that the family domain was more important.

Within South Africa, the construct of work centrality has been defined similarly, in that work is seen as central when individuals value the outcomes from work as most important and thus, choose to spend most of their time at work (Bryan, 1972; Dubin, 1956; Roberson, 1990, as cited in Genis & Wallis, 2005). Hence, work centrality is defined as the general importance that work has in an individual's life.

When work is central to an individual's life, it is likely that the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is stronger, compared to when work does not play a central role in an individual's life.

*Hypothesis 2:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is strengthened if work plays a central role in individuals' lives.

## **2.5: The value of work**

Values, according to Super (1973, as cited in Dose, 1997) are goals that an individual seeks to attain in order to satisfy a need. The concept of values has been studied broadly over the past several decades, by various disciplines. Allport (1961, as cited in Jin & Rounds, 2012) and Rokeach (1973, as cited in Jin & Rounds, 2012) are some of the pioneers of the study of values and value systems. The work of Allport and his colleagues followed on from the work of a German philosopher, Eduard Spranger, who believed that a greater understanding of human psychological functioning could be gained through the study of individual values (Tsirogianni & Gaskell, 2011). The early approaches to values were viewed through the lens of personality and Spranger (1928, as cited in Tsirogianni & Gaskell, 2011) identified five types of personalities that he believed everyone held variants of, and these are as follows:

1. **Theoretical type:** These individuals place great importance on objectivity and truth
2. **Economic type:** The focus here is on utility and resources
3. **Social type:** An individual with this personality would focus on giving love and compassion to others
4. **Political type:** This personality type focuses on gaining power

5. **Religious type:** Individuals with this personality type place high value on obtaining unity with God.

Allport supplemented the work of Spranger (1928, as cited in Tsirogianni & Gaskell, 2011) by adding in another personality type known as the aesthetic type. Individuals with this personality type are interested in maintaining harmony and form. Altogether these six personality types formed the foundation of the study of values measure created by Allport and Vernon (1931, as cited in Tsirogianni & Gaskell, 2011), wherein values are forms of motivation.

The nature of values is such that it can be applied to various life domains, including work (Lyons, Higgins & Duxbury, 2010). According to Jin and Rounds (2012), Dawis and Lofquist (1984, as cited in Jin & Rounds, 2012) were among the first in extending the study of values to the work domain, with their theory of work adjustment. The theory of work adjustment focuses on person-environment fit which is the correspondence between an individual's work personality and their work environment. An individual's work personality is comprised of his/her vocational needs, and these are expressed as the individual's preferences for certain work conditions (Lofquist & Dawis, 1978; Rounds, Dawis & Lofquist, 1987). The second aspect, being the work environment, is comprised of work reinforcers which are work conditions that elicit behaviour (Lofquist & Dawis, 1978). The theory states that the individual has need requirements which the work environment needs to fulfil, and the work environment has requirements that the individual needs to fulfil. When this process between the individual and the work environment is a success, in that the requirements both ways are met, it is seen as work adjustment (Rounds et al., 1987). As such, Dawis and Lofquist (1984, as cited in Rounds, 1990) believed that an individual's work values or work needs are an important element of his/her work personality.

Much of the work in the field of values at work has been conducted by Super (1957; 1990; 1992; 1995, as cited in Porfeli, 2007). Hoppock and Super (1950, as cited in Zytowski, 1994) conducted a review on job satisfaction literature and found that generally, expressions of satisfaction were linked to specific aspects of the job itself. This finding was amplified by a study conducted by Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad and Herma (1951, as cited in Super, 1962) on the career development of young men, in which Super was a consultant. Ginzberg et al. (1951, as cited in Super, 1962) suggested that the satisfaction derived from work could be placed into three categories:

1. **Rewards:** These include extrinsic rewards such as higher income, and prestige, which includes status.
2. **Concomitants:** This includes social and environmental aspects.
3. **Intrinsic:** This includes the feelings of pleasure and accomplishment when reaching goals.

Following the work of Ginzberg et al. (1951, as cited in Super, 1962), Super expanded on the focus of job satisfaction, finding similar work attributes as Hoppock and himself (1950, as cited in Zytowski, 1994), and later terming these to be work values. He believed that values are derived from needs and that they can be satisfied through more than one work activity or job (Super, 1973, as cited in Dose, 1997). From this belief, he created Super's Work Values Inventory (1970, as cited in Dose, 1997), which is the best-known instrument for assessing work values in terms of vocational behaviour. Super provided much of the current knowledge about how work values influence career choices and development processes undertaken by an individual.

### **Theory of basic individual values**

Years later, Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss (1999) conducted a study in which they attempted to use the theory of basic individual values as a mechanism through which to identify and clarify the types of work values. In their research, they found that despite the different labels used, there were three types of work values present in literature (Alderfer, 1972; Borg, 1990; Crites, 1961; Mottaz, 1985; Pryor, 1987; Rosenberg, 1957):

1. Intrinsic or self-actualisation values
2. Extrinsic, security or material values, and
3. Social or relational values

Ros et al. (1999) believed that the above three types of work values could parallel that of the higher-order basic human values. Thus, intrinsic work values are like an openness to change values which involves the pursuit of growth and creativity in work. Extrinsic values express conservation values such as job security and income which provide security and maintenance. Social values are like the self-transcendence values where work is viewed as a vehicle to create relationships and contribute to society (Ros et al., 1999). However, the theory

of basic individual values also suggests that there may be one other work value missing, one that aligns with self-enhancement, which concerns itself with prestige or power. In literature, concepts of prestige were often identified as being either extrinsic or intrinsic (Borg, 1990; Elizur, 1984; Ginzberg et al., 1951; Rosenberg, 1957). After reviewing previous literature on the types of values, Ros et al. (1999) believed that there was empirical evidence for a fourth type of work value, such as prestige, and they based their notion on a study conducted by Elizur (1984). Elizur (1984) analysed information obtained on the importance of work values from his Israeli sample, and found three outcomes, namely, instrumental, effective and cognitive. However, there were some inconsistencies in Elizur's (1984) study that Ros et al. (1999) felt could be best dealt with by adding in another work value type. Specifically, if intrinsic work values could consist of values that contribute to personal growth, then prestige work values could consist of values that imply personal superiority (Ros et al., 1999). Evidence for adding in another work value type was gathered by Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Beck (1991) when results obtained from eight different countries (USA, Taiwan, China, Korea, Hungary, the Netherlands and Israel) showed that there should be an addition of prestige values, where the focus is on gaining influence and having the opportunity for advancement.

Thus, work values are the beliefs an individual has, about why work matters to them, i.e. what work outcomes are important (Elizur, 1984; Lyons et al., 2010). The broad concept of work values can be split into four value categories (Chen & Kao, 2012; Hirschi, 2008; Jin & Rounds, 2011; Porto & Tamayo, 2007; Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999; Lyons et al., 2010):

1. **Work as intrinsic values:** Here, work has value because of the job tasks themselves and how they drive the pursuit of personal growth through advancement and independence.
2. **Work as extrinsic values:** The value of work lies in the job features and outcomes that are a means to an end, such as pay and job security.
3. **Work as social relations values:** The value of work relates to the relationships an individual has with his/her co-workers and supervisors, as well as a desire to contribute to society by helping others.
4. **Work as prestige values:** The value of work relates to status and power that work provides through personal success and through recognition and authority.

Work values can thus be defined as the outcomes that individuals desire and seek to attain through their work (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010). Work provides the individual with opportunities to satisfy his/her needs and goals that have been pre-determined by his/her work values (Ester, Braun & Mohler, 2006, as cited in Jin & Rounds, 2012). Similarly, an individual has overall life satisfaction when their needs and goals are being met through the working environment, leading to greater life satisfaction (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012). Thus, the degree to which work provides the individual with his / her most valued outcomes is posited to influence overall life satisfaction and quality of work life.

### **Self-Determination Theory and Value orientation**

Self-determination theorists have distinguished the types of work values individuals hold based on the content of those values (Kasser, 2002a, as cited in Lokes, Hope, Gouveia, Koestner & Philippe, 2012; Kasser & Ryan, 1993, 1996). The two types that they identified are intrinsic work values which are characterised by the individual seeking growth, and extrinsic work values, which are characterised by being a means to an end. Self-determination theorists suggest that individuals differ not only in the work value orientation that they hold, (intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige) but also in the outcomes obtained through these values (Kasser, 2002a, as cited in Lokes, Hope, Gouveia, Koestner & Philippe, 2012; Kasser & Ryan, 1993, 1996). Self-determination theory posits that individuals have innate psychological needs that need to be fulfilled through goal pursuits, for life satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The need for autonomy refers to an individual having a sense of volition and choice in their life. Competence is satisfied when the individual experiences efficacy in their interactions with the environment, and when the individual feels that he or she can exert influence or power over outcomes. Lastly, the need for relatedness is the ability to experience and reciprocate feelings with important individuals, through building social relationships (Niemi, Ryan & Deci, 2009). According to research intrinsic values and social values are believed to lead to greater life satisfaction as the values are inherently tied into the pursuit of the three basic psychological needs. In contrast, extrinsic values and prestige values are believed to be a distraction in the pursuit of the needs, leading to an experience of dissatisfaction (Niemi et al., 2009).

*Hypothesis 3a:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is strengthened by work having an Intrinsic value.

*Hypothesis 3b:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is weakened by work having an Extrinsic value.

*Hypothesis 3c:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is strengthened by work having a Social value.

*Hypothesis 3d:* The positive relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is weakened by work having a Prestige value.



## Chapter 3: Method

This chapter describes the research design, sampling approach and sample, the procedure used for the study, the measures employed, and how the data was analysed.

### 3.1: Research Design

A cross-sectional, descriptive design was implemented to investigate the research question. A descriptive approach seeks to explore a correlation between two or more phenomena, in this case, between quality of work life and quality of life, and it examines a situation as it is (Williams, 2007). A cross-sectional design was chosen as it helps to determine the prevalence of a phenomenon or covariation of two or more variables within a population at one point in time (Mann, 2003). The selected design was appropriate for the study as the aim was to examine a relationship between the variables of interest, without inferring causality. This design is also time efficient and cost effective to conduct, which suited this study, as there were time constraints present, i.e. The study needed to be completed within one year.

A quantitative methodology was used. Quantitative research involves the collection of data that is numerical in nature so that it can be put through statistical tests to support or refute knowledge claims (Creswell, 2003). It seeks to establish explanations and predictions that can be generalised from a sample to a broader population of interest, as well as to make contributions to expand and refine theory (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). Within this study, the aim was to establish the nature of the relationship between quality of life and quality of work life among working adults within South Africa, and how this relationship may be moderated by work centrality and work values. Data was collected using questionnaires.

### 3.2: Sampling and Participants

The population of interest was working adults in South Africa. Data was collected using non-probability sampling, more specifically, snowball sampling. Snowball sampling is when the researcher gains access to participants through contact information that is given by other participants (Noy, 2008). Snowball sampling enabled the researcher to use her social networks, i.e. friends, family, and their connections, to collect data. This was important as the researcher is a full-time student and had limited access to working adults. The total number of responses was  $N = 193$ . Of these, 30 respondents had to be removed as they had not completed more than 25% of the items per scale or completed none of them. The final sample size was thus  $N = 163$ .

The sample consisted of 82.2% females ( $n = 134$ ) and 17.8% males ( $n = 29$ ), thus indicating that there was a strong over-representation of female participants compared to the working population in South Africa. In South Africa, women represent 51% of the total population, but only 44% of the workforce are female (StatsSA, 2017). The age range of the sample lay between 19 and 68 years ( $M = 29.22$ ,  $SD = 10.33$ ), with 25 participants opting not to disclose their age. The racial representation within the sample was as follows: 55.2% of the participants identified as Coloured ( $n = 90$ ); followed by White (20.9%,  $n = 34$ ); Indian (12.9%,  $n = 21$ ); Black African (4.3%,  $n = 7$ ); Asian (1.2%,  $n = 2$ ), and Other (1.2%,  $n = 2$ ), with 2.5% opting not to disclose their racial group. As a result of the sampling method chosen, the final sample is one that is likely over-represented with regards to the characteristics of individuals with larger social networks and underrepresented of individuals with characteristics of those with smaller social networks (Johnston & Sabin, 2010). In this study, the resulting sample consisted of coloured females, indicating that they occupy the larger social networks of the majority of this study's participants.

The sample is also skewed towards individuals with higher education in that more than two thirds of the participants had either an undergraduate or postgraduate degree. Within the sample, 33.7% of the participants had obtained a postgraduate degree as their highest education ( $n = 55$ ); followed by those with an undergraduate degree (25.2%,  $n = 41$ ); matric (23.3%,  $n = 38$ ), and diploma (17.2%,  $n = 28$ ). The years that the participants had spent working ranged between one and 46 years, indicating a wide spread in work experience ( $M = 14.11$   $SD = 10.58$ ,  $n = 160$ ). The number of hours spent working each week ranged between ten and 72 hours ( $M = 32.81$ ,  $SD = 11.51$ ,  $n = 160$ ). The same was the case for the number of years spent working and number of work hours per week, three participants chose not to provide an answer. Lastly, the number of years that participants had spent in their current job ranged from one to 37 years ( $M = 8.54$ ,  $SD = 6.99$ ,  $n = 154$ ), with nine participants choosing not to disclose this information.

As the sample is not representative of the working population the study results may not be generalisable to the larger population, but they still helped to provide some insight into the general relationships between the variables of interest.

### **3.3: Measures**

This section describes the measures that were used to measure the variables of interest: QWL, quality of life, work centrality, and work values, as well as demographic information.

### **Quality of Work Life**

An adaptation of Sirgy et al.'s (2001) 16 item scale was used to measure QWL, and it was based on their conceptualisation of QWL as consisting of higher-order and lower-order needs (see Appendix A for the item wordings). The nine lower-order needs involve factors related to health, finance, safety, and family, whereas the seven higher-order needs involve social, self-actualisation, knowledge, and esteem needs. It is based on the two dominant theoretical approaches within the QWL literature, making it comprehensive. Each item measures one of the needs which Singhapakdi et al. (2014) assume to determine an individual's quality of work life. An example item is "I feel physically safe at work". Participants were asked to respond to the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Completely Disagree" to "Completely Agree". The measure was chosen as it has shown acceptable reliability in Singhapakdi et al.'s (2014) study using a Thai sample with a Cronbach's alpha of  $\alpha = .72$ , and as the items are easy to understand.

### **Work Centrality**

Kanungo (1982) developed a 6-item scale to evaluate work involvement, which is a term that is used interchangeably in literature with work centrality. Kanungo (1982) stated that unlike job involvement, which is related to the particular job that is held by an individual at a particular point in time, work involvement relates to the involvement with work in general, or the centrality of work, in an individual's life. Participants needed to respond on a 5-point Likert scale to items such as "The most important things that happen in life involve work", by ranking them from "Completely Disagree" to "Completely Agree". The scale is provided in Appendix B. Obtaining a high score on the scale indicates that the individual views work as being very central within their life, whereas a low score indicates the opposite. In a study conducted by Ucanok (2008) in Turkey, the measure had an acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .75$ ). This measure was chosen as it has not been used within the South African context before. The items are easy to understand, and they are aligned to the central life interests' theory (Dubin, 1956), which has influenced the development of work centrality as a construct.

### **Work values**

Work values were measured using the 25-item Lyons' Work Values scale (LWVS) developed by Lyons (2003, as cited in Kuron et al., 2015). Lyons developed the scale through compiling and categorising items from the 13 most commonly used work value measures and

adding new items to represent the contemporary workplace. The scale has been provided in Appendix C. The LWVS measures all four types of the theorised work values, namely, intrinsic (7 items); extrinsic (9 items); social (4 items), and prestige values (4 items) (Lyons, Higgins & Duxbury, 2010). Participants needed to indicate how important each provided item was to them, such as “Doing work that is interesting, exciting and engaging” (intrinsic value), on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = “Not at all Important”, to 5 = “Absolutely Essential” (Kuron et al., 2015). In their study, Kuron et al. (2015) found the Cronbach alphas for all four value subscales acceptable (Extrinsic Values:  $\alpha = .83$ ; Intrinsic Values,  $\alpha = .86$ ; Social Values,  $\alpha = .74$ , and Prestige Values,  $\alpha = .79$ ). This measure was chosen due to it having shown reliability in a prior sample and as it was created to include all value dimensions that work can hold according to Lyons et al. (2010).

### **Quality of Life**

Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985) developed a 5-item scale to evaluate an individual’s satisfaction with their life. Participants were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Completely Disagree” to “Completely Agree” to items such as “The conditions of my life are excellent”. The full scale is provided in Appendix D. The measure was chosen as it has shown acceptable reliability in Mafini’s (2014) study using a South African sample, with a Cronbach’s alpha of  $\alpha = .79$ .

### **Demographic Information**

Participants were asked to complete a section requesting information regarding their age; gender; race; the number of hours worked per week; education level; number of years worked; and number of years in current job. This background information was gathered for sample description purposes and to assess the generalisability of the questionnaire results.

## **3.4: Procedure**

The questionnaire was preceded by a consent form. The consent form clarified that participants had the right to withdraw from the study at any stage, and that all data collected was anonymous and would be treated confidentially. The consent form is provided in Appendix E. In order to ensure a large enough sample size, the link to an online version of the questionnaire was posted on personal social media pages, preceded by the consent form. Participants were also asked at the end of the questionnaire to forward the electronic link to the

questionnaire to other participants. In addition, close family, friends and former classmates were provided with the electronic link to the questionnaire. After the number of responses on social media had slowed down, family and friends were asked to distribute the questionnaire link to their wider networks on social media.

### **3.5: Ethical considerations**

This study was reviewed for ethical concerns by the University of Cape Town Commerce Faculty's Ethics in Research Committee prior to data collection. The cover page of the questionnaire informed participants of their right to withdraw their participation at any time during the process without negative consequences. Furthermore, participant anonymity and confidentiality were assured throughout the research process as no identifying information was collected. In addition, all data collected was viewed only by the researcher and the supervisor. There were no foreseeable ethical concerns linked to participation in this study, as the information gathered was not considered to be of a sensitive nature. However, contact information was provided on the cover letter for clarification of any of the questions within the questionnaire, or to get access to the results of this study.

### **3.6: Data analysis**

IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, version 25 was used to conduct the data analysis. Principal Component Analysis was used to test the validity of the measures used in the study, whilst Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was used to test the measures' reliability. Lastly, regression techniques were employed to test the hypothesis.

## Chapter 4: Results

In this section, the reliability and validity results, as well as descriptive statistics for each scale are outlined. Thereafter, the results for the hypotheses are presented.

### 4.1 Principal Component Analysis

#### Work Centrality, Quality of Life, Quality of Work Life, and Work Values

Principal Component Analyses (PCA) were used to assess the construct validity of the Work Centrality, Quality of Life, Quality of Work Life, and Work Values scales. To run PCA, there should be at least ten times more responses collected compared to the number of items in the scale to be tested (Field, 2012). The final sample size was  $N = 163$ , and the longest scale, Quality of Work life, contained 16 items, indicating that the sample was sufficiently large to conduct PCA. In addition, PCA is suitable when two assumptions have been met: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure should be greater than .50 to ensure that the sample is adequate for factor analysis (Kaiser, 1970). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is used to test that the items in the scale correlate well with each other, and this assumption is met when Bartlett's test results are significant (Bartlett, 1950). As shown in Table 1, all the scales had suitable KMO values with significant Bartlett's test results.

Table 1

*Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Results for the Various Scales*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>KMO</i>	<i>Bartlett's Test</i>	<i>df</i>
Quality of Work Life	.88	679.65**	55
Quality of Life	.84	298.26**	10
Work Centrality	.74	157.34**	15
Extrinsic Value	.75	220.28**	36
Intrinsic Value	.84	232.21**	21
Social Value	.69	83.96**	6
Prestige Value	.64	134.25**	6

*Note.* \*\*  $p < .001$ .

In order to determine how many components to retain to represent the items, Cattell's (1966) scree plot was used instead of the commonly used Kaiser's (1970) criterion. Kaiser's (1970) criterion states that all components with eigenvalues greater than 1 should be retained, but this is only appropriate in two cases. When there are less than 30 variables and the communalities after extraction are all greater than .70 or when the sample consists of at least

250 participants (Field, 2012). However, in this sample, all communalities were below .70 (see Table 7 in Appendix F), and the sample size was smaller than 250. In such circumstances Field (2012) suggests using the scree plot instead to indicate the number of components that should be retained. Often, variables have high loadings on the most important component, and smaller loadings on any of the others. When this happens, interpretation of the extracted components becomes difficult as it is not clear which components to allocate items to. Rotation is used to facilitate the allocation of variables to components. As in all the scales the scree plot suggested only one relevant component, however, rotation was not required, making all the scales unidimensional (see Tables 8-14 in Appendices G-M). This indicates that for each scale, only one component adequately explains and represents the scale items.

Table 2

*Factors Extracted for the Quality of Work Life, Quality of Life, Work Centrality, Extrinsic Value, Intrinsic Value, Social Value and Prestige Scales*

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Eigenvalue</i>	<i>Explained Variance (%)</i>
Quality of Work Life	5.64	35.25
Quality of Life	3.02	60.44
Work Centrality	2.47	41.23
Extrinsic Value	2.83	31.51
Intrinsic Value	3.04	38.06
Social Value	1.96	48.89
Prestige Value	2.11	52.68

#### **4.2: Reliability Analysis**

Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the internal consistency of all scales, and they were considered reliable if they had an alpha of at least .70 (Nunnally, 1978). In addition, according to Cortina (1993), if the corrected item-total correlations are above .30, then the items can be taken as correlating well with the overall scale, and thus, should be retained. Those guidelines were followed when evaluating the scales' reliability in the study sample.

As shown in Table 3 all scales had acceptable internal consistency, apart from the social values scale ( $\alpha = .65$ ) and the prestige values scale ( $\alpha = .69$ ), with alpha coefficients slightly below .70. However, Kline (1999) states that alpha values below .7 can be expected when dealing with psychological constructs due to the diversity within the construct being measured. Furthermore, reliability is also shown to be lower in short scales, and these scales only had four

items (Streiner, 2003). As such, the reliability for both the social value and prestige value scales were still considered acceptable.

On average, participants valued work most for its extrinsic and intrinsic value given the scale midpoint of 3. Work was also valued as a place for social interaction and to gain prestige, but to a lesser extent. On average, participants indicated a slightly positive work life and quality of life, and overall, participants did not perceive work as central to their lives. The standard deviations indicated that scores for quality of work life varied the most, followed by quality of life; work centrality; prestige value; social value; intrinsic value, and extrinsic value.

Table 3

*Number of items per scale, Cronbach Alpha, Range of corrected item-total correlations, means, standard deviations, minimums and maximums for the Quality of Work Life scale, Quality of Life scale, Work Centrality scale, Extrinsic Value scale, Intrinsic Value scale, Social Value scale and Prestige Value scale (N = 163).*

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach Alpha	Range of corrected item-total correlations	Descriptive statistics			
				Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Quality of Work Life	12	.88	.53 < r < .51	3.46	.78	1.58	5
Quality of Life	5	.83	.70 < r < .43	3.37	.41	1	5
Work Centrality	6	.71	.43 < r < .48	2.27	.74	1	4
Extrinsic Value	9	.72	.37 < r < .38	4.37	.87	3.33	5
Intrinsic Value	7	.77	.59 < r < .31	4.29	.42	3	5
Social Value	4	.65	.45 < r < .33	3.75	.65	1.50	5
Prestige Value	4	.69	.43 < r < .55	3.47	.73	1	5

### 4.3: Analysis of Study Hypotheses

In this section, the analyses and results relating to the three hypotheses are outlined.

#### **Hypothesis 1: Quality of work life is positively related to Quality of Life amongst working adults in South Africa.**

In order to describe the relationship between the two variables of interest, quality of life and quality of work life, Pearson's product moment correlation was used. Pearson's correlation



coefficient,  $r$ , is a standardized value that represents the measurement of a relationship between two variables. The coefficient lies between -1 and +1 where -1 indicates a perfectly negative relationship and +1 a perfectly positive relationship. A coefficient of 0 indicates that there is no relationship at all (Field, 2012).

In order to be certain that the  $r$  and its associated significance level can be trusted the data used in the analyses needs to fulfil several assumptions. One of these is that there needs to be a linear relationship between both variables. A scatterplot was used to check the assumption of linearity between the quality of work life and quality of life variables. As shown in Figure 1 all scores were scattered along a straight line from bottom left to top right with no visible curvature of the scatter cloud. Both variables were measured on interval scales, meaning that the level of measurement was appropriate for Pearson's correlation. The assumption of normality was controlled for by using bootstrapping. In bootstrapping many random samples are chosen from the overall sample, the correlation is determined in each of these samples and the distribution of these correlation coefficients considered (Field, 2012). The idea of bootstrapping is to mimic the selection of many samples to establish a specific confidence interval within which the true correlation, i.e. the correlation in the population would fall. If the values of the confidence intervals include the correlation of zero, the null hypothesis is retained (Lee & Rodgers, 1998). In this case, bootstrapping was performed using 1,000 random samples and a 95% confidence interval.

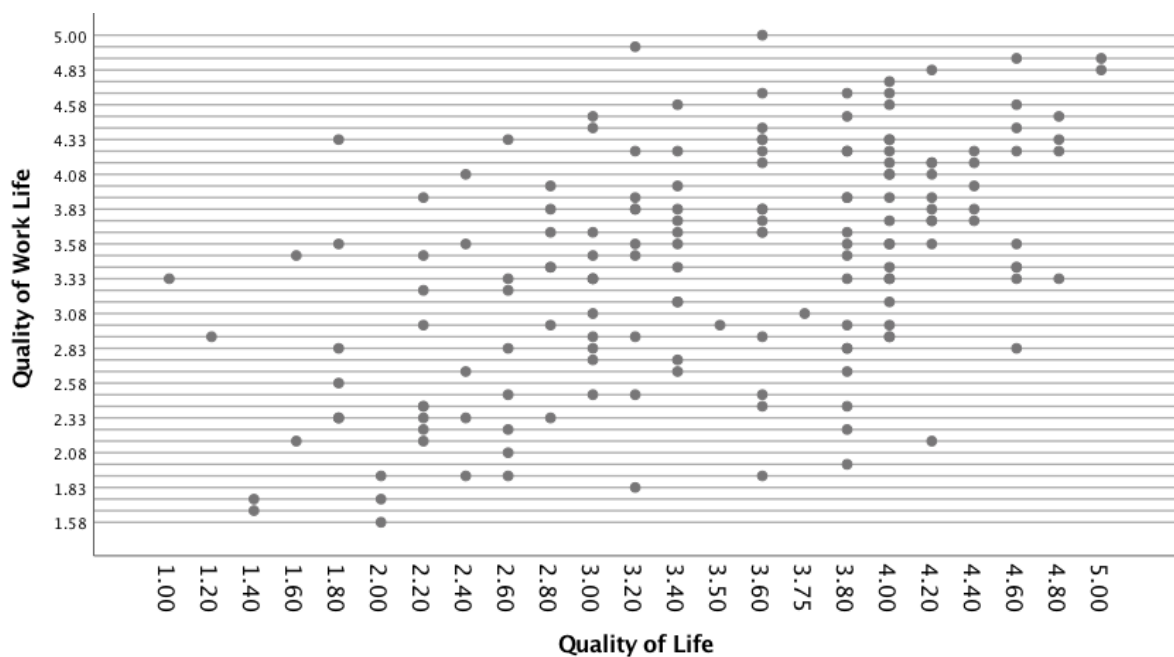


Figure 1. Scatterplot between Quality of Life and Quality of Work Life.

The Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r = .50$ ,  $N = 163$ , 95% CI [.38 <  $r$  < .63]) revealed a medium positive, and statistically significant ( $p < .001$ ) relationship between participants' experiences of their quality of work lives and quality of lives (Cohen, 1992). Therefore, the hypothesis is supported in that participants experience a high quality of life when their sixteen needs are met as hypothesized by Singhapakdi et al., (2014) quality of work life scale, and the null hypothesis is rejected.

### **Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between Quality of Work Life and Quality of Life is strengthened by Work Centrality.**

To test the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life, and the influence of work centrality on the relationship, it needed to be tested if work centrality served as a moderating variable. When a combined effect of two or more predictor variables on an outcome is investigated, it is conceptually known as moderation and in statistical terms, as an interaction. A moderator variable can either strengthen or weaken a relationship, or to change its direction (Field, 2012). Multiple regression analysis was thus performed with quality of work life, work centrality and the interaction between both variables as predictor variables and quality of life as the dependent variable. This analysis can be run using Hayes (2012) *PROCESS* model in SPSS. *PROCESS* model 1 was chosen as this model deals specifically with the estimation of a moderation effect when a single moderator is present (Hayes, 2012). The data needs to fulfil a number of assumptions, though, for the results to be trustworthy.

For multiple regression analyses, the outcome variable has to have been measured as a continuous variable. As Quality of Life was measured using an interval-level Likert-scale, this was considered to be the case. The assumption of independent residuals states that any residuals associated with one data point should not be correlated with the residuals of the data points alongside it. To test this, the Durbin-Watson statistic needs to be above 1 or lower than 3 as this would indicate that there is no correlation (Field, 2012). In this sample, the value was 2.01 and as a value of 2 indicates a zero correlation, the data fulfilled this assumption. Homoscedasticity is met when the distribution of the residuals does not change across the levels of the independent variables (Field, 2012). This was measured using a scatterplot, in which the standardized predicted residuals were plotted against the standardized observed residuals. It is

depicted in Figure 2. The scatterplot showed no funnelling of the data, indicating that as required there was homoscedasticity in the data.

To account for possible deviations from normality (random and normally distributed residuals with a mean of zero), again, bootstrapping was used.

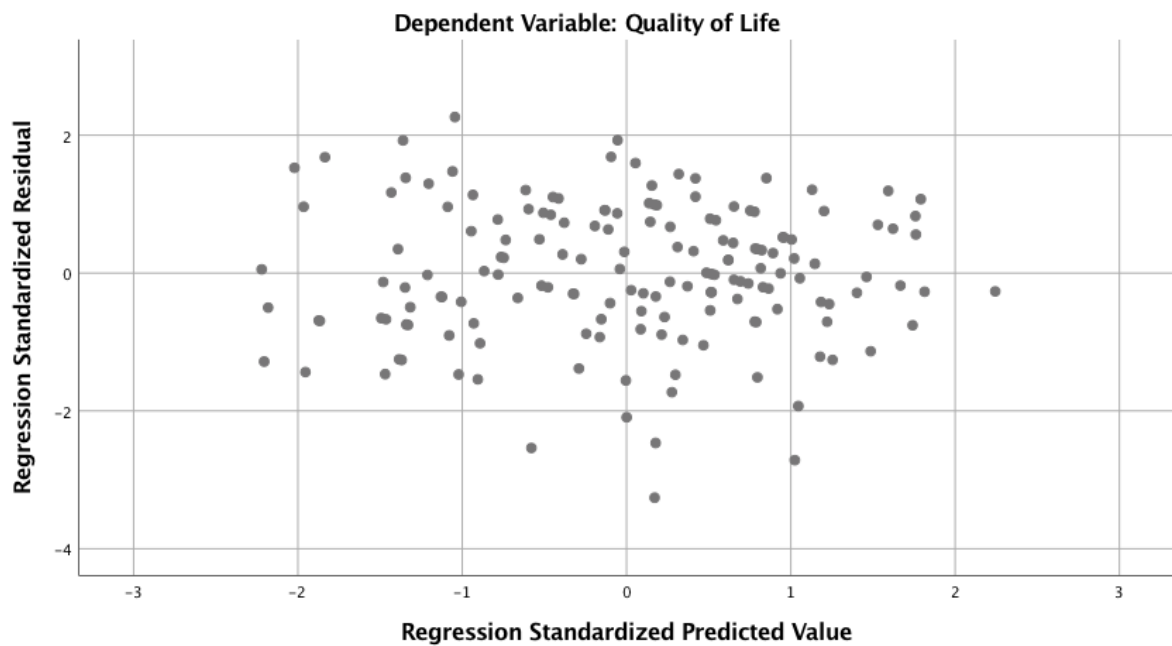


Figure 2. Scatterplot between the Predicted Residuals and the Standardized Observed Residuals when predicting quality of life through quality of work life, work centrality and the interaction between both.

All three predictor variables accounted for 26.8% of the variance in quality of life as the squared multiple correlation ( $R^2$ ) was .268. Furthermore, the overall model was found to be significant ( $F_{3,159} = 19.45, p < .001$ ). However, as shown in table 4, the interaction of the moderator was statistically non-significant ( $t = .69, p = .49, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.09, .21]$ ). The bootstrapping analysis confirmed this as the confidence levels indicated that the relationship between these variables within the 1,000 samples included zero. This indicates that the nature and strength of the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is similar regardless of whether work is central to the individual or not. The results do thus not support Hypothesis 2. While greater quality of work life is related to greater life satisfaction – in line with the first hypothesis –work centrality does not moderate the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life.

Table 4

*PROCESS Results for Quality of Work Life, Work Centrality, and the interaction between them, in relation to Quality of Life*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>95% CI</i>
Quality of Work Life	.42	2	.05	.05 < r < .78
Work Centrality	-.27	-.87	.39	-.82 < r < .27
Interaction/Moderation	.06	.70	.49	-.09 < r < .21

**Hypothesis 3a: The positive relationship between Quality of Work Life and Quality of Life is strengthened when work has an Intrinsic value.**

**Hypothesis 3b: The positive relationship between Quality of Work Life and Quality of Life is weakened by work having an Extrinsic value.**

**Hypothesis 3c: The positive relationship between Quality of Work Life and Quality of Life is strengthened by work having a Social value.**

**Hypothesis 3d: The positive relationship between Quality of Work Life and Quality of Life is strengthened by work having a Prestige value.**

As here, too, the four values of work were assumed to be moderator variables, Hayes (2012) *PROCESS* model was used again to test the hypothesis, as it was necessary to evaluate if the strength of the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is strengthened by work having values for individuals. Four different analyses had to be conducted as Hayes' (2012) *PROCESS* model only allows for one moderating variable (Hayes, 2012).

The results, as shown in Table 5 indicate that the overall models for all the subscales were found to be significant.

Table 5

*Model Summary for Intrinsic Value, Extrinsic Value, Social Value, and Prestige Value*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>F</i> (3,159)	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Intrinsic Value	21.23	< .001	.286
Extrinsic Value	19.30	< .001	.266
Social Value	19.39	< .001	.267
Prestige Value	19.05	< .001	.264

As shown in Table 6, none of the values subscales apart from the intrinsic value scale, explained a significant amount of unique variance in life satisfaction. This was confirmed by the bootstrapped confidence intervals which lay over zero, indicating that the null hypothesis should be retained. However, for intrinsic values, although the significance level is slightly greater than .05, it is still significant as the bootstrapped confidence intervals do not lay over zero, but includes it, indicating that the null hypothesis should be rejected. Thus, the nature and strength of the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life is similar regardless of whether work has an extrinsic, social, or prestige value. However, the Johnson-Neyman indicated that moderation is present irrespective of the levels of intrinsic value placed on work (see Table 15 in Appendix N). The negative nature of the intrinsic value in relation to the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life, indicates that when individuals place intrinsic value on their work, they're more likely to experience low levels of quality of work life, and in consequence, low levels of quality of life.

Table 6

*PROCESS Results for all the subscales of Work Values and Quality of Work Life, in relation to Quality of Life*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Bootstrap CI range</i>
Extrinsic	-.59	<i>p</i> = .55	-.51, .27
Intrinsic	-1.89	<i>p</i> = .06	-.63, 0
Social	.92	<i>p</i> = .36	-.13, .32
Prestige	.07	<i>p</i> = .95	-.19, .24

## Chapter 5: Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to establish what the nature of the relationship is between quality of work life and quality of life, among working adults in South Africa. The findings within this study have echoed those found in the European context in that an individual's quality of work life is related to his/her quality of life (Clark, 2001; Haller & Hadler, 2006; Harpaz & Fu, 2002; MOW-International Research Team, 1987, as cited in Harpaz & Fu, 2002; Sirgy et al., 2001; Sirgy, 2006). In other words, when an individual has a high quality of work life in which his/her personal needs are met, this satisfaction may spillover into his/her other life domains, leading to a higher quality of life. Apart from work holding a negative intrinsic value, the study found no moderation effect for either of the other values that work holds for individuals, nor work centrality.

In the following sections the results related to the study hypotheses are compared to relevant prior international and local literature, after which possible reasons for the results are outlined. Limitations, theoretical contributions, and practical implications of the results are presented, after which any recommendations for future research are explored.

### **5.1: Hypothesis 1: QWL is positively related to QOL.**

The current study found that individuals experience higher quality of life the more their personal needs are met within their working lives, that is if they perceive high quality of work life. The finding aligns with previous research conducted by Kotze (2005), Sirgy et al. (2001) and Land, Michalos & Sirgy (2011) which has shown that satisfaction within the work domain tends to spill over into other life domains, influencing overall quality of life (Kotze, 2005; Sirgy et al., 2001; Sidin, Sambasivan & Ismail, 2010; Land et al., 2011).

### **5.2: Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between QWL and QOL is stronger when work is central in an individual's life.**

The Central Life Interest's (CLI) theory asserts that an individual will express a preference for an activity based on the satisfaction gained from doing it (Dubin, 1956). When an activity is a CLI, the individual controls how much time and energy is invested into it, reflecting its importance and significance within the individual's life (Genis & Wallis, 2005; Wallis & Price, 2003). As such, it was assumed that if individuals chose work as a CLI, that

this would mean that they would get all their valued outcomes, such as their needs, fulfilled in the workplace, leading to a high quality of work life, and a high quality of life.

The findings in this study indicated that this hypothesis was not met, in other words, work centrality has no influence on the relationship between quality of work life and quality of life. The reasoning for this finding may be because work has been found to be placed second in importance to family, not only internationally, but in South Africa too (Genis & Wallis, 2005; Kuchinke et al., 2011; Ucanok, 2008; Wallis & Price, 2003). In both studies, Genis & Wallis (2005) and Wallis and Price (2003), found work was placed as a second central life interest after family. Even though these studies were conducted more than a decade ago, and the current study did not ascertain this, these findings may still be applicable today.

### **5.3: Hypotheses 3a – 3d:**

**The positive relationship between QWL and QOL is strengthened when work has an Intrinsic value.**

**The positive relationship between QWL and QOL is weakened when work has an Extrinsic value.**

**The positive relationship between QWL and QOL is strengthened when work has a Social value.**

**The positive relationship between QWL and QOL is weakened when work has a Prestige value.**

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) states that an individual has three basic psychological needs that are most likely to be fulfilled through goal pursuits, for a greater quality of life. When an individual has intrinsic or social values, he or she is more likely to gain to higher quality of life, as both values are aligned with the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus, if an individual chooses to place either an intrinsic or social value onto work, it was assumed that he or she would express higher quality of life by way of satisfaction of the basic psychological needs. In contrast, if an individual chooses to place an extrinsic or prestige value onto work, he or she would express lower quality of life as it is in detriment to the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs. However, the findings in this study indicated that these hypotheses were not met.

The reasoning for the statistically insignificant results could be because the psychometric properties of the scale have not been validated within the South African context. There are several other well-known work values scales that have been used in literature,

namely, Super's Work Values Inventory (1970), Manhardt's Work Values Inventory (1972), and Schwartz's Work Values Survey (1992), however none of these, including the Lyons Work Values Scale (2003) have been used within this context. The scale has often been cited in Greek samples and other international samples, but the economic context is far different from that of South Africa's. As such, the samples may view work values differently and thus, influence the way in which they answer the questionnaire.

#### **5.4: Limitations**

Convenience sampling techniques were used to gather the data, as time was limited, thus leading to an unrepresentative sample being obtained. The final sample consisted mostly of coloured females, and this may be because of the patterns of the social networks of the participants within the study. This is common when using snowball sampling, as the final sample is always at risk of being over-represented in certain characteristics (Johnston & Sabin, 2010). Thus, the results should be viewed with caution as the final sample can not be generalised to the overall population.

#### **5.5: Theoretical contributions**

This current study has contributed to South African literature in several ways. Firstly, it has given current and relevant information indicating that the quality of South African's working lives does have an influence on their quality of life, something that has been covered extensively abroad (Sirgy et al., 2001; Koonmee et al., 2010; Gayathiri & Ramakrishnan, 2013; Marta et al., 2011). In doing so, it introduces the concept of need satisfaction within the work place and how the perceived quality of the working environment is related to South Africans' life satisfaction. In addition to this, this study sought to establish the role that work centrality may have within this relationship. The concept of work centrality has only been studied twice within the employment environment in South Africa, and both studies were conducted more than a decade ago (Genis & Wallis, 2005; Wallis & Price, 2003). However, the samples included in the studies were cohort specific, as Genis & Wallis (2005) made use of legal professionals, and Wallis & Price (2003), single working mothers. This study did not restrict itself to an industry or circumstance, and as such, provided a broader view regarding the role of work centrality within the South African employment sector.



## **5.6: Practical implications**

Given that the contemporary world of work is characterised by constant change and in the case of South Africa, more job losses, it is thus important to gain a deeper understanding of the underlying benefits of paid employment. Research continues to demonstrate how the satisfaction of needs relating to health, finance, social and esteem, to name a few, are important for a good quality of work life, and how this has influence on quality of life (Sirgy et al., 2001). As such, it may be time for policy makers in South Africa to consider alternatives to paid employment that would ensure sustainable livelihoods, whilst catering to some of the other benefits that would be lost in unemployment (Woodbury, 2017). In doing so, those who are unemployed may be spared from all the consequences associated with job loss.

## **5.7: Recommendations for future research**

The recommendation for future research would be to add in a qualitative component, to gain a deeper and richer insight into the ways in which individuals construct their working lives and how exactly this influences their quality of life. In doing so, the data gathered may guide researchers into what the possible moderating variables could be and how they interact within the main relationship.

## **5.8: Conclusion**

Employment has been shown to be one of the key determinants of overall life satisfaction as individuals spend most of their lives involved in the workplace (Kotze, 2005). Research has also shown that employment provides not only financial benefits, but other important latent benefits too (Jahoda, 1981, 1982, 1997). The current study has reviewed literature based on employment, focusing on individuals' quality of work life and its spillover into their quality of life. Research has stated that a high quality of work life is one in which many of the needs constituting the construct are met within the working environment, leading to satisfaction not only in the workplace, but in general life too (Sirgy et al., 2001). South African economists warn that the level of unemployment will rise in the country due to economic instability and an unstable government, putting additional pressure on the economy to create new jobs, whilst current job losses are approaching (Felix, 2018). Thus, it became important to evaluate what other factors may play a role in the devastating loss of paid employment.

Work is a central life interest in an individual's life when he or she chooses to spend all their time engaged in it, as it brings them their desired outcomes (Dubin, 1956). Thus, if

work is central to an individual, it means that he or she gains important outcomes from their work, and when they do, it is assumed that their quality of work life is high as they're gaining satisfaction. Similarly, work could hold different values for different individuals, and the value held determines the important outcomes that would be sought through work (Elizur, 1984; Lyons et al., 2010). If these outcomes are achieved or fulfilled, the individual is more likely to experience a higher quality of work life, and through spillover, quality of life. The findings in the study suggest that the centrality of work and the value that work may hold for individuals, do not influence the core relationship between the quality of work life and quality of life. This suggests that the most important element influencing quality of life is the process of need satisfaction, in creating a high quality of work life for individuals in South Africa.

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## Appendix A

### Quality of Work Life (Singhapakdi et al., 2014)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following by circling a number from 1-5 (1 = Completely Disagree; 5 = Completely Agree).

	Completely Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Completely Agree
1. I feel physically safe at work	1	2	3	4	5
2. My job provides good health benefits	1	2	3	4	5
3. I do my best to stay healthy and fit	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am satisfied with what I'm getting paid for my work	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel that my job is secure for life	1	2	3	4	5
6. My job does well for my family	1	2	3	4	5
7. I have good friends at work	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have enough time away from work to enjoy other things in life	1	2	3	4	5
9. I feel appreciated at work	1	2	3	4	5
10. People at work and/or within my profession respect me as a professional and an expert in my field of work	1	2	3	4	5
11. I feel that my job allows me to realise my full potential	1	2	3	4	5
12. I feel that I am realising my full potential as an expert in my line of work	1	2	3	4	5
13. I feel that I am always learning new things that help do my job better	1	2	3	4	5
14. This job allows me to sharpen my professional skills	1	2	3	4	5
15. There is a lot of creativity involved in my job	1	2	3	4	5
16. My job helps me develop my creativity outside of work	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix B

### Work Centrality (Kanungo, 1982)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following by circling a number from 1-5 (1 = Completely Disagree; 5 = Completely Agree).

	Completely Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Completely Agree
17. The most important things that happen in life involve work	1	3	4	5	6
18. Work is something people should get involved in most of the time	1	3	4	5	6
19. Work should be only a small part of one's life	1	3	4	5	6
20. Work should be considered central to life	1	3	4	5	6
21. In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work-oriented	1	3	4	5	6
22. Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in work	1	3	4	5	6

## Appendix C

### Work Values (Lyons, 2003)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following by circling a number from 1-5 (1 = Not at all important; 5 = Absolutely Essential).

	Not at all important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important	Absolutely essential
23. Having benefits (e.g. vacation pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan, etc.) that meet your personal needs	1	2	3	4	5
24. Doing work that makes a significant impact on the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
25. Having the authority to organise and direct the work of others	1	2	3	4	5
26. Working on tasks and projects that challenge your abilities	1	2	3	4	5
27. Having management that provides timely and constructive feedback about your performance	1	2	3	4	5
28. Working with agreeable and friendly co-workers with whom you could form friendships	1	2	3	4	5
29. Working in an environment that is lively and fun	1	2	3	4	5
30. Having the opportunity to continuously learn and develop new knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
31. Having the sense of job security	1	2	3	4	5
32. Having hours of work that are convenient to your life	1	2	3	4	5
33. Doing work that you find interesting, exciting and engaging	1	2	3	4	5
34. Having the freedom to make decisions about how you do your work and spend your time	1	2	3	4	5
35. Working in an environment that allows you to balance your work life with your private life and family responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
36. Having access to the information you need to do your job	1	2	3	4	5
37. Doing work that is prestigious and regarded highly by others	1	2	3	4	5
38. Doing work that affords you a good salary	1	2	3	4	5
39. Doing work that provides change and variety in work activities	1	2	3	4	5
40. Working where recognition is given for a job well done	1	2	3	4	5

41. Doing work that allows you to use the abilities you have developed through your education and experience	1	2	3	4	5
42. Having the opportunity for advancement in your career	1	2	3	4	5
43. Doing work that provides you with a personal case of achievement in your accomplishments	1	2	3	4	5
44. Doing work that allows for a lot of social interaction	1	2	3	4	5
45. Having the ability to influence organisational outcomes	1	2	3	4	5
46. Working for a supervisor who is considerate and supportive	1	2	3	4	5
47. Doing work that allows you to help people	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix D

### Quality of Life (Diener et al., 1985)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following by circling a number from 1-5 (1 = Completely Dissatisfied; 5 = Completely Satisfied).

	<b>Completely Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>Completely Satisfied</b>
48. In most ways my life is close to my ideal	1	2	3	4	5
49. The conditions of my life are excellent	1	2	3	4	5
50. I am satisfied with my life	1	2	3	4	5
51. So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life	1	2	3	4	5
52. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing	1	2	3	4	5



## Appendix E



Dear Respondent,

As part of the Organisational Psychology Masters Programme at the University of Cape Town (UCT), final year students are required to conduct research and produce a research dissertation. For my research I have chosen to study the relationship between South Africans' quality of life and work life. I would be grateful if you could assist me with my study by completing the attached questionnaire. It should take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town has approved this study. This questionnaire is completely anonymous, none of the information you provide will be linked to you. You do not have to answer any questions you are uncomfortable with, as your participation is voluntary. You may also withdraw from this study at any time.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study or are interested in the study results, please contact me on [jeannekayla12@gmail.com](mailto:jeannekayla12@gmail.com) and 081 018 8588, or my supervisor, Ines Meyer, at [ines.meyer@uct.ac.za](mailto:ines.meyer@uct.ac.za) and 021 650 3829.

Your participation is greatly appreciated.

## Appendix F

**Table 7**

*Communalities after extraction for the Work Values scale*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Initial</i>	<i>Extraction</i>
Having benefits (e.g. vacation pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan, etc.) that meet your personal needs	1.000	.49
Doing work that makes a significant impact on the organisation	1.000	.59
Having the authority to organise and direct the work of others	1.000	.54
Working on tasks and projects that challenge your abilities	1.000	.63
Having management that provides timely and constructive feedback about your performance	1.000	.57
Working with agreeable and friendly co-workers with whom you could form friendships	1.000	.58
Working in an environment that is lively and fun	1.000	.62
Having the opportunity to continuously learn and develop new knowledge	1.000	.58
Having the sense of job security	1.000	.56
Having hours of work that are convenient to your life	1.000	.66
Doing work that you find interesting, exciting and engaging	1.000	.68
Having the freedom to make decisions about how you do your work and spend your time	1.000	.51
Working in an environment that allows you to balance your work life with your private life and family responsibilities	1.000	.63
Having access to the information you need to do your job	1.000	.53
Doing work that is prestigious and regarded highly by others	1.000	.60
Doing work that affords you a good salary	1.000	.58

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Doing work that provides change and variety in work activities	1.000	.65
Working where recognition is given for a job well done	1.000	.62
Doing work that allows you to use the abilities you have developed through your education and experience	1.000	.48
Having the opportunity for advancement in your career	1.000	.65
Doing work that provides you with a personal case of achievement in your accomplishments	1.000	.55
Doing work that allows for a lot of social interaction	1.000	.65
Having the ability to influence organisational outcomes	1.000	.64
Working for a supervisor who is considerate and supportive	1.000	.57
Doing work that allows you to help people	1.000	.75

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## Appendix G

**Table 8**

*Component Matrix for the Quality of Work Life Scale*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Component 1</i>
I am satisfied with what I'm getting paid for my work	.59
I feel that my job is secure for life	.52
My job does well for my family	.58
I have enough time away from work to enjoy other things in life	.60
I feel appreciated at work	.74
People at work and/or within my profession respect me as a professional and an expert in my field of work	.61
I feel that my job allows me to realise my full potential	.83
I feel that I am realising my full potential as an expert in my line of work	.63
I feel that I am always learning new things that help do my job better	.70
This job allows me to sharpen my professional skills	.68
There is a lot of creativity involved in my job	.64
My job helps me develop my creativity outside of work	.71

## Appendix H

**Table 9**

*Component Matrix for the Work Centrality Scale*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Component 1</i>
The most important things that happen in life involve work	.65
Work is something people should get involved in most of the time	.66
Work should be only a small part of one's life	.55
Work should be considered central to life	.68
In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work-oriented	.62
Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in work	.68

## Appendix I

**Table 10**

*Component Matrix for the Extrinsic Values Scale*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Component 1</i>
Having benefits (e.g. vacation pay, health/dental insurance, pension plan, etc.) that meet your personal needs	.52
Having management that provides timely and constructive feedback about your performance	.62
Having the sense of job security	.56
Having hours of work that are convenient to your life	.52
Working in an environment that allows you to balance your work life with your private life and family responsibilities	.55
Having access to the information you need to do your job	.60
Doing work that affords you a good salary	.56
Working where recognition is given for a job well done	.59
Working for a supervisor who is considerate and supportive	.53

## Appendix J

**Table 11**

*Component Matrix for the Intrinsic Values Scale*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Component 1</i>
Working on tasks and projects that challenge your abilities	.75
Having the opportunity to continuously learn and develop new knowledge	.70
Doing work that you find interesting, exciting and engaging	.69
Doing work that provides change and variety in work activities	.67
Doing work that allows you to use the abilities you have developed through your education and experience	.54
Having the opportunity for advancement in your career	.50
Doing work that provides you with a personal case of achievement in your accomplishments	.67

## Appendix K

**Table 12**

*Component Matrix for the Social Values Scale*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Component 1</i>
Working with agreeable and friendly co-workers with whom you could form friendships	.73
Working in an environment that is lively and fun	.79
Doing work that allows for a lot of social interaction	.67
Doing work that allows you to help people	.59



## Appendix L

**Table 13**

*Component Matrix for the Prestige Values Scale*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Component 1</i>
Doing work that makes a significant impact on the organisation	.71
Having the authority to organise and direct the work of others	.63
Doing work that is prestigious and regarded highly by others	.75
Having the ability to influence organisational outcomes	.80

## Appendix M

**Table 14**

*Component Matrix for the Quality of Life Scale*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Component 1</i>
In most ways my life is close to my ideal	.83
The conditions of my life are excellent	.84
I am satisfied with my life	.82
So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life	.79
If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing	.58

## Appendix N

**Table 15**

*Johnson-Neyman Output Showing the Conditional Effect of the Focal Predictor at values of Intrinsic Values*

<i>Intrinsic Values</i>	<i>Effect Size</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
3.0	.98	4.11	> .001	.51	1.45
3.1	.95	4.26	> .001	.51	1.38
3.2	.91	4.43	> .001	.51	1.32
3.3	.88	4.63	> .001	.51	1.26
3.4	.85	4.86	> .001	.50	1.20
3.5	.82	5.12	> .001	.50	1.13
3.6	.79	5.43	> .001	.50	1.07
3.7	.76	5.78	> .001	.50	1.01
3.8	.72	6.19	> .001	.49	.95
3.9	.69	6.65	> .001	.49	.90
4.0	.66	7.14	> .001	.48	.84
4.1	.63	7.60	> .001	.47	.79
4.2	.60	7.91	> .001	.45	.75
4.3	.56	7.90	> .001	.42	.71
4.4	.53	7.47	> .001	.39	.67
4.5	.50	6.67	> .001	.35	.65
4.6	.47	5.71	> .001	.31	.63
4.7	.44	4.77	> .001	.26	.62
4.8	.41	3.93	> .001	.20	.61
4.9	.37	3.22	> .001	.14	.60
5.0	.34	2.64	= .009	.09	.60