CHAPTER - 3

AN OVERVIEW OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Rose, Beh, Uli and Idris (2006) QWL is a philosophy or a set of principles, which holds that people are trustworthy, responsible and capable of making a valuable contribution to the organization. It also involves treating people with respect. The elements that are relevant to an individual’s QWL include the task, the physical work environment, the social environment within the organization, administrative system and a relationship between life on and off the job (Rose, Beh, Uli & Idris, 2006).

Dolan, Garcia, Cabezas and Tzafrir (2008) state that the concern for QWL has preoccupied social scientists for the past several decades. QWL is a major issue for employees, and how organizations deal with this issue is both of academic and practical significance. Therefore, it is no wonder that thousands of studies have revolved around the concept of job satisfaction and stress as core concepts. QWL and its relationship with employee health and performance has become an explicit objective for many of the human resource policies in modern organizations (Dolan, Saba, Jackson & Schuler, 2007).

The aim of this chapter is to present an outline of the origin and development of the concept QWL, the definitions of QWL, different models that relate to QWL, the determinants of QWL, the measurement of QWL and the benefits of QWL to the organization. From this framework an attempt will be made to identify the QWL dimensions that will have an impact on employees work and as well as on personal life.
In order to have QWL, it is not enough to have a job that generates labor satisfaction. There are other factors involved, such as the physical conditions of the workplace, which contribute to a better or worse QWL. One factor is satisfaction with one’s work, but other relevant factors are the level of stress, fatigue, overcrowding, and weekend work schedules. All these factors contribute to determine the quality of life at work that an individual experiences, but also influential are the relations that the worker maintains with others in the workplace. A higher quality of life at work will undoubtedly be determined by elements relating to better or worse relationships, and trust and commitment with bosses and/or subordinates (Requena, 2003).

Therefore, from an organizational psychological perspective, Danna and Griffin (1999) have advanced the view that QWL involves a hierarchy of concepts that includes life satisfaction, job satisfaction and work-specific facet satisfaction such as satisfaction with pay, co-workers and supervisor among others.

Evaluation of quality of life must encompass all the above elements. QWL includes such areas as workers health and well-being, guarantee of employment, career planning, competence development, life and work balance and other. The results of the evaluation of QWL factors could be a possibility for the establishment, implementation and development of social programs in organizations, at national and international level (Van de Looij & Benders, 1995; Ruzevicius, 2006).

### 3.2 ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPT QUALITY OF WORK LIFE (QWL)

It would be an understatement to say that there has been and continues to be confusion about what QWL means (Nadler & Lawler, 1983). It has been used to refer to a wide range of concerns and projects, and it has been defined differently by its most articulate champions. Indeed, some of its staying power may be chalked up to its ambiguity as it can be and has been redefined as times have changed and as different people have used it.
The term QWL was first used in the late 1960s, originating with General Motors and the United Auto Workers, to describe workers’ level of job satisfaction. Irving Bluestone coined the term QWL, which began as a variable expressing the level of worker satisfaction and development into an approach and series of programs designed ultimately to increase worker productivity (Goode, 1989). Labour management cooperation guided the development and implementation of these early QWL efforts, resulting in workplaces where employees participated in problem solving and decision-making efforts to improve their work lives (Schalock & Begab, 1990). In addition, management attitudes become more concerned with the individual’s welfare, stressing positive inter personal relationships and overall improved working conditions (Bowditch & Bruno, 1982; Goode, 1989).

In the mid 1970s, QWL was considered in light of specific changes and methods that could be instituted in companies not only to enhance bottom line productivity, but also to increase employee identification and a sense of belonging and pride in their work (Davis & Cherns, 1975; Sashkin & Burke, 1987). Examples of these approaches include work teams autonomous groups, job enrichment and sociotechnical change (Charland, 1986; Gadon, 1984). Such approaches can be very effective, but must not be seen as cure – calls that can be introduced and implemented in a “connect the dots” fashion. These types of programs are frequently what come to mind when pondering QWL (Schalock & Begab, 1990).

3.2.1 Quality of work life as an outcome

Some authorities place the actual beginning of the QWL movement at the British coal mines more than fifty years ago. During the fifties and sixties, QWL was mostly regarded as a variable which focused on outcomes, such as job satisfaction and mental health, with their emphasis on the impact of work on the individual. It has been suggested that organizations should be evaluated on the basis of how successful they were in providing
QWL for their employees (Nadler & Lawler, 1983). Some researchers argue that the term QWL in the United States can be traced back to at least the late sixties (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993) and/or the early seventies (Ault, 1983; Skrovan, 1983, Kieran & Knuston, 1990). A series of national attitude surveys conducted at the University of Michigan in 1969 and 1973 helped draw attention to what was called the quality of employment or the sum total of the effects of job experiences on the individual (Nadler & Lawler, 1983).

According to Kieran and Knuston (1990) (Kotze, 2005), the term QWL originated with General Motors and United Auto Workers to describe levels of job satisfaction. The dominant theme of much QWL research was the assumption that individuals’ experiences of satisfaction or dissatisfaction define the quality of their work life (Wilcock & Wright, 1991; Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993). Thus as an outcome, QWL is measured by assessing an individual’s reaction to work or personal consequences of the work experience (Nadler & Lawler, 1983).

3.2.2 QWL as an approach and series of programs and methods

During the early seventies, many projects were launched in order to move labour and management toward cooperation in the improvement of QWL in the workplace. At the same time, there was interest on the part of the U.S. government, which led to such activities as the creation of a federal productivity commission and the sponsorship of a number of joint – labour QWL experiments. As a consequence of these projects, the term QWL became synonymous with certain approaches (Kotze, 2005).

A second definition of QWL emerged defining QWL as an approach, and focusing still on individual, rather than organizational outcomes. During this time, the improvement of QWL was often considered to proceed in two separate, but not mutually exclusive, directions. One direction concerned the alleviation or removal of negative aspects of work and working conditions to diminish fatigue, boredom, and psychological stress. The other direction concerned the modification of aspects of work and working conditions to
enhance capabilities of job holders and to relate jobs to some desirable future, in order to promote behavior deemed desirable or valuable for the individual and society (Kotze, 2005).

According to Kotze (2005), the aforementioned includes aspects such as increased productivity, improved personal initiative and growth potential, a more active social and community life, and greater capacity to cope with change. Changes in work and working conditions which may affect either or both aspects include modifying the content of jobs to provide tasks of increased interest, challenge, and job satisfaction as well as reduced conflict between the demands made on the individual at work and in other areas of life.

QWL was seen as the extent to which workers were able to satisfy important personal needs through their experiences within the organization, not only in terms of material matters, but also in terms of self-respect, contentment, an opportunity to use their talents, make a contribution, and for personal growth (Dessler, 1981).

Although QWL began as a variable focusing on the level of worker satisfaction, it developed during this period, into an approach and series of programs designed to increase worker productivity. Another definition of QWL emerged, namely QWL as a set of methods, approaches or technologies which improve the work environment in order to make it more productive and satisfying (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Nadler & Lawler, 1983). Here QWL referred to methods which attempt to serve both individual needs and organizational effectiveness and was considered in the light of specific changes and methods that could be instituted in companies to enhance employee identification and a sense of belonging and a feeling of pride in their work.

QWL was regarded as synonymous with concepts such as autonomous work groups, job enrichment, work structuring, innovative reward systems, and the design of work systems as integrated social and technical systems. Brooks and Gawel (2001) state that efforts to understand the theoretical underpinnings of QWL can be traced back to sociotechnical
systems (STS) theory. STS theory maintains that engaging employees fully in designing work gives them a sense of well-being as they find their work fulfilling. At the same time, it is productive in that it helps the organization reach its goals. This theory has emerged as a significant approach to designing organizations, especially at the technology and people interface. It recommends simultaneous modification of technical and social systems to create work designs that can lead both to greater task productivity and to increased fulfillment of organization members (Bachner & Bently, 1983). By the 1970s, Davis (Davis & Trist, 1974) used QWL to describe the work life of employees who worked in settings that used the STS approach in work design.

The above approach perceives QWL to have, at its core, two goals: (a) to humanize the work place and improve the quality of employees’ work experiences, and (b) simultaneously, to improve the overall productivity of the organization (Kotze, 2005). The central thrust to this perspective is that organizational productivity can be served by providing people with the opportunity to use their human capacities, pursue self-improvement, and identify with the work place. QWL responds to both organizational needs and worker growth needs for improved work and working conditions. This dual purpose is less explicit in traditional job satisfaction endeavors.

According to Rubinstein (1983), these dual and at times apparently conflicting needs, are nevertheless interdependent. Management in a QWL style encourages attention to both, and seeks to involve workers themselves in the process of integration. Most QWL programs are thus based on the assumption that organizational survival and economic well-being relate directly to the dynamics of the ‘total job environment’ for people.

Corporate education programs, including training and development, are seen as an integral part of human resource management in firms recognized for their outstanding QWL (Kirby & Harter, 2001). Stein (1983) argues that the issue is not whether productivity and high QWL are related, but rather to define the circumstances in which they can be increased. Cummings and Molloy (1977) propose four distinct strategies,
which represent sets of beliefs and findings about the causes of productivity and QWL, namely, autonomous work groups, job restructuring, participative management, and organization-wide change.

Methods such as quality circles are used to provide a vehicle for unlocking the potential in participation. Quality circles also provide a vehicle for allowing workers a sense of dignity, a sense of fuller participation in the organization, and an opportunity to develop their skills. Concurrently, they contribute to the organizational goals of increased productivity, cost reduction, and improved quality. Although quality circles are not the only vehicles for these purposes, it is being increasingly recognized that it is important to establish some form of method to exist for these purpose. Other interventions include suggestion boxes, general opinion surveys, all-employee meetings, representative communication councils, and worker representation boards of directors (Stein, 1983).

Thus the motivation for improving QWL rests largely on the strategy aimed at improving the performance of employees, rather than on the strategy aimed at evaluating the work environment as experienced by workers (Nzimande, 1983). According to Kiernan and Knutson (1990), the most complex view of QWL is the social movement or overall commitment not just to the bottom line, the employee, or society, but to the interaction of the three. Definitions of what criteria are relevant differ from the point of view of individuals, organizations, or society at large. Therefore QWL must be considered in light of the whole person if one is to understand and impact the QWL for an individual.

3.2.3 QWL as a movement

According to Nadler and Lawler (1983) (Kotze, 2005), QWL was regarded more as a movement instead of a specific program during the seventies. It was seen as a continuing process, not something with a beginning, a middle and an end, that could be turned on today and turned off tomorrow (Brooks & Gawel, 2001). The focus was on utilizing all of the organization’s resources, especially its human resources, better than what was done
yesterday and even better tomorrow, developing among all the members of an organization an awareness and understanding of the concerns and needs of others, and a willingness to be more responsive to those concerns and needs. Furthermore, Skrovan (1983) states that this perspective also includes improving the way things get done to assure the long-term effectiveness and success of organizations.

The terms participative management and industrial democracy were frequently employed to encompass the ideals of the QWL movement (Nadler & Lawler, 1983). Skrovan (1983) stated that the involvement and participation of employees in the creation of their work place was a central focus of every QWL process. Through this process, all members of the organization, through appropriate channels of communication set up for this purpose, have some say about the design of their jobs in particular and the work environment in general (Bachner & Bently, 1983). Thus QWL is defined as the process used by an organization to unlock the creative potential of its people by involving them in decisions affecting their work lives (Rubenstein, 1983).

Ellinger and Nissen (1987: 198) established the following definition of QWL after some discussion with five top management and five top union people of a large manufacturing facility in the USA: “Quality of Work Life is an environment based on mutual respect which supports and encourages individual participation and open communication in matters which affect our jobs, our business, our futures and our feelings of self worth”.

According to Rubenstein (1983), in order to accomplish this integration of organizational needs and worker growth needs through active employee participation, is vital to employees all facets of the organization so that their participation has a meaningful basis in the organization’s mission. Since many workers have not been invited to contribute their knowledge and skills to the solution or organizational problems in the past, they are not practiced in the necessary skills (Kotze, 2005). Many need to be trained to participate effectively in group settings and to acquire skills for participatory problem solving.
According to Kantsperger and Kuhnz (2005), systematic and regular training programs are expected to empower employees.

A method that can be used to unlock potential in worker participation is quality circles (Stein, 1983; Gerber, Nel & van Dyk, 1998). According to Ette, Pierce, Cannon and Daripaly (2005), the benefit of this approach is that it recognizes that individuals in the organization are one of the most valuable assets and attempts to tap the knowledge and insights of employees. Organizational change due to implementation of quality circles is a result of several aspects including fostering a change in employee attitude, development of individuals involved, creating a team spirit and positive working environment.

3.2.4 QWL as need fulfillment, employee well-being and work wellness

According to Kotze (2005) it seems that during the last decades there has been a tendency to focus research on QWL more from the perspective of the employee and the fulfillment of their needs. Although there is no formal definition of QWL, industrial psychologists and management scholars agree in general that QWL is a construct that deals with the well-being of employees and that QWL differs from job satisfaction (Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel & Lee, 2001).

Sirgy et al., (2001) states that there are two dominant theoretical approaches in the QWL literature, namely, need satisfaction and spillover. The need satisfaction approach to QWL is based on need-satisfaction models developed by Maslow (1954), McClelland (1961), Herzberg (1966) and Alderfer (1972). The basic tenet of this approach to QWL is that individuals have basic needs they seek to fulfill through work. Employees derive satisfaction from their jobs to the extent that their jobs meet these needs.

The spillover approach to QWL according to Sirgy et al. (2001) posits that satisfaction in one area of life may influence satisfaction in another. For example, satisfaction with one’s job may influence other life domains such as family, leisure, social, health,
financial, etcetera. There is horizontal and vertical spillover. Horizontal spillover is the influence of affect in one life domain on a neighbouring domain (e.g. job satisfaction, may influence feelings of satisfaction in the family life domain and vice versa). To understand the concept of vertical spillover, the notion of domain hierarchy must be understood. Life domains (job, family, leisure, community etcetera) are organized hierarchically in people’s minds.

At the top of the domain hierarchy is the most super ordinate domain, namely overall life. Feelings in this super ordinate domain reflect what quality of life (QoL) researchers call life satisfaction, personal happiness or subjective well-being. Subordinate to the most super ordinate life domain are major life domains such as family, job, leisure and community (Sirgy et al., 2001). Satisfaction/ dissatisfaction with each of these major life domains “spills over” to the most superordinate domain, thus affecting life satisfaction. For example, satisfaction in the job domain spills over vertically (bottom-up) affecting life satisfaction. This is vertical bottom – up spillover, which is different from vertical top-down spillover. The latter concept refers to the influence of life satisfaction on a particular life domain, namely, job satisfaction.

QWL differs from job satisfaction in that job satisfaction is construed as one of the many outcomes of QWL (Sirgy, et al., 2001). QWL does not only affect job satisfaction but also satisfaction in other life domains such as family life, leisure life, social life, financial life and so on. Therefore the focus of QWL is beyond job satisfaction. It involves the effect of the workplace on satisfaction with the job, satisfaction in non-work life domains and satisfaction with overall life, personal happiness and subjective well-being. Furthermore, Van Der Doef and Maes (1999) also regards job satisfaction as an outcome variable of QWL. Brooks and Gawel (2001) distinguish between job satisfaction and QWL by stating that conventional job satisfaction research focuses on the employee’s likes and dislikes, and sees the solution to problems as something for management to “fix”. QWL research on the other hand, focuses on the provision of opportunities for employees to make meaningful contributions to their organizations. According to Kerce
and Booth-Kewley (1993), job satisfaction is a simple way of conceptualizing QWL. It does not, however, by itself reflect the impact of the work environment on employees. While survey-based research on job satisfaction has found that workers are generally satisfied with their jobs, researchers using the case study have frequently found that workers are angry, unhappy, and bored.

3.2.5 Work/life balance and QWL

Balancing one’s life has become a prominent topic in society over the past decade or so. Just keeping up with life seems to be challenging for many individuals. Part of the reason for this challenge is that people are working longer hours than ever before (Bailey, 2006). However, longer working hours and working more days per year are not the only issues. The demographics of work and family have changed substantially with more single parent and dual-career couples in the workforce (Bailey, 2006).

In work/life literature the concept of work/ life is often coupled with the word “balance” (Bailyn, 2001; Williams, 2000). Work/life is commonly referred to as work and life or work and family to represent the dichotomy of these two areas of a person’s life. However, researchers in the field of work/ life often struggle with the term balance because it implies an equal distribution of work and life causing individuals to struggle with the idea that there should be an equal division between these two aspects of their lives (Ward, 2003). Instead, the terms integration or weaving is more appropriate. It is important to realize that work is a meaningful and necessary part of life for most people, not to be separated from life as in the notion work/ life (Rapport, Bailyn, Fletcher & Pruitt, 2002). It is not an either/ or and not everyone wants to give equal weight to work and personal life (Rapport et al., 2002). Therefore it is helpful to approach work/ life from an integrated perspective.

Men and women should be able to experience work and personal lives, not in conflict or as separate, but as integrated. To foster this integrated perception, it is important to view
work and personal life as interdependent, equally valued activities (Bailyn, Drago & Kochan, 2001). Jackson (2002) approaches integrating work and personal life by examining home and personal lives to see how work can be blended into them. Jackson’s (2002) research examines work/ life in diverse ways including integration, redefining home to integrate work, and breaking up or changing the workday to take time for personal activities.

Others agree that work/ life is an approach to changing the ways individuals work to that allows time for personal lives. The concept of work/ life balance has also become more apparent in literature relating to QWL (Kotze, 2005). Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) define work-family balance as the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in and equally satisfied with his work role and family role. The above-mentioned authors state that work-family balance is generally thought to promote well-being. Imbalance, in particular, work imbalance, arouses high levels of stress, detracts from quality of life and ultimately reduces individual’s effectiveness at work.

According to Kotze (2005) work-family balance enhances an individual’s QWL, as involvement in multiple roles protects or buffers individuals from the effects of negative experiences in any one role. Beyond this buffering effect, work-family balance is thought to promote well-being in a more direct manner. Balanced individuals experience low levels of stress when enacting roles, presumably as they are participating in role activities that are salient to them.

3.3 Definitions of quality of work life

Various authors include a description of the ideal definition of QWL. Although not all authors define QWL precisely, in most cases one can make an accurate deduction. Herewith, follows a few definitions, which will be referred to in the literature.
The first definition that emerged during the period 1959 to 1972 was QWL as a variable or outcome. Many authors working in this area saw QWL as an individual’s reaction to work or the personal consequences of the work experience.

During the period 1969 to 1975, a second definition of QWL as an approach emerged. The focus of this definition was on the individual rather than organizational outcomes, and at the same time QWL tended to be seen as meaning joint labour management cooperative projects, particularly those aimed at improving outcomes for both the individual and the organization.

A third definition emerged from 1972 to 1975 from a number of projects that were initiated during this period, namely QWL as methods. Individuals using this definition referred to QWL as a set of methods, approaches or technologies for enhancing the work environment, and for making it both more productive and more satisfying. In fact QWL was seen as synonymous with such concepts as autonomous work groups, job enrichment or the design of new plants as integrated social and technical systems.

The late 1970s (1975 to 1980) was a period during which interest in QWL activity decreased. Many authors felt that interest in the subject had waned with the onslaught of economic problems and the energy crisis. During this time, a number of individuals were concerned about maintaining the momentum that had been created and they decided to identify a coalition of interests that would support the contribution of QWL activities.

Organizations were formed to further the ideology of QWL. Out of these activities emerged the fourth definition of QWL as a movement. QWL was seen as more of an ideological statement about the nature of work and the worker’s relationship to the organization. The terms participative management and industrial democracy were frequently invoked as ideals of the QWL movement. According to Boisvert (1977), QWL is a set of beneficial consequences of working life for the individual, the organization and society.
The late 1970s and early 1980s (1979 to 1982) brought renewed interest in QWL. It was during this time that the fifth definition appeared. This definition was referred to as QWL equals everything. All organizational development or organizational effectiveness efforts became labeled as part and parcel of QWL. QWL was seen as a global concept and was frequently perceived as a panacea for cooperating with foreign competition, grievance problems and almost everything else. The definition of Carlson (1980) takes a resolutely organizational point of view. Carlson (1980) emphasizes the dynamism of QWL and describes it as a process experiencing constant change. Carlson (1980) refers to QWL as both a goal and an ongoing process for achieving that goal. As a goal, QWL is the commitment of any organization to work improvement: the creation of more involving, satisfying, and effective jobs, and work environments for individuals at all levels of the organization. As a process, QWL, calls for efforts to realize this goal through the active involvement of individuals throughout the organization.

Furthermore Nadler and Lawler (1983), defines QWL as a way of thinking about people, work, and organizations. Its distinctive elements are (1) a concern about the impact of work on people as well as on organizational effectiveness, and (2) the idea of participation in organizational problem solving and decision-making. Although this approach adequately integrates the three QWL constituents, its main weakness lies in attempting to define a complex subjective construct by means of an equally complex and subjective notion, that is, a way of thinking.

According to Skrovan (1983), QWL is a process of work organizations, which enables its members at all levels to actively participate in shaping the organization’s environment, methods and outcomes. This value-based process is aimed towards meeting the twin goals of enhanced effectiveness of the organization and improved quality of life at the work of employees.
During the 1990’s emphasis was on the subjective nature of QWL to the point of making it a concept specific to each individual. Nevertheless, this theoretical approach has the advantage of taking into account the advantage of the dynamic nature of QWL. Therefore, Kieran and Knuston (1990) define QWL as an individual’s interpretation of his/her role in the workplace and the interaction of that role with the expectations of others. The QWL is individually determined, designed and evaluated. QWL means something different to each individual, and is likely to vary according to the individual’s age, career stage, and/or position in the industry. Kerce & Booth-Kewley (1993) further add that QWL is a way of thinking about people, work and the organization.

Another definition that emerged during the last decade was QWL as a need fulfillment. Sirgy, Efraty, Siegal and Lee (2001), define QWL as employee satisfaction with a variety of needs through resources, activities, and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace. This definition returns to the concept of satisfaction as an underlying theoretical model. It suggests that 30 years after the concept first appeared, QWL is still being defined in terms of satisfaction. In addition to the above-mentioned definitions, Danna and Griffin (1999), view QWL as a hierarchy of concepts that includes life satisfaction (top of the hierarchy), job satisfaction (middle of the hierarchy) and work specific facet satisfaction such as satisfaction with pay, co-workers, supervisor, among others.

Maccoby (2001) defines QWL as a commitment of management and union to support localized activities and experiments to increase employee participation in determining how to improve work. This process is guided by union-management committees and facilitators, and requires education about the goals of work in training and group process.

Lau, Wang, Chan and Law (2001) opertationlized QWL as the favourable working environment that supports and promotes satisfaction by providing employees with rewards, job security and career growth opportunities. Indirectly the definition indicates that an individual who is not satisfied with reward, may be satisfied with job security and
to some extent would create the career opportunity provided by the organization for the
their personal as well as their professional growth.

The recent definition by Serey (2006) on QWL is quite conclusive and best meets the
contemporary work environment. The definition is related to meaningful and satisfying
work. It includes (1) an opportunity to exercise one’s talents and capacities, to face
challenges and situations that require independence and initiative and self-direction, (2)
an activity thought to be worthwhile by the individuals involved, (3) and activity in
which one understands the role the individual plays in the achievement of some overall
goals and (4) a sense of taking pride in what one is doing and in doing it well. The issue
of meaningful and satisfying work is often merged with discussions of job satisfaction,
and are believed to be more favourable to QWL. This study focused on the above
definition. Rethinam and Ismail (2008) define QWL as the effectiveness of the work
environment that transmit to the meaningful organization and personal needs in shaping
the values of employees that support and promote better health and wellbeing, job
security, job satisfaction, competency development and balance between work and non
work life.

The difficulty of defining QWL represents a sizable obstacle to the further development
of research in this field. Up to now, critique concerns primarily the difficulty of
operationalizing any definition that represents a significant theoretical advance. If this
criticism is justified, an examination of recent work on QWL should confirm the
difficulty of creating a link between the state of theoretical knowledge of QWL and its
application in research (Martel & DuPuis, 2006).

This review on the definitions of QWL indicates that QWL is a multi-dimensional
construct, made up of a number of interrelated factors that need careful consideration to
conceptualize and measure. It is associated with job satisfaction, job involvement,
motivation, productivity, health, safety and wellbeing, job security, competence
development and balance between work and non work life.
To sum up, the changes in the theoretical concept of QWL over some three decades have followed a fairly linear trajectory. Initially rigid and objective, the construct became progressively more subjective, dynamic and systemic. Despite all the work, many points are still subject to debate, including the need to develop a clear operational definition of the construct, while taking the progress and consensus achieved to date into account (Martel & DuPuis, 2006).

After drifting along on the prevailing conceptual wave during the 1970s, QWL became subject to a certain consensus during the next decade, based on the work of authors such as Nadler and Lawler (1983), Seashore (1975), Sashkin and Burke (1987) and others.

In the beginning, QWL was synonymous with employability rate, job security, earnings and benefits (Elizur & Shye, 1990). This listing of objective criteria soon gave way to job satisfaction as the target assessment criterion. Despite this shift to a more subjective construct, some researchers, such as Lawler (1975), remained convinced of the need for objective criteria to measure QWL. This contradiction between the theoretical way of thinking of the construct and the means to measure it is exacerbated by the different meanings given to QWL based on an individual (subjective criteria) or organizational (objective criteria) point of view (Walton, 1975).

The definitions of QWL most frequently quoted during the 1980s reveal a marked trend towards accepting the subjectivity of the construct. In his description of a QWL model as a dynamic process, Carlson (1980) defines QWL as an organizational goal, which the business is perpetually striving to achieve. Moreover, still from the organizational point of view, this author considers QWL as a philosophy which, even though it varies with organizations, brings them together under a common denominator: human dignity. Despite the many definitions of QWL, there are also different models that are related to QWL.
3.4 Different models that relates to QWL

In this section the different models that relates to QWL, namely, the integration model, the transfer model (or spillover effect), the compensation model, the segmentation model and the accommodation model, are discussed.

3.4.1 The Integration model

As early as 1975, Seashore conceptualized QWL as being based on three levels of actors involved in the work environment, that is, the employee, the company and the community. This approach differs from the concept of QWL that had here to been reserved for employees at the bottom of the pyramid. According to this model, the domains constituting QWL differ from the perspective of the employee, the company and the community, which contributes to the confusion surrounding the construct (Sashkin & Burke, 1987).

Ten years later, the concern for integration initiated by Seashore (1975) resurface, this time with a more holistic view of the role of the three structures involved. This integrative perspective considered QWL as a social movement with repercussions that extend beyond the strictly organizational framework (Kiernan & Knutson, 1990). Moreover, many authors have noted that workers are becoming better educated and that they now consider work as a tool for personal growth and social support rather than merely a means of achieving financial independence (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993). QWL therefore becomes an integral part of people’s overall quality of life (QOL). Kiernan and Knutson (1990) consider this model of QWL to be the most complex and the most contemporary developed to date.
3.4.2 The Transfer model (or Spillover Effect)

Job satisfaction affects other areas of life and vice versa (George & Brief, 1990). Kavanagh and Halpern (1977), Schmitt and Bedian (1982) and Kornhauser (1965) conclude that there is a positive correlation between work and areas of life outside of work. However, Staines (1980) adds certain nuances to this observation. Following an in-depth analysis of the research, he concludes that only certain spheres of work life are positively correlated with other spheres outside work. In support of this hypothesis, Rousseau (1978) claims that the transfer model does not apply to all kinds of jobs. Jobs with extreme characteristics (prolonged solitude, oppressive physical requirements, etc.) fit better with the compensation model.

For their part, Leiter and Durup (1996) add that the spillover effect between job satisfaction and personal life may be either direct or indirect. A direct effect can be observed when an objective condition of either one’s working or personal life (change of workplace, arrival of a new baby, etc.) influences the environment without the individual’s subjective perception being involved. An indirect effect results from the individual’s perception of an objective condition as creating either stress or satisfaction.

3.4.3 The Compensation model

The compensation model assumes that when a person is not satisfied at work, they will try to correct this situation through stimulating activities outside work (Rosseau, 1978; Schmitt & Bedian, 1982; Schmitt & Mellon, 1980; Staines, 1980). Staines’ (1980) analysis tends to confirm the compensation model in certain circumstances and shows that certain spheres of work life correlate negatively with areas outside work. For example, workers who have physically demanding jobs generally tend to seek out non-tiring leisure activities so that they can recuperate better.
The main criticism the various authors have concerning the compensation model is that, taken to the limit, this model predicts an inverse relation between job satisfaction and satisfaction outside work (Martel & DuPuis, 2006).

### 3.4.4 The Segmentation model

This model assumes that life at work and life outside work does not influence each other (Georges & Brief, 1990). Foucher, Savoie and Brunet (2003) add that the state that characterizes a person who makes this kind of segmentation may be qualified as psychological disengagement: in the face of the life or work domain that is divested.

Martin and Schermerhon (1983) in their stressor-health path analysis model identified a similar relationship between job and life satisfaction. Martin and Schermerhon (1983) projected that a clear separation of job and life dimensions creates balance, whereas a spillover of work-related feelings detrimentally affects life satisfaction. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) described the uniqueness of work and nonwork demands and wrote that an active role is often required to maintain a separation between roles. The model developed by Martin and Schermerhon (1983) stressed the importance of boundary creation between these two roles in order to maintain equilibrium. Leakages can develop between role boundaries as responsibilities in one area spill over to others. When workers are unable to maintain the balance between work and family, the likelihood for conflict between the two areas increases.

### 3.4.5 The Accommodation model

The Accommodation model consists of voluntarily reducing one’s investment in one sphere of activity in order to more adequately respond to the demands of another (Lambert, 1990). This way of reconciling work life and life outside work is particularly common among mothers of young children. However, considering the importance
recently given to “work life – family life” conciliation, this model will probably be suitable for more and more categories of workers, either men or women.

Loscocco and Roschelle (1991) mention that neither of the first three models described above have been universally accepted. Loscocco and Roschelle (1991) emphasize that the most solid support for any of the models comes from Schmitt and Bedian (1982), who confirm the existence of a relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. However, the results that Staines (1980) and Rosseau (1978) present qualify the adoption of any of the models and suggest that they should be applied based on the spheres and jobs studied.

Along the same lines, Elizur and Shye (1990) attempted to define the relationship between general QOL and QWL. In their efforts to clarify the situation, these researchers formulated a conceptual system in the shape of a cone, with QOL at the base of the cone and QWL at the apex.

Their results show that, in this model, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and perceived quality of work performance are located between the extremities of the cone. The authors interpret these results as follows: quality of work performance is affected by both QOL and QWL. Thus, to evaluate the total impact of the role of work for an individual, it is important to consider the work aspects likely to influence their life away from work. Consequently for these authors, an activity designed to increase QWL or general QOL may improve performance at work.

Apart from defining QWL, some scholars have operationalized the concept (Walton, 1973; Orpen 1981; Taylor, 1978). One of the first scholars to do so was Walton (1973), and emerging from his research was a number of determinants or components of QWL. Walton (1973) remains arguably the most comprehensive attempt to operationalize the concept, and attempts that have followed have mostly drawn from his endeavours and hence bear similarities. Orpen (1981) is an example of these authors who clearly adopted
and extended Walton’s (1973) criteria for the QWL, and Taylor (1978) whose investigations into the underlying structure of QWL revealed similarities to Walton’s categories.

From the above-mentioned, it is evident that there are a number of models that relate to QWL. Therefore, for the purpose of this study emphasis will be placed on the spill-over model since the model does not only capture need satisfaction, per se, but also employees’ perceptions of organizational sources of need satisfaction stemming from the work environment, job requirements, supervisory behaviour and ancillary programs. Managers can administer this measure to employees through a confidential and anonymous survey, and the survey results should reveal strategic gaps in the organization’s work environment, job requirements, supervisory behaviour and ancillary programs.

3.5 Determinants/ dimensions of QWL

An examination of what is involved in psychological growth, of what it is that distinguishes this condition from others, leads one to a consideration of the so-called dimensions or determinants of QWL. In effect, what is being proposed is a set of yardsticks which could be used to assess QWL. It should be clear that these determinants or dimensions must both include those that have been set down by each of the previous reform movements as well as the more recent ones concerned with job satisfaction, namely effective performance, mental health and psychological growth.

In the this section the focus will be on the determinants/ dimensions of QWL namely, adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy working conditions, immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities, future opportunity for continued growth and security, social integration in the work, constitutionalism in the work organization, work and total life space and the social relevance of work life.
3.5.1 Adequate and fair compensation

According to Schreuder and Theron (1997) and Walton (1973) the fundamental driving force behind work is to earn a living. It is therefore plausible that QWL is affected by the extent to which this goal is achieved (Walton, 1973). Similarly, Nirenberg (1993) cites Walton’s QWL determinant of adequate and fair compensation as a factor to consider when wishing to operationalize QWL programs. Both the factors of adequate and fair compensation are therefore considered important determinants of QWL. Difficulties are however experienced in terms of assessing what constitutes adequate compensation. This difficulty stems from the relativity of the concept in that the work situation and the particular employee concerned largely influence its operational definition (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). Operationally defining ‘fairness’ in compensation is less challenging and at least three ways exist to determine fairness in compensation.

Fairness can be determined through job evaluation measures such as job ranking, job classification and by factor comparison (Schuler, 1998). These measures assist in assessing the relationship between compensation and factors such as training that is required, job responsibility, intricacy of decision-making and harmfulness of working conditions (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973).

Concomitantly, various techniques are available to determine the supply and demand for particular skills and competencies, and for establishing average levels of compensation for these various categories, thus enabling the implementation of fair compensation levels (Schuler, 1998). Furthermore, benchmarks can be used to determine what proportions of profits should be distributed to employees in different occupations and across different categories within these occupations (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973).

Stein (1983) and Reid (1992) have also recognized the importance of compensation in determining QWL. Stein (1983) identified pay as being one of five important components of QWL, although its categorical classification is somewhat different to Orpen (1981)
and Walton (1973). Stein includes pay under the category of external rewards, which in addition to pay includes promotion or position, and rank or status. Reid (1992) who evaluated the QWL of clothing workers confirmed Walton’s (1973) proposition that compensation does indeed play a critical role in determining QWL, although the employees within the study did not experience fairness and adequacy of compensation. Results of the study indicated low levels of QWL, which confirms the importance of compensation ‘adequacy’ and ‘fairness’ in influencing QWL. Finally, additional support is provided by Newell (2002) who whilst not alluding specifically to compensation, emphasizes the importance of reward systems that take cognizance of both individual and group contribution.

3.5.2 Safe and healthy working conditions

It is widely accepted that employees should not be exposed to working conditions that can adversely affect their physical and mental health (Orpen, 1981). Consequently, the results of employer concern, union action, and legislation have promoted favourable working conditions through focus on noise, illumination, workspace, accident avoidance as well as the implementation of reasonable work hours and age limits for potential employees (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973).

Like Walton (1973) and Orpen (1981), (Newell, 2002); Stein, (1983); Kerce & Booth-Kewley, (1993); Bertrand, (1992) and Harrison (2000), agree that safe and healthy work conditions have a significant impact on QWL. Newell (2002) highlights that QWL involves making improvements to the physical working conditions under which employees operate in order to make their work setting more favourable.

Stein (1983) suggests that whilst sometimes overlooked it is almost impossible to experience QWL without decent working conditions. Concomitantly, Kerce & Booth-Kewly (1993) suggest that a high QWL is likely to occur when amongst other factors such as job involvement and democratic supervision and a safe working environment is
experienced. Harrison (2000) focusing upon the measurement of QWL suggests that by asking employees their opinions surrounding their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their work environment, can lead to an increased sense of belonging to the organization and in conjunction with other employee-centered areas can lead to an overall perception of QWL.

The trouble with both compensation and working conditions is that, while in themselves they are very capable of removing feelings of job dissatisfaction, they are seldom able to arouse strong feelings of satisfaction (Orpen, 1981). For most, but clearly not for all, employees in contemporary western society, fair compensation and good working conditions function mainly as hygiene factors (Herzberg, 1959).

The above point demonstrates that even if compensation and working conditions are excellent, one may still have a long way to go before the situation is such that one can speak of it as leading to the psychological well-being of employees (Orpen, 1981). Despite working conditions that are excellent and pay that is very good, employees may feel that their needs for personal growth cannot be properly gratified in the work situation. Because they regard their work as restrictive and stultifying their experiences in the job may be the opposite of those characterized by the phrase, psychological well-being. Moreover, if they felt that these needs could be met, employees may lack the necessary ability and job knowledge to really perform effectively and may suffer feelings of inadequacy as a result, neither of which are conductive to a state of psychological well-being. Hence, while the provision of excellent working conditions may be necessary for a high QWL, it is clearly insufficient by itself (Orpen, 1981).

3.5.3 Immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities

Walton (1973) asserts that experiencing a high QWL is dependent upon the extent to which jobs allow the employee to use and develop his/ her skills and competencies. In light of the above - mentioned, jobs should contain a number of features that would allow
employees the opportunity to use and develop their human capacities and eventually experience QWL. These features include autonomy, skill variety, task significance and feedback, meaningfulness and wholeness. Orpen (1981) agrees with the importance of these features in determining QWL, yet locates their significance as contributing to personal growth, another of Walton (1973) determinants. A distinction in terms of the classification of the determinants of QWL is therefore witnessed.

The feature of skill variety allows employees the opportunity to use and develop their human capacities through exercise of their competencies, skills and abilities rather than the reception of limited, narrow skills (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). Oomens, Geurts and Scheepers (2007) found that people suffer more from mental illness when they have demanding jobs, experience higher job pressure and lower skill variety. The structural approach suggested by Herman and Hulin (1972) and Loscocco (1990) hints at the necessity of jobs to contain variety. Stein (1983) refers to the component of progress and development which implies that the development of skills and competencies are an important contributing factor for QWL to be high.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed that jobs which require the use of multiple talents are experienced as more meaningful and therefore more intrinsically motivating than jobs that require only the use of one or two types of skills. Pinder (1984) and Ramlall (2004) pointed out that the inclusion of task variety as an element of job design is consistent with the concept of growth need satisfaction, as well as with more psychological approaches taken by activation theory. It is not consistent, however, with Herzberg’s approach, which refers to the simple addition of tasks as horizontal job loading or as job enlargement.

3.5.4 Future opportunity for continued growth and security

According to this determinant of QWL, the emphasis is shifted from job to career advancement (Walton, 1973). Although Orpen’s (1981) research reflects a degree of overlap between this determinant and the previous one, similarly what he categorized as
‘opportunity for personal growth’ includes focus upon the opportunities that are provided for employees to advance in their careers. This also relates to the idea of professional learning as a means for career development or succession possibilities (Bertrand, 1992). Meaningful and satisfying work is said to include: (1) an opportunity to exercise one’s talents and capacities, to face challenges and situations that require independent initiative and self-direction (and which therefore is not boring and repetitive work); (2) an activity thought to be of worth by the individual involved; (3) work which one understands the role one’s activity plays in the achievement of some overall goal; and (4) pride in what one is doing and in doing it well. This issue of meaningful and satisfying work is often merged with discussions of job satisfaction, however, Rose, Beh, Uli and Idris (2006) believed this favorable estimate to QWL instead.

There are three distinctive elements of QWL related interventions: (1) a concern about the effect of work on people as well as organizational effectiveness, (2) the idea of worker participation in organizational problem-solving and decision-making and (3) the creation of reward structures in the workplace which consider innovative ways of rewarding employee input into the work process such as gain sharing. In the 1980s, emphasis was increasingly placed on employee centered productivity programs. In the mid 1990s till today, many organizations are faced with challenges of downsizing and corporate restructuring.

Most people want to improve their performance on the job, to receive constructive suggestions regarding areas they need to work on and to be commended on their job well done. Thus, employees during their career will like to experience growth and development, a sense of where one is going in one’s work life. QWL encompasses the career development practices used within the organization such as placing clear expectations on employees on their expectations and succession plans.

Careers arise from the interaction of individuals with organizations and society. Careers are not primarily a theoretical construct, but are used in meaningful ways given meaning
it creates meaning and also experience. Careers are typically defined as a sequence of work roles (Morrison & Holzbach, 1980) or a sequence of a person’s work experiences over time (Arthur, Hall & Lawrence, 1989).

Many career models propose that individuals may view their career differently depending on which age-related career stage they are (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995; Veiga, 1983). In particular, researchers have observed that in early stages of their careers, individuals are often willing to sacrifice their personal lives in the interests of their career progression. Research also suggests that career tenure and total tenure in one’s occupation are positively related to career achievement (Judge & Bretz, 1994).

Thus, having occupational tenure and international experience will positively predict career success. The level of accomplishment in their job and career should affect career achievement. Considerable research also supports the relationship between the number of hours worked per week and salary and ascendancy (Judge & Bretz, 1994) meaning that the desire to spend time at work predicts career achievement. Cox and Cooper (1989) in trying to discover the motivation behind successful executives’ long work hours, found that these executives enjoyed working long hours. It was found that ambition or the desire to get ahead was one of the best predictors of advancement in their study of American Telegraphic & Transfer (AT&T) managers. A positive relationship between ambition and career achievement has been found in several other studies of managers and executives (Cannings & Monmarquette, 1991).

3.5.5 Social interaction in the work organization

According to Walton (1973) and Orpen (1981), the importance of social interaction is another determinant of QWL. Five factors, namely, supportiveness, tolerance, equality, mobility and identification are considered essential for these interactions to have beneficial outcomes for individuals.
Supportiveness relates to the nature of relationships between team members, which should be characterized by socio-emotional assistance, respect for individuality, reciprocity, trust, openness and honesty (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). According to Bertrand (1992) the idea of supportiveness should also be demonstrated within supervisory relationships which should be both helpful and caring in nature. Some researchers have included supervisor support as an important determinant/dimension of QWL.

3.5.6 Constitutionalism in the work organization

Besides the above dimensions or determinants that help to define what constitutes QWL, there are another set that are frequently overlooked by industrial psychologists, since they are essentially of a legal nature, and are concerned not so much with how people behave but rather with what rights they should enjoy, whether they exercise them or not. The criteria to be proposed are essentially concerned with the extent to which work organizations, acting either in response to trade union pressure or on their own initiatives, have set up formal procedures to protect the individual worker from arbitrary and capricious actions by employers (Orpen, 1981).

According to Bell (1974), Friedman (1961) and Hill (1971) only if the work organization ensures that the following so-called rights of individuals are officially respected can the quality of life be high. The following are some of the workers’ rights that should be noted in the work place.

The first is privacy, which refers to the right of individuals to personal privacy. The fact that they are entitled to expect that things they consider part of their private lives are not divulged to others without their permission (Orpen, 1981).

Furthermore, Orpen (1981) includes equity which is the right of the individual to equitable treatment in all matters of the importance on the job, such as compensation,
status, security and advancement. Free speech is another right which includes the right of the individual to disagree openly with the ideas and opinions of their superiors in the organization without fear of reprisal or subsequent victimization (Orpen, 1981).

Another right includes due process which refers to the right of individuals to be governed by the rule of law rather than by the arbitrary and capricious actions of particular individuals, with established procedures to prevent them suffering unfairly at the hands of others. It entails that all people in the organization, from the lowest to the highest level, should have the same access to appeals and to due process procedures.

The last right according to Orpen (1981) is equality which refers to the right of individuals not to be penalized as of their membership of any particular group or class. It implies that all individuals are entitled to expect to be treated in the same way as others, irrespective of the sex, race, religion or social class.

3.5.7 Work and total life space

The above-mentioned refers to the extent to which there is a balanced role of work in the employee’s other life spheres. This concept of a balanced role encompasses work, schedules, career demands, and travel requirements that do not continually take up leisure and family time and advancement and promotion that do not require repeated geographical moves (Walton, 1973).

According to Orpen (1981) there is a wealth of evidence which points to the fact that an individual’s non-work experiences can have positive or negative effects on his or her non-working life, such as how he or she spends his or her leisure time and what sort of relations he or she has with family members. The importance of this point for the concept of quality of life is that work organizations, by virtue of this kind of ‘spillover effect, influence an individual’s life of the job.
3.5.8 The social relevance of work life

According to Walton (1973), organizations which do not act in a socially responsible manner are suggested to cause increasing numbers of their employees to depreciate the value of their work and careers that, in turn, will affect their self-esteem. It is obvious therefore that QWL is affected by all facets of the employee’s functioning in the organization. Effective utilization of an employee and his or her satisfaction in the job are essential if a high QWL is to be maintained in an organization. As a consequence, work organizations whose actions are seen to have beneficial consequences receive more acclaim and are accorded more prestige than those whose actions are felt to have injurious or harmful consequences (Orpen, 1981).

According to Knez-Riedl, Matjaz Mulej and Dyck (2006) the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) is not new. But the era of globalization and the so-called new economy demand that companies comprehend all the different problems of their employees and their partners in their social and business environments, and work with them in solving broader societal problems. These include producing and implementing innovative ideas in order to contribute to a higher QWL in the originating community. Business behavior must be aimed at meeting societal needs, generating revenues and profits, creating jobs, and investing in the future company development as well as its societal and business environments. Corporate social responsibility is being put on stage anew by certain European Union Documents, such as the “Green Paper on Promoting a European Framework for Corporate Social Responsibility” (EU, 2001, p. 366) and the “EU Strategy for Sustainable Development,” launched in 2001. From the viewpoint of the firm, working along these lines provides several economic benefits, including a responsible corporate image, increased sales, improved customer loyalty (Knez-Riedl, Matjaz Mulej & Dyck, 2006).

Socially responsible behavior, then, includes a broad array of actions such as behaving ethically, supporting the work of nonprofit organizations, treating employees fairly, and
minimizing damage to the environment (Mohr & Webb, 2005). In practical terms, both scientific evidence (Margolis & Walsh, 2003) and consumer reaction (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001) have signaled to firms that their participation in CSR is likely to be rewarded, resulting in improved performance. CSR participation can enhance various stakeholder relations (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001), thereby reducing a firm’s business risk (Boutin – Dufresne & Savaria, 2004). For these reasons, the strategic value of CSR is becoming increasingly recognized (Porter & Kramer, 2002; Saiia, 2002).

The importance of this aspect of organizational life derives from the fact that employees who feel their organization is acting in a socially responsible manner, in terms of such things as its products and services, will tend to value their work and careers more highly as a result, which in turn is likely to enhance the self-esteem and well-being (Orpen, 1981).

Conversely, organizations which are seen to be acting in a socially irresponsible manner in the above-mentioned respects will cause increasing numbers of their members to depreciate the value of their work and careers, with negative consequences for their self-esteem and well-being. What this means for the individual work organization set on improving the quality of life of its members is that it must ensure that its various actions are seen by its own members to be socially responsible in the broadest sense. To do this requires that the work organization at least know what actions its various members regard as socially responsible and irresponsible, in terms of the conceptions of what constitutes quality of life in general (Orpen, 1981).

### 3.5.9 Recognition for achievement

Recognition for achievement is defined by Kotze (2008) as the recognition for achievements by management, colleagues, subordinates and clients. Closely related to task significance is feedback. Feedback refers to the necessity of organizations to speedily provide employees with information and accurate knowledge regarding their
performance and its wider organizational impact (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). Hackman and Oldham (1979) suggested that feedback is a critical factor in reducing absenteeism, and employee turnover. Further, feedback is effective in delivering the personal and behavioural outcome variables.

Constructive feedback not only helps employees do their work more effectively but also improves communication between supervisors and employees. When specific and accurate information is provided in a constructive way, both employees and supervisors can improve or change their performance. All employees who perform well should receive frequent praise and encouragement, whereas those who are not performing at the expected level should be informed of any problems and coached on how to improve. Appraising employees of good performance helps maintain their motivation and signals them to continue in this direction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Communicating with employees in a positive manner when they need to improve their performance will help prevent work problems and minimize surprises during the performance review. For example, performance feedback may mitigate the positive relationship between work–home interference and exhaustion, because adequate feedback reduces the tendency to worry at home about work-related issues (Bakker Demerouti & Euwema, 2005).

### 3.5.10 Meaningfulness and significance of work

Meaningfulness according to Orpen, (1981) relates to the fact that the duties and tasks that define a particular job, should make sense to the person who has to perform that job, in that he feels that doing the job well or poorly will make a difference to himself and to others in the organization. Research on meaningful work has increased in recent years (Chalofsky, 2003; Dolet, 2003) and the growing interest in the academic field parallels with the interest and concern in the world of work.

Meaning according to Chalofsky (2003) is found to be more deeply intrinsic than values and suggests that it amounts to three levels of satisfaction, namely, extrinsic, intrinsic and
something even deeper. Csikszeentmihalyi (1990) in his attempt to define meaning, proposes that any definition of the term would undoubtedly be circular, indicating a three sphere approach including purpose, the intentions one holds and clarifying the term in context. Thomas (2000), highlighting the role of meaningfulness identifies the four critical intrinsic reward motivators as a sense of meaning and purpose, a sense of choice, a sense of competence and a sense of progress.

According to Chalofsky (2003) meaning and work may present an even greater challenge to define and purports that meaning at work implies that there is a relationships between the individual and the organization in terms of commitment, loyalty and dedication. Furthermore, Chalofsky (2003) advocates that meaning in work, also termed meaningful work, is the way one expresses the meaning and purpose of one’s life through work activities although work is just one area of an individual’s life. In essence, meaningful work is that which gives real substance to what one does, which brings a sense of fulfillment to one's life and contributes significantly to one’s purpose in life. Chalofsky (2003) identifies three themes which determine meaningful work, namely, a sense of self, the work itself, and the sense of balance which overlap and intertwine and are reflected in the term integrated wholeness or meaningful work.

Therefore according to Grady and McCarthy (2008) meaningful work is influenced by an inclusiveness of all the aspects of one’s life beyond that of paid employment which can lead to an integrated wholeness for the individual. However to attain a state of meaningful work, it is critical that no one sphere is so dominant that it adversely impacts the value gained from the other spheres. In conclusion, meaningful work is not just about the paid work that one does, but about the manner in which one lives one life, incorporating one’s values and principles and doing so with honesty.

According to Wrezesniewski, Dutton and Debebe (2003), the meaning people make of their work is tied to their attitudes about the work they do and their overall wellbeing. It is evident that research regarding meaningful work has increased in recent years
(Chalofsky, 2003; Dolet, 2003) and the growing interest in the academic field parallels with the interest and concern in the world of work (Grady & McCarthy, 2008).

Task routinization in particular, has demonstrated strong negative relationships with overall job satisfaction, as routine tasks generally reflect a high degree of repetitiveness in the job and therefore fail to generate enthusiasm in employees (Iverson & Maguire, 2000). Furthermore Farh, Podsakoff and Organ (1990) suggested that task characteristics may influence helpful behaviours by creating a sense of responsibility and rendering work more psychologically meaningful or satisfying. Thus enhanced satisfaction and enjoyment in the task could foster a sense of helpful behavior in employees by enabling them to appreciate the overall importance of the job in relationship to the global functioning of the organization, thus supporting the earlier work of Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980).

The job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham (1980) also predicts that jobs higher in skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback will create a greater experience of meaning, responsibility and knowledge of results. Increases in these latter three variables, the critical psychological states, are in turn predicted to result in greater job satisfaction, higher internal work motivation, better work performance, lower level of absence and labour turnover.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) stated that when an individual understands that the results of his work may have a significant effect on his well-being the meaningfulness of that work is usually enhanced. Thus, employees who maintain commercial aircraft may perceive their work as more meaningful than employees who repair small engines. Furthermore, Hackman and Oldham (1980) have looked at job meaning in terms of skill variety applied to the job, the level of control employees have over completion of the task (task identity), and the impact of the job on others (task significance). The meaning that is inferred from these job elements involves the overall value or worth of the job in organizational context. In fact, job design researchers have argued that people implicitly
seek to understand the meaningfulness of their work in terms of whether it is broadly worthwhile and valuable (Wrezesniewski, Dutton & Debebe, 2003).

Hakanen (2004) stated that having a good Sense of Coherence (SOC) has been found to be positively related to well-being and negatively related to stress and burnout. Furthermore, although the research findings are still not conclusive there is evidence that SOC may (1) directly be associated with health and (2) mediate the effects of working conditions on health and (3) moderate the relationship between perceived work characteristics and health (Hakanen, 2004).

According to Antonovsky (1987) sense of coherence (SOC) is crucial to the prevention of ill-health and the maintenance of good health. SOC consists of three components, namely, comprehensiveness, manageability and meaningfulness. Comprehensiveness refers to characteristics as to how people perceive external events (e.g. what happens to them or around them at work), and how they interpret them. Manageability is the expectation that an individual has adequate resources available to cope with the variety of demands.

Meaningfulness is more related to emotions and motivation about work, the value an individual gives to a work goal or purpose, in relation to one’s own ideals and standards. The lack of meaningfulness can lead to alienation or disengagement from work (Antonovsky, 1987).

Furthermore, management-related conditions of work that are linked with negative health include lack of control, autonomy, influence, participation or decision latitude (Dryer & Quine, 1998; Glass & McKnight, 1996), lack of supervisor support (Dolan et al., 1992), lack of perceived organizational and general support (Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage & Sucharski, 2004) and subjective unemployment as well as lack of skill utilization.
3.5.11 Work load/pressures and work

Nordqvist, Hovmark and Zika-Viktorsson (2004) found that deadlines and time pressures are important regulators for how work is planned and practiced. Deadlines regulate and help structure the work through the breakdown of projects into interim goals, different courses of action and time anchoring. Activities and tasks are given a certain time frame, and the existence of a deadline motivates workers to start working on the task. The motivation intensifies as the deadline approaches and the workers increase their activity when they feel the time pressure because of a forthcoming deadline. Absence of time pressure can lead to attention straying to activities outside the task or to indifference (Gevers, Van Eerde & Rutte, 2001).

Van Eerd (2002) also mentioned that having high levels of time pressure can endanger the loss of enthusiasm and an ability to act high levels of time pressure produce stress, which in turn lead to passivity and avoidance may occur. This can have negative effects on workers’ health and performance. Previous research emphasizes the importance of having a clear direction that specifies workers’ purpose and orientates them towards its objectives. A well formulated and established goal enhances motivation and improves effectiveness (Nordqvist, Hovmark & Zika-Viktorsson, 2004).

Further, Waller, Conte, Gibson and Carpenter, (2001) stated that more common are situations in which workers are expected to achieve high levels of performance under extreme time pressure. In general, time pressure has a number of different consequences. At the individual level, time pressure leads to (1) faster performance rates, (2) lower performance quality and (3) more heuristic information processing, meaning, people stop considering multiple alternatives, engage in shallow rather than thorough and systematic processing of information and refrain from critical probing of a given seemingly adequate solution or judgement (De Dreu, 2003; Durham, Locke, Poon & McLoed, 2000; Kelly & Loving, 2004). Under high time pressure workers see task completion as their main
objective and complete the task as quickly as possible, but at the sacrifice of quality (Van der Kleij, Lijkwn, Rasker & De Dreu, 2008).

### 3.5.12 Autonomy and control

The feature of autonomy suggests that a job should be designed in such a manner that it affords the employee a degree of independence and discretion in terms of how the job is carried out (Orpen, 1981). Stein (1983) too emphasizes the importance of autonomy or control and defines it as the ability to influence one’s working environment. Similarly, Newell (2002) suggests that QWL involves providing employees with greater responsibility and autonomy. In addition, Kerce & Booth-Kewley (1993) reflect upon the work of Herman and Hulin (1972) and Loscocco (1990) who point towards various situations and or structural factors, entitled the structural approach, within a job that affect QWL. A job that lacks autonomy will result in low QWL.

Different empirical results and theories about occupational stress have regarded job autonomy to be crucial for the health of employees, mainly because greater autonomy is associated with more opportunities to cope with stressful situations (see Jenkins, 1991; Karasek, 1998). Several studies with the Demand Control Model (DCM) have indeed confirmed that autonomy may act as a buffer against the influence of job demands (work overload, time pressure; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999).

According to Karasek and Theorell (1990) healthy work conditions may be obtained by organizational reconstruction emphasizing opportunities for taking responsibility through participative decision-making. Decision authority, skill discretion and learning opportunities may be mutually reinforcing aspects of work (Mikkelsen, Saksvik, Eriksen & Ursin, 1999). An ideal work environment would facilitate an active approach towards learning new behavior patterns or solving problems. In this type of environment, demands may be seen as challenges and opportunities for growth and learning rather than as burdens. According to the active learning hypothesis (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), most
learning should take place in demanding and challenging situations and especially when the individual is able to exercise his or her decision-making capabilities. Given sufficient decision authority the individual is then free to choose the best way to cope with a new problem. The new behaviour response, if effective, is more likely to be stored (learned) and incorporated in the repertoire of coping strategies.

In the demand-control model, decision authority and learning opportunity are part of the control concept, and the relationship between demands, control and social support is emphasized. The conceptual relationship between decision authority and learning opportunities may be illustrated by a two-by-two model

![Diagram showing relationship between decision authority and learning opportunities](image)

Figure 2.1 An illustration of the relationship between decision authority and learning opportunities in a workplace situation (Mikkelsen, Saksvik, Eriksen & Ursin, 1999).

High levels of decision authority and high levels of learning opportunities make an individual feel that he or she has control over the learning process (Cell 2, figure 2.1). Low levels of decision authority and low levels of learning opportunities (Cell 3, figure 2.1) should result in a work situation characterized by routine work, low task variety and no influences on how and when to do the job. In situations with high learning
opportunities and low levels of decision authority (Cell 4, figure 2.1), the employees are trained, but there is still management control over the learning process. Finally, when decision authority is high, and the opportunities to learn are low (Cell 1, figure 2.1), the situation may be characterized by a lack of challenge and boredom as a possible consequence. Referring to the conceptualization in the above figure, the least amount of health problems are expected when people have high levels of decision authority and learning opportunities (Cell 2) and the highest amount of problems when they have low decision authority and low learning opportunities (Cell 3) (Mikkelsen, Saksvik, Eriksen & Ursin, 1999).

Decision authority refers to the freedom of decision – making over one’s work (Van Der Doef & Maes, 1999). Health depends not only on the work load, but also on whether an individual feels that he or she is in control of the situation. When this is the case, health may be preserved even in difficult and even taxing situations (Levine & Ursin, 1991). In a monograph on healthy work, Karasek and Theorell (1990) formulated the relationship between these two factors in their demand-control model. Their control concept also referred to as decision latitude, consists of the authority to make decisions (decision authority) and the opportunities to use skills that the individual has acquired (skill discretion).

3.5.13 Identification with and enjoyment of work

Task significance relates to whether or not an employee is encouraged to seek and receive holistic information about all job aspects so as to allow for both the divulging and appreciation of the significance of the job within the broader organization (Walton, 1973). This is where the employee may perceive his/her work as significant and thus may contribute to the satisfaction of esteem needs (Ramlall, 2004). The continuing acquisition of knowledge is usually regarded as essential for psychological growth. Growth comes from exposure to unfamiliar and novel experiences, in the work situation and beyond, which are absorbed into the fabric of an individual’s personality (Orpen, 1981). Need
satisfaction models contend that work should be challenging and require workers to use skills and knowledge if they are to be motivated (Lee-Ross, 2002). If jobs are unskilled and easily accomplished, it is likely that employees will become bored and frustrated. This situation will give rise to job dissatisfaction unless job elements are changed in a positive way (Lee-Ross, 2002).

Internally motivated work behaviour may only develop if critical psychological states exist among employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Core job dimensions must be present to create these psychological states. Experienced meaningfulness of work is enhanced primarily by skill variety, task identity and task significance. Experienced responsibility for work outcomes is linked to the presence of autonomy in a job. Knowledge of results is increased when a job elicits a high level of feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Therefore, according to the Job Characteristics Model (JCM), positive outcomes are the result of all three psychological states being engendered in the job incumbent, due to a job containing a necessary amount of core job dimensions. However, individual attributes determine how positively a worker will respond to a complex and challenging job. This is known as a worker’s growth need strength and according to Hackman and Oldham (1980), moderates relationships between variables specified by the model. An individual who has a strong desire for accomplishment and growth should respond positively, but an incumbent who has a low need for accomplishment or growth may feel intimidated and consequently may not respond favourably (Lee-Ross, 2002).

3.5.14 Creativity and innovation

Another essential characteristic of genuine psychological growth according to Orpen (1981) and Amabile (1988) is the provision of something new or novel, at least for the person concerned. Ideas are novel when they are unique to other ideas currently available in the organization (Shalley, Zhou & Oldham, 2004) and they are useful when they have
potential for direct or indirect value to the organization either in the short or long term. It is important that the acquisition and absorbing of knowledge be done in such a way that it leads to creativity, in the sense of the person possessing something different from what he did earlier. That which is created in this way need not, and rarely is, something of significance or importance for mankind in general. The important things are merely that, the process leads to the creation of something novel or new to the individual, and originates from within the person himself.

Creativity is an important topic in management research (Shalley et. al., 2004). Researchers defined creativity as the generation of new and useful products, practices, services or products. Creativity is the prerequisite for an organization’s innovation, effectiveness and long-term survival and an organization’s adjustment to shifting environmental conditions and to take advantage of emerging opportunities (Oldham, 2002; Shalley et. al., 2004).

As creativity and proactivity are closely related behaviours (Unsworth & Parker, 2003) and as individuals can gain positive self-regard, a feeling of competence and a sense of independence by solving work problems in a creative way, creativity can be regarded as one form of active mental health (Warr, 1987, 1994).

Accordingly, researchers and organizations should be highly interested in identifying the factors that foster employees’ creativity in order to directly stimulate an organization’s effectiveness and promote employee’s active mental health (Binnewies, Ohly & Niessen, 2008).

3.5.15 Skill discretion

The feature of skill variety allows employees the opportunity to use and develop their human capacities through exercise of their competencies, skills and abilities rather than the reception of limited, narrow skills (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). The structural
approach suggested by Herman and Hulin (1972) and Loscocco (1990) hints towards the necessity of jobs to contain variety. Stein (1983) refers to the component of progress and development which implies that the development of skills and competencies are an important contributing factor for QWL to be high. Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed that jobs which require the use of multiple talents are experienced as more meaningful and therefore more intrinsically motivating than jobs that require only the use of one or two types of skills. Pinder (1984) and Ramlall (2004) pointed out that the inclusion of task variety as an element of job design is consistent with the concept of growth need satisfaction, as well as with more psychological approaches taken by activation theory. It is not consistent, however, with Herzberg’s approach, which refers to the simple addition of tasks as horizontal job loading or as job enlargement.

3.5.16 Task control

According to Moen, Kelly and Huang (2008) occupational health literature have recognized the importance of employees’ degree of control over how they do their jobs and how they manage their multiple responsibilities. In the classic job strain model, job control describes latitude or autonomy regarding how work is done using different skills and knowledge. It does not attend to control over when and where work is done. While job control is especially important for workers facing high job demands (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), work – time control may matter to workers with high family and or job demands, enabling employees to alter their work schedules in response to exigencies at home or at work.

Previous studies have shown that both high demands and low control at work endanger the work-home balance and increase the likelihood of work-family conflict. High job demands, such as quantitative workload among medical residents (Geurts, Rutte, & Peeters, 1999) and long working hours among private sector employees have been associated with work-home interference. Psychological demands (based on the JDC model) have been found to be associated with negative work-home interference both in
European and American samples. In the 14-day daily diary study by Butler, Grzywacz, Bass and Linney (2005), too many demands at work were associated with work-family conflict, whereas greater job control was associated with less work-family conflict. Other studies also show that job control increases the conflict between work and family life (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Barnett and Brennan’s (1995) measure of schedule control consisted of respondents’ assessments as to whether schedule control is a valued reward or concern for them. Fenwick and Tausig (2001) found schedule control to be a stronger predictor of wellbeing than shift type, with schedule control serving as a mediator of shift type.

**3.5.17 Work and time pressure**

Research into work and overload has received substantial empirical attention. French and Caplan (1974) have differentiated overload in terms of quantitative and qualitative overload. Quantitative refers to having “too much to do”, while qualitative means work is too difficult. Miller (1960) has theorized, and Terryberry (1968) has found that overload in most systems leads to breakdown, whether one is dealing with single biological cells or individuals in organizations. French and Caplan (1970) found that objective quantitative overload was strongly linked to cigarette smoking, an important risk factor or symptom of coronary heart disease.

Persons with more phone calls, office visits and meetings per given unit of work time were found to smoke significantly more cigarettes than persons with fewer such engagements. In a study of 100 young coronary patients, Russek and Zohman (1958) found that 25 percent had been working at two jobs and an additional 45 percent had worked at jobs which required, due to work overload, 60 or more hours per week.
According to Engwall and Jerbrant (2003) sharing time between several work tasks at an individual level may result in a perception of work as disrupted and fragmented, in elevated levels of time pressure and fewer opportunities for recuperation between periods of intense and strenuous work.

Other negative consequences of sharing time between many work tasks are decreased competence development and less improvement in work routines (Zika-Viktorsson, 2002). Switching from one task to another can result in a considerable amount of set-up time. On the other hand, there are also indications that multiple work task settings can provide for increased learning and rich work content (Noboeka, 1995; Lindkvist, 2001).

From a health perspective, it is of importance to have enough time to recuperate between work tasks or intensive periods of work. Time pressure in general must not be intrinsically regarded as detrimental to health. However, previous research in other areas has shown that there is a relationship between tenure, on the one hand and high level of time pressure and health problems on the other (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

Professional competence and skills are constantly developed and shaped in daily work. Although it is an obvious necessity in many companies to keep up with the changing demands for competence, previous research has shown that opportunities for competence development can be impaired in a multi task setting (Zika-Viktorsson, 2002). In such settings, there is an obvious risk that time for long term development and training is not sufficiently prioritized in relation to short term task delivery. At the same time, it may be difficult to obtain time to reflect over and analyze daily work in a manner that generates new insights, knowledge and professional skills (Zika-Viktorsson, Sundström & Engwall, 2006).
3.5.18 Role ambiguity

Role ambiguity refers to not knowing what one’s tasks are and also not knowing what is expected from oneself (Van Der Doef & Maes, 1999; Kleynhans, Markham, Meyer & Van Aswegen (2006). This may lead to stress when the individual does not do certain tasks as the employer expects or when he or she does tasks that are part of another person’s job. All of the above-mentioned will then result in low QWL. In addition, pressure demands via role ambiguity were found to cause a significant increase in systolic blood pressure (Pollard, 2001).

According to Diedieff and Rubin (2007) roles in organizations are generally defined as the patterns of behaviours that are perceived by organizational members to be expected or required. More definitively, work roles encompass the expectations pertaining to the perceived responsibilities or requirements associated with enacting specific jobs. Enactment of work roles can vary greatly across individuals, even those within similar jobs. Broadly speaking, the clarity with which individuals perceive their work roles has been linked to several important organizational outcomes, including job performance, organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Tubre & Collins, 2000).

Work role ambiguity may result from unclear articulations of expected role activities, performance contingencies and work methods. A logical extension is that increased ambiguity is very likely to impact on perceptions of the specific requirements necessary for successfully enacting one’s work role (Diedieff & Rubin, 2007). Tubre and Collins (2000) found that a condition of high ambiguity is associated with a lack of knowledge regarding what role activities are critical to the job. Therefore an ambiguous role would make it more difficult for an individual to judge exactly what is important or central to his or her job, and how often he or she may perform a particular activity (Diedieff & Rubin, 2007).
Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964) found in their study that men who suffered from role ambiguity experienced lower job satisfaction, higher job related tension, greater futility and lower self-confidence. French and Caplan (1970) found that at one of NASA’s bases, in a sample of 205 volunteer engineers, scientists and administrators, that role ambiguity was significantly related to low job satisfaction and to feelings of job-related threat to one’s mental and physical well-being.

These indicators related to role ambiguity were depressed mood, lowered self-esteem, life dissatisfaction, low motivation to work and intention to leave the job. Today, workers are being required to perform multiple tasks, learn new skills and self-manage in order to meet the competitive demands of the modern job. According to Kendall, Murphy, O’Neill and Burnsnall (2000) this has lead to jobs that are more fluid (Cooper, Dewe and O’Driscoll, 2001), possibly exacerbating role ambiguity and role conflict and leading in turn to work stress and illness (Dunnette, 1998).

More recently, Li and Bagger (2008) stated that role ambiguity reduces the quality of the information that can be used to make an accurate assessment of one’s ability to perform a task. According to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), to have a high self-efficacy, a person must be able to visualize effective performance in a given situation. While role ambiguity is high, the ability to visualize one’s performance is impaired, thereby reducing one’s confidence in his or her ability to perform effectively (Li & Bagger, 2008).

According to Khan et al. (1964), the relationship between role ambiguity and its related variables tend to be moderated by three broad categories of variables, namely, organizational, interpersonal and personality processes. A potential moderator, namely goal orientation has also been discovered (Khan et.al., 1964).

VandeWalle, Cron and Slocum, (2001) suggested that there are two different dispositional goal orientations, namely, performance goal and learning goal orientation.
Performance – orientated individuals tend to conceive their ability as a fixed entity. As such, they seek to prove their competence on a task. Learning oriented individuals, however, tend to view their abilities as malleable. For this reason, they tend to focus on improving their task performance.

Previous research has shown that individuals tend to view a challenging situation as an opportunity to advance their abilities. Instead of withdrawing themselves from the challenge, they confront it head-on, becoming intrinsically involved in the task, developing effective task strategies, expending additional effort and intensifying their attention on task related activities (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Van Yperen & Janssen, 2002). These arguments suggest that learning-oriented individuals may proactively scout for information that can be used to reduce role ambiguity.

Even if they fail to perform adequately as a result of role ambiguity, they draw on these experiences to enhance their abilities. These characteristics enable them to remain resilient and see the positive side even in a dire situation, as well as allow them to acquire the competence to overcome role ambiguity and to perform effectively at work (Li & Bagger, 2008).

Therefore according to Hall (2008) a lack of role clarity is likely to make individuals believe they are helpless and thus reduce the impact they have in their work area. In contrast, individuals who understand their work roles are more likely to take actions and decisions that influence decisions and results in their work area. Prior research results suggest that higher levels of role ambiguity are related to lower levels of psychological empowerment (Hall, 2008).

**3.5.19 Job insecurity**

Job insecurity refers to uncertainty about one’s job (Van Der Doef & Maes, 1999). According to Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall (2006) many organizations have strived for
functional and numerical flexibility which resulted in demands for new types of skills as well as changes in employment contracts. Most notably, organizations showed increased interest in employing workers on the basis of short or fixed term contracts rather than employing workers on the basis of implicit long-term contracts (Sverke, Gallagher & Hellgren, 2000). Furthermore, survivors of downsizing have to do more with less resources, increased work load and uncertainty regarding task performance is likely to be prevalent. As a result of the above-mentioned changes, job insecurity has emerged as one of the most important issues in contemporary work life (Sverke, Hellgren & Naswall, 2006).

In order for one to further understand the phenomenon of job insecurity, it is paramount to consider studies investigating potential antecedents of job insecurity. Sverke, Hellgren and Naswall (2006) further added that job insecurity experiences, regardless of whether they are qualitative or quantitative, arise from an interaction between situational characteristics and characteristics of the individual that influence the interpretation the individual makes of environmental factors. Age is one of the demographic factors that may affect the interpretation of cues in the environment as posing a threat of job loss. Adults in their 30s and 40s, are in the age bracket whose members are likely to be responsible for raising children and may, in connection with such circumstances, tend to experience the possibility of job loss more negatively than persons who are only responsible for their own sustenance (De Witte, 1999). Studies conducted by (Mohr, 2000; Naswall & De Witte, 2003) reported evidence that older employees may experience higher levels of job insecurity. This may be attributed to the fact that it is be more difficult for older employees to find new employment. Gender may too play a role in how a person prepares for different occurrences throughout life. Rosenblatt, Talmud and Ruvio (1999) found that men tend to report higher levels of job insecurity than women. This has been explained by the suggestion that traditional values may prompt men to experience higher levels of job insecurity than women, since this role traditionally requires the man to be the breadwinner of the family. According to De Witte (1999) men
would then tend to be more vulnerable to the threat of job loss, as it would not only threaten their source of income, but also their identity, to a higher degree than it would for women.

According to Sverke, Hellgren, Naswall, Chirumbolo, De Witte and Goslinga (2004) there are also certain personality dispositions which related to experiences of job insecurity. Persons with a predominantly external locus of control are more likely to report higher levels of job insecurity (Sverke et. al., 2004). Socioeconomic status is another factor that may influence an individual’s experience of a situation and result in the interpretation that the job is being threatened. Level of education the individual has and type of work (manual vs. non manual) are also related to socioeconomic status. Low status jobs are often also associated with lower levels of education, resulting in fewer coping resources and strategies. Naswall and De Witte (2003) have reported that blue-collar workers report higher levels of job insecurity than other worker categories.

Sverke, Hellgren and Naswaal (2006) added that experiences of uncertainty concerning one’s future employment are likely to have severe consequences for an employee’s overall life situation in that economic and other highly valued aspects of life will be perceived as threatened. Furthermore Schabracq and Cooper (2000) reported that the individual’s evaluation of work is also shaped by a strong desire for stability and losing the job would mean losing this structure and stability as well. The individuals will be frustrated and experience stress due to the fact that they feel these important features of life are threatened, and are uncertain as to how to protect them.

The aspects of uncertainty and ambiguity are two of the most prominent features of job insecurity. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) added not knowing how to counteract the threat to something valued will lead to stress experience. The experience of uncertainty concerning the future of employment prohibits the individual to cope with the threat adequately and diminishes the opportunities for reducing the level of stress experienced.
Spector (2000) further stated that stress experiences are accompanied by stress reactions, which may be described as somatic, psychological and behavioural. Consistent with this, job insecurity has been associated with several different health related, attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Sverke et al., 2006).

Regarding health-related consequences, numerous studies have documented that job insecurity is negatively related to employee well-being. Physical health complaints, mental diseases, and work-to-leisure carry-over tend to increase with the level of job insecurity experienced. The majority of studies that have investigated the relationship between well-being and job insecurity are based on self-reported health data, but there is also evidence indicating that insecurity is related to health indicators that are more physiological or biological in nature (Lindstrom, Lieno, Seitsamo & Torstila 1997).

Mohr (2000) added reported that subjective job insecurity is both more strongly and more often related to mental health complaints as compared to the more physical and biological markers of health. However, the radical change from a traditionally secure working environment to a rapidly changing and insecure one could be expected to have an impact not only on the well-being of the individuals, but also on their work attitudes and behaviour, and in the long run, for the vitality of the organization (Sverke et al., 2006).

3.5.20 Social support supervisor
Social support supervisor refers to the support that is provided by one’s supervisor (Van Der Doef & Maes, 1999). Some researchers have included supervisor support as an important determinant/ dimension of QWL. According to Michie and Williams (2003) poor social support as well as long hours of work, work overload and other extrinsic factors are associated with psychological ill health.
Hawkins and Shohet (2000) also stated that a good supervisor can also help one to use one’s resources better, manage one’s workload and challenge inappropriate patterned ways of coping. Spence, Wilson, Kavanagh, Strong and Worrel (2001) maintain that the personal support aspect of supervision aims to optimize motivation, morale, commitment, and to minimize work – related stress, burnout and mental health problems of the employee. Scaife and Walsh (2001) also support the inclusion of this as a legitimate focus of supervision, describing how supervision can provide an opportunity for dealing with the effects of organizational climate and professional relationships.

Bakker, Demerouti, and Euwema (2005) found that social support at work is also a potential buffer against job stress, hence providing protection from pathological consequences of stressful experiences. In a study of higher education employees, Bakker et al. (2005) showed that the combination of high demands and low job resources in the workplace significantly added to the risk of burnout. Furthermore, work overload, emotional demands, physical demands, and work – home interference did not result in high levels of burnout if employees experienced autonomy, received feedback, had social support, or had a high quality relationship with their supervisor. These authors postulated that the aspects of the high-quality supervisor relationships provided important instrumental help and emotional support.

Behson (2005) found that men and women seem to differ with respect to the sources from which they receive social support, both nevertheless seem to experience social support to be effective in reducing work-family conflict. It appears that social support reduces work-family conflict either directly or through altering the impact of stressors that lead to work-family conflict, such as role conflict and role ambiguity. Van Daalen, Willemsen and Sanders (2006) found that social support from the work domain reduced work-family conflict through its impact on work role conflict, work time demands and work role ambiguity. Social support from the home domain reduced the severity of family role conflict, family time demands and family role ambiguity. Thomas and Ganster (1995)
found that support from the supervisor reduced work-family conflict directly, as well as indirectly, through the increased sense of control over areas of work and family.

Thompson, Kirk and Brown (2005) found that social support has consistently been shown to relate to increased well-being, with support for both buffering and direct effect models. Support from within the work environment impacts on employee wellbeing and reduces work-related outcomes for employees such as stress, mental health and job dissatisfaction. Potentially then, work-based support from supervisors and co-workers may ameliorate some of the negative effects of stress.

3.5.21 Social support colleagues

Social support colleagues refer to instrumental and emotional support provided by colleagues (Van Der Doef & Maes, 1999). According to Jenkins and Elliot (2004) support can be emotional, such as the action of caring or listening sympathetically, or instrumental, involving tangible assistance such as help with a work task.

Two models have been proposed to explain the mechanism by which social support may have a beneficial effect on health outcomes such as burnout. According to the “main effects” model, social support is beneficial to well-being, regardless of the level of stressors to which individuals are exposed, by meeting important human needs for security, social contact, approval, belonging and affection. In contrast, the “buffering” hypothesis proposes that social support moderates the effects of stressors. Relationships between stressors and burnout will be stronger for people with low levels of support than for those with high levels (Kilfedder, Power & Wells, 2001).

Social support is a straightforward resource in that it is functional in achieving work goals (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005). Thus instrumental support from colleagues can help to get the work done in time and may therefore alleviate the impact of work overload on strain, including burnout (Van Der Doef & Maes, 1999). Furthermore,
Howard (2008) found that better social support from colleagues was one of the factors identified by clinical psychologists as factors most likely to alleviate stress.

To summarize, QWL is viewed as a wide-ranging concept, of which the determinants dimensions include adequate and fair compensation, safe and health working conditions, social integration in the work organization that enables an individual to develop and use all his capacities, opportunity for continued growth and security, workers’ rights, recognition for achievement, meaningfulness and significance of work, workload/pressures and work, autonomy and control, enjoyment of work, creativity and innovation. These determinants/dimensions emphasize the good feeling perceived from the interaction between the individuals and the work environment. In the next section the focus will be on the measurement of QWL.

3.6 Measurement/assessment of Quality of Work Life

According to Kotze (2005), diversity in the definition of QWL generates widespread disagreement about its measurement and interpretation. The point of view from which the construct is defined will determine which determinants/dimensions are relevant in its evaluation. This will then also have an effect on the way in which research on QWL will be approached, as well as the selection of appropriate data gathering instruments.

While working with their own definitions of QWL, researchers have decided on who would constitute an appropriate survey population. Subsequently, many scientific instruments and tools have been developed. Ellis (2002) (Kotze, 2005) is of the opinion that the approach taken to QWL measurement varies along a continuum from completely quantitative to completely qualitative methodologies, with many variations between.

Since a dominant theme of much of QWL research is the assumption that individuals’ experiences of satisfaction or dissatisfaction define the quality of their work life (Wilcock & Wright, 1991) (Kotze, 2005), many QWL surveys typically measure the job – related
perceptions and attitudes of individuals such as job satisfaction, job involvement, work commitment, and organizational commitment, of which job satisfaction is studied most often (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993) (Kotze, 2005). This approach measures the overall job satisfaction an individual is experiencing, or specific facets of job satisfaction such as pay, benefits, working conditions, changes for advancement, job security, co workers, physical resources and equipment, chances to develop skills, supervision, opportunity for personal growth and development.

Gattinker and Howg (1990), Looij and Benders (1995) and Abo-Znadh (1999) (Kotze, 2005) is of the opinion that those who approach QWL from a socio technical systems theory (STS) perspective usually reduce the measurement of QWL to work content and job characteristics and the consequences that these have on internal labour relations. Characteristics such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, speed of working and feedback are evaluated. Job characteristics measures differ from job satisfaction measures in that the former scales are primarily descriptive rather than evaluative. Therefore, instead of assessing respondents’ reactions to their jobs, items assess the extent to which various characteristics are descriptive of their jobs.

According to Kerce and Booth-Kewley (1993) (Kotze, 2005), a QWL survey is distinguished from other standard surveys of employee satisfaction in that it is more comprehensive. A QWL survey should include, at a minimum, the measure of overall job satisfaction, job characteristics and job involvement. It might also include a dispositional measure, thus allowing individual dispositional characteristics such as differences in abilities, values, expectations, personality, perceptions and needs to be considered as a moderating variable (Coetzee, 2004; Cloete & Stuart, 2004; Annandale, Pienaar & Scholtz, 2004) (in Kotze, 2005). According to Looij and Benders (1995) (Kotze, 2005) subjective opinions such as perceptions held by an individual employee may play an important role in his/ her decision to enter, stay with or even leave an organization. It seems as if a long – standing debate has been centered on
this question of whether personal factors or structural factors (job characteristics) are the principal determinants of perceived QWL.

The basic assumption of the dispositional approach is that personal attributes such as dispositional tendencies, are the primary influence on QWL, while the structural approach assumes that situational variables, such as characteristics of the job, have the greatest effect on QWL (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993) (Kotze, 2005). Advocates of the dispositional position argue that individuals tend to be consistent in their job attitudes over time and that enduring dispositional attributes exert as strong an influence on job attitudes as objective job characteristics. According to Kotze (2005) it is therefore suggested that dispositional variables probably have a greater impact and are more relevant for managers seeking to improve the QWL of their workers.

In the structural approach, high QWL is defined by the existence of a certain set of organizational conditions and practices. High QWL is assumed to occur when jobs are enriched, supervision is democratic, employees are involved in their jobs and the work environment is safe. According to Kerce and Booth-Kewley (1993) (Kotze, 2005) a third approach, based on expectancy theories, suggests the possibility that individuals come to the work place with different goals and needs that they seek to fulfill through work as well as different perceptions of job characteristics.

Although individuals’ particular needs, values and dispositions shape their work attitudes, this approach recognize that a single, pervasive need structure cannot be assumed. Differences in needs are therefore assumed to account for variation in work attitudes among employees in the same jobs. Those in favour of a more integrated approach, focus on the interaction of structural and personal influences, with QWL determined by the degree to which the full range of human needs are met (Kotze, 2005). This approach acknowledges aspects such as democratic decision-making and enriched jobs are not desirable or important to everyone. Individuals bring different needs to the workplace and are likely to experience the extent that these needs are satisfied (Kerce & Booth-Kewley,
Therefore some researchers make use of the discrepancy theory of satisfaction to explain their results (Wilcock & Wright, 1991; Rice, Pierce, Moyer & McFarlin, 1991) (Kotze, 2005).

Brooks and Gawel (2001) (Kotze, 2005) see the goals of QWL surveys as the study of workplace experiences, the work itself, and the world of work, in order to suggest aspects of the workplace or work that could be modified so that the employees and the organization reach their goals simultaneously. Lewis, Brazil, Krueger, Lohfeld and Tjam (2001) (Kotze, 2005) measure QWL in terms of extrinsic, intrinsic or prior traits. Extrinsic traits are salaries and other tangible benefits. Intrinsic traits include skill levels, authority and challenge, while prior traits are those of the individuals involved, such as their gender or employment status.

In terms of the development and construction of measuring instruments, some researchers base their development of their QWL survey instruments on general topic areas of QWL, as identified through a literature review, for example, co–worker and supervisor support, team work and communications, training and development and compensation and benefits (Lewis et al. 2001; Hausman, Nebeker, McCreary & Donaldson Jr, 2001; Consodine & Callus, 2002) (Kotze, 2005).

Others base the construction of their questionnaires on specific theoretical models such as occupational stress models or need satisfaction and spillover theories (Brooks & Gawel, 2001; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999; Sirgy et al., 2001) (Kotze, 2005). Often researchers design questionnaires by borrowing and combining items from different questionnaires, for example, job satisfaction, job characteristics, work involvement, work stress, wellness at work and other questionnaires (Cohen, Chang, Ledford (Jr) 1997; Peletier, Coutu & Lamonde, 1995; Carayon, Hoonakker, Marchand & Schwarz, 2003) (Kotze, 2005). Many other measures are being used to determine QWL, including the Michigan Quality of Work Program which measures various work related concerns (Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis & Cammann, 1983) (Kotze,
According to Carayon (1997) (Kotze, 2005), diary studies can be powerful in the examination of terms of technological stressors and certain temporal issues. Diary studies ask people to keep track of work-related events on a frequent basis. The frequency of measurement varies from hourly to daily to weekly, and can be used to examine fluctuations of work stressors.

From the above-mentioned, it is evident that many attempts have been made to measure QWL. Definitions of what criteria are relevant differ from the point of view of individuals, organizations, or society at large. Needless to say, the measures to be included in a QWL index are not without controversy. In addition, there remain significant methodological challenges to overcome in constructing robust measures can operationalize the indicators effectively (Consodine & Callus, 2002) (Kotze, 2005).

3.7 The impact of QWL on the workplace

Concern for QWL preoccupied social scientists for the past several decades. QWL is a major issue for employees, and how organizations deal with this issue is of both academic and practical significance (Dolan, Garcia, Cabezas & Tzafrir, 2007). Therefore it is no wonder that thousands of studies revolved around the concept of job satisfaction, and stress as the core concept of it. QWL and its relationships with employee health and performance became an explicit objective for many of the human resource policies in modern organizations (Dolan et al., 2007). As organizations are struggling to survive and become more efficient, an accrued interest has evolved around the concept of professionals working life. An increasing body of evidence links what could be termed management related conditions of work with psychological stress and negative QWL and more specifically health outcomes.
3.7.1 Management-related conditions and Quality of Work Life

Management-related conditions of work that are linked with negative health include lack of control, autonomy, influence, participation or decision latitude (Dryer & Quine, 1998; Glass & McKnight, 1996), lack of supervisor support (Dolan et al., 1992), lack of perceived organizational and general support (Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage & Sucharski, 2004) and subjective unemployment as well as lack of skill utilization.

Nonetheless, among the reasons for the different findings pertaining to the understanding of the phenomena, scholars argue that the latter can be viewed from a contrasting societal perspectives (Burrell & Morgan, 1979), reinforced by qualitative research and the ambiguous and thus multi-interpretable definitions of QWL.

Others point out to the lack of an external framework supported by validated research instruments (Parker, 2003). As a result, the generic logic for studying the quality of work has become popular among managers, organizational consultants and social writers, but the vast majority of the latter were conducted in the private sector. Scientific studies that have examined the quality of working lives of professionals working in the public sector are less frequent and of those the one reported on the psychometric properties i. e. (construct validity) of the dimensions of QWL and its relationships with health and well-being are very scant.

Several large cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have focused on job components such as demands, control, rewards and support. The results indicated that the combination of high demands and low control at work have an impact on health and well-being. The European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2000) examined the number of European employees that are exposed to risks or that have experienced illness. The European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2000) observed that the main indicators for Occupational Safety and Health risks are the work pace which is determined by a high prevalence of repetitive movements and
high speed work. This finding is parallel to the earlier research by Ng and Munro-Kua (1994) on health hazards among IT professionals in Malaysia.

The number of people who endorse efforts to improve QWL because it is the right thing to do is apparently growing. It is more often the relationship between satisfaction and performance that motivates interest in QWL. In the following section, some of the QWL benefits for organizations and individuals are summarized.

3.7.2 Organizational benefits from QWL

QWL is assumed to affect job effort and performance, organizational identification, job satisfaction, job involvement, and personal alienation. The opportunity to fulfill higher order needs at work is the primary source of the motivation to work. The more the job and the organization can gratify the needs of employees, the more effort employees may invest at work, with commensurate improvements in productivity. Satisfaction of needs through organizational membership is associated with assertiveness and self-expression, while the failure to have needs satisfied may lead to alienation (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990; Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993).

3.7.2.1 Productivity and performance

For many years consultants and researchers assumed that improving QWL would inevitably heighten employee motivation and world thereby improve job performance and productivity. Today, it is recognized that enhancing QWL can improve performance under some, but not all conditions. It is likely that need satisfaction affects performance mainly through impact on motivation (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990). If QWL and productivity are causally related, then there is little question that QWL should be a high priority for organizations and that regular surveys should be conducted to assess the level of perceived QWL and the extent to which employee needs are being met.
It is not clear, however, that productivity is the outcome measure that should be of greatest concern to organizations. For many jobs, productivity is difficult to implement and measure. In addition, pressures to increase productivity can sometimes have unintended negative effects for organizations. For example, increases in job safety and security may raise costs without resulting in bottom line improvements to productivity or revenues. In the long run, it is probably more beneficial for organizations to concentrate on developing a well-trained, loyal work force that is willing and able to adapt to changes than to focus only on productivity (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993).

### 3.7.2.2 Absenteeism and turnover

People who are highly involved in their jobs are less likely to quit their jobs or be absent (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993). Westly (1979) and Kerce and Booth-Kewley (1993) concluded that alienation and anomie are expressed as withdrawal or a lack of involvement, with the primary symptoms being absenteeism and turnover. Intuitively, it would seem that people who feel that it is all right to be absent do not find their work to be self-enhancing and do not feel any moral obligation to be at the workplace (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993).

Motivation and satisfaction of needs, on the other hand, have consistently been shown to be associated with job involvement and organizational commitment as well as attendance and low turnover (Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993). Attendance has also been found to be related to the degree of congruence between workers’ needs and the characteristics of the jobs (Furnham, 1991). Hackman, Pearce and Wolfe (1978) reported that the extent to which structural job changes (intended to improve QWL) affected absenteeism depended on the strength of the employee’s growth needs.

### 3.7.2.3 Stress and its impact on QWL

Instability of employment, rapid change of demands and intensification of work pressure are widely prevalent consequences of economic globalization and technological change. Even in established sectors of industrial production, administration and services of
advanced societies, experiences of downsizing, mergers and outsourcing are increasingly shared by employees. Chronic stressful experience at work can adversely affect physical and mental health.

Poor QWL and employment can be seen as a determinant of premature departure from working life. This has been observed in employees with physically or mentally demanding work, with monotonous, repetitive work, and other types of stressful experience (Siegrist, Wahrendorf, von dem Knesebeck, Jurges & Börsch-Supan, 2006). Exposure to poor QWL was also shown to increase intentions to leave the organization and to reduce performance and motivation at earlier stages of employment trajectories (Elovainio, Forma & Kivimak, 2005).

It is important to define poor psychosocial QWL in terms of a theoretical model that allows for an identification of stressful aspects of work at a general level and, thus, can be applied to a wide range of different occupations. While several theoretical concepts of stressful work have been developed (Antoniou & Cooper, 2005), two models have received special attention recently: the demand-control model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990) and the effort–reward imbalance model (Siegrist, Starke & Chandola, 2004). The former model identifies stressful work by job task profiles that are characterized by high demand in combination with low control (low decision latitude), whereas the latter model claims that an imbalance between high efforts spent and low rewards received in turn (money, esteem, career prospects, and job security) adversely affect health. This is mainly due to the fact that a basic principle of social exchange, reciprocity, is violated under such conditions.

Stress, anxiety and depression have been recognized as important outcome measures in various work environments (Bennett, Williams, Page, Hood & Woollard, 2004). Plaisier, de Bruijn, de Graaf, Have, Beekman and Penninx (2006) suggested that poor working conditions may be an important precursor of stress and may, therefore, contribute to the development of depression or anxiety. There are abundant studies exploring the
relationship between working conditions and stress, anxiety and depression (Rusli, Edimansyah & Naing, 2008). Karasek (1979) have shown that workers with jobs simultaneously low in job control and high in job demand reported exhaustion, nervousness, anxiety, and insomnia or disturbed sleep.

3.7.3 Individual benefits from improved QWL
Researchers have consistently found positive correlations between measures of QWL as a whole and QWL, that is, between job and life satisfaction. In addition, positive associations have been found between job satisfaction and mental health (Furnham & Schaeffer, 1984). For example, Adelmann (1987) found that both pay and job complexity is inversely related to anxiety.

According to Rethinam and Ismail (2008) health and well-being of QWL refer to the physical and psychological aspects of an individual in the work environment. Iacovides, Fountoulakis and Kaprins (2003) found that higher job demands lead to a higher strain work environment, hence it affects employees’ health and well-being. An unstrained work environment ensures good health and psychological conditions which enables the employee to perform job and non-work related functions without inhibitions. Thus, it leads to an unstressful work environment providing a comfortable work life (Rethinam & Ismail, 2008).

Carayon, Smith and Haims (2001) revealed that stress arises in the process of interaction between a person and the work environment that threatens the individual’s physical, psychological and physiological homeostasis. Physical illness and psychological disorders increase when pressure at work increases. Stress causes problems to the muscular system and circulation thus, increasing the risk of myocardial infarction which is well documented in psychosomatic studies. Carayon, Smith and Haims (2001) further reported that employee’s who have been exposed for over two years in a high strain environment are associated with higher systolic blood pressure.
Depression and anxiety are also another form of stress that contributes towards the deterioration of health. Employees develop various symptoms of stress that can harm job performance, health and even threaten the ability to cope with the environment. In the past few decades, impressive developments of information technologies have taken place in the workplace. Routine work, badly designed instruments such as computers and furniture in the work environment have significantly increased work related disorders (Blatter & Bongers, 2002).

The relationship between job and life satisfaction also has implications for society as a whole. In his classic study of the relationship between work and nonwork domains, Kornhauser (1965) concluded that routine work is associated with narrow, routine leisure activities that do little to promote self-development, self-expression, or interest in larger social purposes. It has also been suggested that alienated work may cause an individual’s frustrations to build until they find release through hostility, punitive family relations and so on.

While it is important to recognize that the nonwork life of an individual worker may become more or less fulfilling as a result of changes in the workplace (Rice, 1984), the effects of the job on the person and of the person on the job are probably reciprocal throughout the person’s work life. The main process by which a job affects an individual’s personality is thought to be one of simple generalization from lessons of the job to the person’s nonwork life (Kohn & Schooler, 1982). For example, occupational self-direction (the use of initiative, thought, and independent judgment in work) was found by these authors to increase an individual’s intellectual flexibility. In turn, intellectual flexibility and self-concept may have important consequences for the individual’s place in the organizational hierarchy, determining the opportunity for doing substantively complex and self-directed work.
3.7.3.1 Work climate

QWL implies that the work conditions are favourable and that management caters for all the needs of the people. The workplace is an important focus of an adult’s life, through the time and commitment involved and the economic benefits that employment brings. The costs of mental health problems extends from the individual’s lost working time, the costs on their family to provide care and support for them, through to their employers, through lost productivity, and to the community, through greater healthcare costs (De Vries & Wilkerson, 2003; World Health Organization, 2001). The workplace can also provide conditions and relationships that increase wellbeing and mental health, through greater autonomy on the job, social support from colleagues and greater income (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

3.7.3.2 Resiliency

Previous research has identified the risk and protective factors ‘around’ and ‘within’ resilient people, finding that many of the factors are based on every day, normative personal resources and processes available to all individuals (Masten, 2001). By managing the ups and downs in life, resilient individuals can be more effective in managing the changing nature of the current workplace and finding a balance between work and personal lives (Luthans, 2002). Further, resilience is a multi-dimensional construct and the efforts to be resilient, such as adaptive strategies to manage demands, should be considered separately to resilient outcomes, such as better mental health or better relationships (Kumpfer, 1999). In this way, the efforts to be resilient can be targeted and normative adaptive processes can be enhanced through promoting competence in the appropriate contexts (Yates & Masten, 2004).

There is a convergence of research that highlights the common threads of feelings of competence to deal with life’s setbacks, the expectations of future successes, an internal sense of control and emotional stability (Semmer, 2003). These include personal resources, such as core self-evaluations; defined as self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger 1998),
positive organisational behaviour: defined as self-efficacy, optimistic expectations and positive reactions to stress (Luthans, 2002), and personal resilience: defined as self-esteem, dispositional optimism, and perceived control.

Interpersonal relationships and connections with other people are equally important to mental health and well-being. The lack of interpersonal skills can be influential in maintaining depressive symptoms, through seeking excessive reassurance and self consistent negative feedback from peers, which increase the likelihood of rejection by those same peers (Joiner & Metalsky, 2001). In the workplace where organisational support and recognition of effort was low, employees with better social skills were rated more highly on job performance by their supervisors as they had the skills to make use of the limited resources available to them. Good social skills allowed these workers to make the most of less than ideal working conditions, although these skills became less crucial to job performance as organizational support improved (Hochwarter, Witt, Treadway & Ferris, 2006).

Implicit in resilience research is positive psychology’s focus on psychological strengths, positive emotions and outcomes, rather than on dysfunction and psycho-pathology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Actively using skills and resources to control and manage daily life increases the individual’s wellbeing and mental health. Several therapies have been trialed that are based on positive psychological principles, such as targeting specific facets of psychological wellbeing (Fava & Ruini, 2003) and a strengths-base program delivered online (Seligman, Steen, Park & Peterson, 2005). These programs were found to provide increases in wellbeing and mental health. Positive behaviours reinforce and elicit positive reactions from others, improving personal relationships and mental health.

To date there has been limited research specifically focusing on adult resilience as many of the available work-based programs tend to have a narrow focus on one particular area, such as stress management, rather than broad life skills (Murphy, 2003; Quillian-Wolever
& Wolever, 2003). The workplace is an important component of the mental health community and provides a suitable and practical location for the delivery of resilience enhancing programs.

3.7.3.3 Positive attitudes
Employees who enjoy their work and feel happy make a very positive judgement about their quality of work life. This enjoyment and or happiness, is the outcome of cognitive and affective evaluations of the flow experience (Diener, 2000). When employees are intrinsically motivated, they will continuously be interested in the work they are involved in, therefore being fascinated by the tasks they perform.

3.7.3.4 Self-efficacy
There is considerable evidence regarding the positive effects of self-efficacy on work performance and well-being in different domains such as the workplace, school, and sports (Bandura, 2001). Research in the domain of work shows that high levels of efficacy beliefs have a positive impact on employee well-being (Grau, Salanova & Peiro, 2001) and work engagement (Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, Martinez & Schaufeli, 2003), and can buffer the negative impact of job demands on burnout. Efficacy beliefs influence the challenges people pursue, the effort they expend and their perseverance in the face of obstacles.

3.7.3.5 Self-actualization
Self-actualization, according to Maslow (1954), is the desire to become more and more from what one is to anything that one is capable of becoming. Promotion and career progress are important in that regard. Progressive companies have promotion-from-within programs (Messmer, 2004). This means that open positions are filled, whenever possible, by qualified candidates from within the company. Promotion from within programs serves to enhance the value of the work role identity and promotes multiple work role
identities (e.g., specialist, team player, and supervisor/manager). Meeting the needs of more role identities and highly valued role increase the likelihood of experiencing positive self-evaluations at work, which in turn contribute significantly to subjective well-being.

3.8 Conclusion
The meaning and the significance of the QWL has been clearly spelt out in this chapter. The focus was on the introduction, origin and development of the concept, the definitions of QWL, the different models that relates to QWL, the determinants of QWL, the measurement/assessment of QWL. Benefits associated with QWL from both an organizational and an individual perspective was also addressed. It was emphasized that organizations must improve their employees’ work environment if their QWL is to be improved. It is clear from the above discussion that QWL is a complex phenomenon. It reflects a philosophical commitment by employers and employees to work constructively to establish an interactive communication system that allows each to have an opportunity to influence the levels independence, autonomy, and self esteem realized through employment. QWL changes over time and must reflect the differences for individuals in their early, stable and retirement years.

Although QWL programs have traditionally focused on the attainment of outcomes for the individual employee, there are also benefits that accrue to organizations. Improving QWL can contribute directly to reducing turnover and absenteeism, lead to increases in productivity under some conditions, and help create a well-trained loyal work force that is willing and more able to adapt to change. Thus, by attending to those areas that enhances QWL, employees, industry and society all win.