

**Work engagement among bus drivers in Zimbabwe. The role of employee well-being,  
job demands and resources**

**By**

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## DECLARATION

I declare that investigating the: *Work engagement among bus drivers in Zimbabwe. The role of employee well-being, job demands and resources* is my own work. This research has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

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Date: \_\_\_\_\_

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May the lord's blessings and guidance be with you all.

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study was carried out in order to gain an understanding of work engagement among bus drivers in Zimbabwe. The study seeks to assess work engagement, job satisfaction, happiness and burnout in terms of relationships, significant differences and lived experiences among bus drivers in Harare (Zimbabwe). Further investigation is done to determine whether job demands and job resources are strong predictors for the relationship between work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and burnout. Thus findings in this study are significant in that they provide insight into the well-being of bus drivers and its impact on employee work engagement.

The study entails a mixed method to research. For the qualitative part of this study semi structured interviews were used in data collection. Questionnaires are used for the quantitative part of the study. The research instruments were based on the stated objectives as a guide of what to include and leave in the research instrument. For the Questionnaires, the shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), the Work-related Flow inventory (WOLF), the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) and the Job Demands Resources Scale and is adopted.

Results showed practically and statistically significant positive relationships between variables of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and job resources. However, burnout had practically and statistically significant negative relationships, of medium effect, with variables of work engagement, work happiness and job satisfaction. A possible explanation for this is that when employees withdraw mentally as a result of burnout, their work engagement levels will decrease. Job demands and job resources are strong predictors

of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout. A possible explanation for the results is the organisational citizenship and commitment among the employees. Results indicated that all the demographic variables (such as different age groups, education level attained, tenure, bus ranks and marital status) had a significant difference with regards to total work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. The bus drivers were engaged, happy and satisfied with their jobs in spite of the stressors. A possible explanation of the results could be the buffering effect job resources had on job demands. The tickets from the police', peak hours' and bad weather were sum of the stressors leading to burnout. However, positive attitudes and stress coping strategies led the bus drivers to be happy in spite of the stressors. Themes such as good working environment, socialising at work and supportive co-workers emerged on job resources.

A limitation of the present study is its cross-sectional character. However, despite these limitations, the present findings have important implications for both future research and practice. For instance future research should be longitudinal. Furthermore future research efforts should focus on the different aspects of job demands and resources inclusive of rewards, work overload, growth opportunities, social support, organisational support, job security and job advancement. This information is useful because it will allow managers and organisations to adjust jobs, training, and the work environment based on the factors that contribute the most to workplace happiness, job satisfaction and work engagement. Results in this study suggest that recovery from burnout help individuals to cope with job demands and to create new resources. These findings suggest that organisations should provide employees with facilities to recover and promote the development of leisure activities to help them overcome the daily strains of work.

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## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. INTRODUCTION**

For many years, researchers focused on psychology that had to do with stress in the workplace. Whilst this line of inquiry has provided significant benefits to people suffering from psychological distress, there has recently been a shift and a tendency to study positive psychological aspects of employee well-being in the workplace (Maddux, 2008). Positive psychology focuses on employee experiences such as work engagement, pleasure, happiness and job satisfaction (Adams, 2012). It is the study of positive experiences and positive character traits (Seligman, 2011). Positive psychologists argue that it is important to focus on aspects of employee well-being that enhances good outcomes in the organisations (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). However, not much research has been done in this area in Zimbabwe. Hence this study focuses on positive aspects of employee experiences such as work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction among bus drivers in Zimbabwe.

In this chapter an overview of the work engagement is presented. The problem statement, research context, motivation for the study and the research objectives are outlined. The methodology is described and lastly the research chapters are reviewed.

### **1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Today's organisations are in need of engaged employees (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Three approaches to employee work engagement exist. First, it is conceived as a set of motivating resources such as support and recognition from colleagues and supervisors, feedback,

opportunities for learning and development and opportunities for skill use (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). Secondly, employee work engagement is conceived in terms of commitment and extra-role behaviour. For instance, employees feel a vested interest in the company's success and perform to a high standard which may exceed the stated requirements of the job (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). The third approach defines work engagement as a positive, fulfilling, affective motivational state of work-related well-being (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Based on this conceptualisation, a brief work engagement questionnaire was developed. It consisted of three interrelated dimensions: vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006). Engaged individuals are described as being psychologically present, fully there, attentive, feeling, connected, integrated and focused in their role performances (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Literature relating to work engagement reveals that engaged employees become physically involved in their tasks, cognitively alert and emotionally connected to others when performing their jobs (Sauter, 2010). Research on employee engagement thus enhances the knowledge in organisations of cost-effective ways of improving vigour, dedication and absorption among employees.

The role of employee well-being on work engagement has been investigated. Employee well-being is characterised by employees who perceive themselves to be engaged, growing and productive and who experience positive emotional states such as pleasure, joy and energy that help buffer against stress and depression (Hartfiel, Havenhand, Khalsa, Clarke & Krayner, 2011). In the workplace, well-being has been found to aid positive emotions, broaden ranges of wellbeing cognitions and behaviour and build resources within the person and within the

organisation (Sauter, 2010). The findings of this study are significant, in that they provide insight into the well-being of bus drivers and its impact on employee work engagement.

The role of job demands and resources on work engagement is investigated. The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model is adopted in this study. It proposes that job demands and resources play a role in the development of burnout and engagement (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). Each day individuals are exposed to a variety of workplace demands. Firstly, job demands, whether they are administrative frustrations, emotional conflict, or role overload, require sustained physical and psychological effort, which can have significant physiological and psychological costs (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). Although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires high effort. They are associated with high costs that elicit negative responses such as depression, anxiety, or burnout (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). The presence of job demands has been linked to decreased work engagement and increased employee burnout and absenteeism (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). They decrease work engagement when they are in the form of hindrance demands (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012).

The second set of working conditions is job resources, which not only help employees deal with job demands but also have the potential to motivate employees (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen (2009) proposed that job resources play an intrinsic and extrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning and development, on the one hand, and the willingness to invest one's efforts and abilities to the work task, on the other, thereby achieving work goals. Job resources can be derived from the organization (e.g. pay, job security), interpersonal and social relations (e.g. supervisor and co-

worker support), organisation of work (e.g. participation in decision making), and the task (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources are thus predicted to have a direct positive relationship with engagement. Job demands increase work engagement when they are in the form of challenge demands (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012).

### **1.3.PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Research has shown that the concepts of work engagement, employee happiness and job satisfaction share an important relationship with organisational and performance outcome variables, such as discretionary effort and intention to turn over (Shuck, 2010), as well as overall performance (Crawford, Rich & LePine, 2010). In contrast to the findings of the attractive benefits for organisations that successfully develop engaged employees, recent research studies indicate that less than 30% of the global workforce is engaged (Gebauer & Lowman, 2008). This raises a concern for companies to improve the states of employee well-being of their workers, since their companies might suffer losses (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

Employee well-being is defined as the global assessment of one's life in the workplace (Kim-Prieto, Diener, Tamir, Scollon & Diener, 2005). There are many factors that affect the states of employee well-being. Crawford, LePine and Rich (2010) stress that positive well-being includes work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction, while negative aspects of employee well-being ranges from stress and burnout to job strain. Failing to recognise the positive aspects of employee well-being becomes problematic. For instance Turner, Barling and Zacharatos (2002, p. 715) have stated it is time to extend our research focus and explore



more fully the positive sides, so as to gain full understanding of the meaning and effects of working”.

The current study on work engagement among bus drivers reflects both the positive and negative aspects of employee well-being, in an effort to understand the Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB). This is because good and bad events, positive and negative experiences, occur all the time (Coon & Mitterer, 2010). Clearly, since work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction lead to positive outcomes in the form of improved quality of performance and job crafting. It is a worthwhile endeavour to explore the issue in relation to drivers of informal public transport.

#### **1.4. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY**

Zimbabwe has a developing economy with an established informal public transport system dating back to the colonial period (Chiboiwa, Chipunza & Samuel, 2011). Informal public transport is the main mode of transport for the majority of people in rural and urban sectors of the economy. Informal sector operations in the urban sphere of Zimbabwe, as in any other developing countries, are increasingly playing a critical role in terms of provision of public transport. The main reason for the growth of this sector is nothing but the plummeting economy, explained in terms of high urban unemployment rates (Dube & Chirisa, 2012). Harare is the capital city in Zimbabwe. Harare is characterised by low density affluent suburbs, mostly in the east and north. Low density suburbs are residential areas, inhabited by middle class and upper class people. High density suburbs are the poorer residential areas mostly located in the south and west. The main form of transport in Harare is the mini

bus/commuter omnibus, mostly privately owned mini-buses that collect passengers from designated bus stops (Fernandeza, Masonb, Grayc, Bauernfeinda, Franc, Fesseletd, Luque & Fernandez, 2010).

Zimbabwe experienced unprecedented socio-economic and political challenges between 2000 and 2008. These challenges were characterised by high inflation, high unemployment levels, shortage of basic commodities, deteriorating public services and politically motivated violence, which led to massive exodus of professionals to neighbouring countries and abroad (Kapungu, 2008). Many companies were closed. This affected the employment status of many (McGregor & Pasura, 2010). At the current moment the unemployment rate in Zimbabwe is 95%. The figures reflect underemployment; true unemployment is unknown and, under current economic conditions, unknowable (Mundi, 2012). As a result of the declining economic status, some professional jobs are paid less money, while mini-bus drivers are paid better. The high unemployment rate has resulted in young people opting to do any job for a living (Chiboiwa, Samuel & Chipunza, 2010).

While public transport is central to Zimbabwe's economy, not much attention has been given to this sector in previous studies. Hence the present study is of importance given that any impairment on the part of the driver could lead to undesirable consequences for the passengers. The present research is motivated by results from Biggs, Dingsdag and Stenson (2009) study indicating that bus driving is potentially a stressful occupation, associated with increased health risks. Findings of the current study are thus significant, in that they could provide insight into the well-being of bus drivers and impact on employee work engagement. Studies have also shown that job demands and resources can have a profound impact on employee well-being such as burnout and work engagement (Hakaken, Perhoniemi, Toppinen

& Tanner, 2008). Research by Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) reveals that job demands such as a high work pressure, emotional demands and role ambiguity may lead to sleeping problems, exhaustion and impaired health. Hence findings of this study provide insights and understanding of how job demands and resources impact on employee work engagement, job satisfaction, work happiness and burnout. The study contributes to a better understanding of how to increase positive aspects of employee well-being.

## **1.5.RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The study seeks to:

- assess the relationship between work engagement, various dimensions of work-related employee well-being namely job satisfaction, happiness and stress/burnout, job demands and resources among bus drivers in Harare, Zimbabwe.
- investigate the significant differences on the demographic variables with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall burnout, overall job demands and resources.
- determine whether job demands and job resources are a strong predictor for the relationship between work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction.
- investigate the lived experience in terms of work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and stress/burnout, together with job demands and resources among public transport drivers in Harare.
- explore the factors that contribute to the bus drivers' work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and what stresses them.

## **1.6. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- What is the relationship between work engagement, various dimensions of work related employee well-being, namely job satisfaction, happiness and stress/burnout, job demands and resources among bus drivers in Harare, Zimbabwe?
- What are the significant differences in the demographic variables with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall burnout, overall job demands and resources?
- Are job demands or job resources a strong predictor for the relationship between work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction?
- What are the lived experiences in terms of work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and stress/burnout, job demands and resources among public transport drivers in Harare?
- Which factors contribute towards the bus drivers' work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and what stresses them?

## **1.7.METHODOLOGY**

### **1.7.1. Research design**

The study entails a mixed method of research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The study's main methodology is quantitative, in the form of a survey. The qualitative methods have been used to supplement information gathered during fieldwork. The study is a cross-sectional descriptive study, in that it was carried out at one time, over a short period (Levin, 2006). In the quantitative phase of the research the aim has been to determine the relationship between one thing (an independent variable - IV) and another (a dependent or outcome variable - DV)

in a population (Leedy & Ormrode, 2010). In this study work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and burnout consist of the dependent variables (DV), while job demands and resources are the independent variables (IV).

The qualitative phase of the study has been adopted in the form of the interpretive paradigm. The interpretative paradigm supports the belief that reality is constructed by subjective perception. It is constructed inter-subjectively, through the meanings and understandings developed socially and experientially and predictions cannot be made (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Qualitative research methods usually aim for depth and quality, rather than for quantity of understanding. It is inductive in that the researchers develop concepts, insights and understandings from patterns in data, rather than collecting data to assess hypothesis, models or theories (Leedy & Ormrode, 2010).

### **1.7.2. Research participants**

In this study the participants were selected in two categories for both the quantitative (questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews). The first category was for the pilot study, then the actual study. For the qualitative interviews three drivers were selected in the pilot study, while six drivers were selected in the actual study, using purposive sampling. Thus nine participants were interviewed. For the quantitative part of the study (n=313) respondents completed the questionnaire, including the pilot study. Throughout the research process the standardised ethics of research played a major role in how this research was conducted. Ethical guidelines were used before data collection, during data collection and during analysis. Some of these included getting ethical clearance to conduct the study, informed consent, confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of the participants (Kvale, 2010).

### **1.7.3. Data analysis**

For the pilot study and the actual study the data from the questionnaires is analysed statistically, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 19, programme. The preliminary analysis then began after doing the data entry and cleaning the data for the questionnaires (Streiner, & Norman, 2008). This involved descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Multiple Regression Analysis and the multivariate analysis of Variance MANOVA (Leedy, & Ormrode, 2010). In analysing the interviews, thematic content analysis has been used, which identifies themes, concepts and meaning (Silverman, 2000). Thematic content analysis involves the process of coding text images or other material to reveal patterns through which key concepts appear, or discern and identify the significant themes in that content (Lune, Pumar & Koppel, 2010).

## **1.8.OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS AND STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION**

The dissertation is consists of seven chapters. The first chapter is the introduction, followed by the literature review. Chapter three is the methodology followed by the research findings. Chapters four and five give the results. Chapter six discusses the results and chapter seven gives the conclusion, limitations and recommendations.

### **Chapter one: Introduction**

Chapter one provides the introduction to the research paper. It gives an overview of the literature review on work engagement, an elaboration of the context in which the research is done, the problem statement and the rationale of the study. An outline follows of the research

objectives questions to be investigated. The research approach adopted and the research methodology is briefly described since expansion is done in Chapter Three. Finally, the researcher has provided an outline of how the thesis is structured, explaining the steps that have been adopted to make the research process work.

## **Chapter Two: Literature review**

In this chapter the researcher presents an overview of literature relevant to the research question and topic. The theoretical framework in which the research is constructed is explained.

## **Chapter Three: Research methodology**

The methodology of the research is addressed in Chapter four. A description and defence of the methodology is presented. Next is an explanation of how the research participants were selected, followed by a discussion on the data gathering tools and the data analysis. Ethical implications of the study are highlighted and issues of reliability and validity of the study are discussed.

## **Chapter Four: Results for the quantitative phase of the study**

Chapter four presents the research findings for the quantitative phase of the study. The research questions provide a guide line to what is included in the findings section.

## **Chapter Five: Results for the quantitative phase of the study**

This chapter consists of the findings of the qualitative phase of the research. The research questions provide a guideline to what is included in the findings section.

## **Chapter Six: Discussion of the results**

Chapter six discusses the research findings, mostly in relation to the literature review and the theoretical framework. There are some similarities, as well as differences, in the results of the current and previous studies. Detailed analysis and possible explanations for the results are presented in this chapter.

## **Chapter Seven: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations**

This chapter consists of the recommendations of the research project, reflection on the study and process as a whole, strengths and limitations of the study and the concluding remarks of the research project.

## **1.9.CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter one was a brief outline of the present study. It started with an outline of previous research on work engagement, followed by the problem statement, research objectives and research questions. This was followed by the research methodology. It concluded with an overview of the chapters to follow.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

The literature review gives a background to the conceptualisation of the variables used in the study. It gives an outline of previous research findings. The relationships between variables are addressed. The first section of this paper is a brief explanation of positive psychology and its relevance to the current study on employee engagement. The second section is on work engagement. This is followed by an overview of positive states of employee well-being, namely happiness and job satisfaction. The fourth section is a discussion of stress/burnout. The theoretical framework of the study, which is the job demands resources model, follows. The conclusion brings the chapter to an end.

#### **2.2. POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY**

Positive psychology formally began when many psychologists joined in initiating a science of positive subjective experience, positive individual traits, positive institutions which seek to improve the quality of living for the many, rather than emphasising pathology, as had been so prevalent in psychology during the latter part of the 20th century and beyond (Adams, 2012). Positive psychology is the study of positive experiences, positive character traits, and the institutions that help cultivate them (Wong, 2011). In turn, positive psychologists reason that it is of importance to focus on the positive outcomes in order to enhance such good outcomes for the good of organisations (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). The underlying assumption is that human goodness and excellence are as authentic and as inspiring objects of scientific inquiry

(Seligman, 2011). Thus positive psychology studies subjective phenomena such as work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction, emphasising character strengths (Maddux, 2008).

Seligman (2011) stated that positive psychology should teach people effective pathways to improved functioning and well-being. Wong (2010) added that a balanced approach must also integrate the aversive system that helps people avoid or cope well with undesirable outcomes. One persistent criticism of positive psychology is that it has ignored the reality and benefits of negative emotions and experiences (Wong, 2010). There has recently been a shift in the positive psychology movement, from focusing only on the positive as separate from psychopathology (Seligman, 2011), to focusing both on healing the worst and building the best (Adams, 2012). While acknowledging the need to address the negatives, the dominant message of positive psychology still maintains that negatives will go away if people simply focus on enhancing the positives (Maddux, 2008). However, too much emphasis on positive affect as the answer to all ills can be counterproductive because negative emotions, such as a guilt, regret, frustration, and anger, can also motivate workers toward positive change (Wong, 2010). Well-being thus requires not only approaching positive goals, but also avoiding negative outcomes, or at least dealing well with negative outcomes (Adams, 2012).

Researchers such as Snyder and Lopez (2007) commented that –Future psychologists must develop an inclusive approach that examines both the weaknesses and the strengths of people. Similarly some researchers stress that the future of a balanced positive psychology movement is now. O’Brien and Allen (2008) warn that an exclusive focus on strengths and positive emotions ignores significant parts of human life. The tendency to ignore human tragedy and pain within positive psychology is surprising given the fact that resilience research has been accepted by some to be within the domain of positive psychology (Maddux, 2008). Building

a sustainable future for individuals requires not only building the good, but also avoiding the bad (O'Brien, & Allen, 2008). Since there has been a gap in positive psychology, the present study intends to focus on a balanced model of positive psychology that explicitly seeks to harness the positive potentials from negative emotions and situations, for both individuals and society. In the study, therefore, both positive and negative aspects of employee well-being are studied.

### **2.3. EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING**

Employee well-being is defined as the global assessment of one's life in the workplace (Kim-Prieto, Diener, Tamir, Scollon & Diener, 2005). Although growth in the field of well-being also reflects larger societal trends concerning the value of the individual, combined with the importance of subjective views in evaluating life, within the workplace, wellbeing is increasingly becoming an important issue as those organisations that recognise the role of wellbeing are found to have more creative, effective and socially integrated workers (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). In the workplace well-being has been found to aid positive emotions, broaden ranges of well-being cognitions and behaviour and build resources within the person and within the organisation (Sauter, 2010). In the workplace, employee well-being is characterised by employees who perceive themselves' to be engaged, growing and productive and who experience positive emotional states such as pleasure, joy and energy that help buffer against stress (Hartfiel, Havenhand, Khalsa, Clarke & Krayner, 2011). It is a mental state, the absence of negative feelings, a personal state, brought about by the pursuit of a meaningful life for oneself, or a state resulting from the attainment of goals and rewards for efforts (Lu & Gilmour, 2004). States of positive well-being range from work engagement, happiness, to job satisfaction, while negative aspects of employee well-being include

stress/burnout and job strain (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). In this study work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction will be the positive aspect of employee well-being while burnout will be the negative aspect of employee well-being that will be studied. The following section highlights aspects of work engagement as part of positive psychology.

## **2.4. WORK ENGAGEMENT**

### **2.4.1. Approaches to defining work engagement**

Everyday connotations of work engagement refer to involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, absorption, focused effort and energy (Schaufeli, & Bakker, 2010). However, no agreement exists among practitioners or scholars on a particular conceptualisation of (work) engagement (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). Different approaches of defining work engagement exist and have been categorised as three approaches, namely as a set of motivating resources, in terms of commitment and as a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being (Rich, LePine & Crawford, 2010).

Firstly, work engagement is conceived as a set of motivating resources such as support and recognition from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, opportunities for learning and development and opportunities for the use of skills (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Engaged individuals are described as being psychologically present, fully there, attentive, feeling, connected, integrated and focused on their role performances. They are open to themselves and others, connected to work and others, and bring their complete selves to perform. Put simply, engagement involves investing the hands, head & heart in active, full work performance. This idea is a key tenet of Kahn's (1990) theory of work engagement.

Kahn (1990) proposed that individual and organisational factors influence the psychological experience of work and that this experience drives work behaviour. Motivational characteristics likely associated with engagement include autonomy (freedom in carrying out one's work), task variety (performing different tasks in a job), task significance (how much a job impacts others' lives), feedback (extent to which a job provides performance information), problem-solving (extent to which a job requires innovative solutions or new ideas) and job complexity (extent to which a job is multifaceted and difficult to perform) (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011). These characteristics motivate workers by engendering experiences of meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results (Ching-Fu Chen & Shu-Chuan Chen, 2012).

Engagement concept is motivational because it refers to the allocation of personal resources to role performance and also to how intensely and persistently those resources are applied to individual's perceptions of their work contexts. This is because individual characteristics foster psychological conditions that directly influence the willingness to personally engage in work roles. It is thought to be an indicator of an employee's willingness to expend discretionary effort to help the employer (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Thus individuals who invest their personal selves into their work role are likely to carry a broader conception of that role and are more likely to step outside of the formal boundaries of their job to facilitate the organisation at large and the people within (Rich LePine, & Crawford, 2010). As a motivational concept, engagement should relate to the persistence and intensity with which individuals pursue their task performance (Rich *et al.*, 2010). One way that engagement differs conceptually from many traditional attitudes is that it is closely aligned with task-

specific motivation, which helps to explain why it was related equally strongly with task performance and contextual performance (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Secondly, work engagement is conceived in terms of commitment and extra-role behaviour, (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2009) stated that to be engaged is to be actively committed, as to a cause. Practitioners often define work engagement in terms of organisational commitment, more particularly affective commitment (i.e., the emotional attachment to the organisation) and continuance commitment (i.e. the desire to stay with the organisation) and extra role behaviour (i.e. discretionary behaviour that promotes the effective functioning of the organisation) (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). In contrast to this, Macey and Schneider (2008) defined work engagement as “an individual’s sense of purpose and focused energy, evident to others in the display of personal initiative, adaptability, effort, and persistence directed toward organisational goals” (p. 7).

Kahn (1990) explained that personal engagement represents a state in which employees “bring in” their personal selves during work role performances, investing personal energy and experiencing an emotional connection with their work. In this view, work roles represent opportunities for individuals to apply themselves behaviourally, energetically and expressively, in a holistic and simultaneous fashion (Rich et al., 2010). Although no widely accepted definition of work engagement is currently in use, it has been recently defined as “an individual employee’s cognitive, emotional, and behaviourally state directed toward desired organisational outcomes” (Shuck & Wollard, 2010, p. 103). Emotional engagement refers to the emotional involvement in one’s work. Cognitive engagement refers to sustained attention and mental effort given by an individual at work. Physical engagement refers to the

willingness to put forth discretionary effort towards an individual's work (Schaufeli, Taris & Van Rhenen, 2008). In this sense, work engagement is more than just the investment of a single aspect of the self; it represents the investment of multiple dimensions (physical, emotional and cognitive) so that the experience is simultaneous and holistic (Rich et al., 2010). Individuals who are engaged experience a connection with their work on multiple levels (Frank, Finnegan & Taylor, 2004). Another important factor in defining work engagement is its conceptualisation as a "state" compared with as a "trait." Most of the research conceptualises engagement as a relatively stable individual difference variable that varies between persons (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). However, recent research has indicated that work engagement is subject to moderate day-level fluctuations around an average level. Kahn (1990) postulated that work engagement ebbs and flows are a condition that may vary both between and within individuals (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011). The way practitioners conceptualise engagement risks confusing different constructs and risks putting old wine in new bottles" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010, p. 12).

The third approach defines work engagement as a positive, fulfilling, affective state of work-related well-being (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). In this view, work engagement is most often defined as ... a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, p. 74). Vigour is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work and persistence in the face of difficulties. This energy can also relate to the level of mental effort or mental strength that individuals can put into doing something. In this sense, dedication refers to enthusiasm, feeling proud because of the work done, being inspired by one's job and feeling that one's work is full of meaning and purpose. It refers to the emotional side of work engagement and

the willingness of people to expend considerable time and effort in doing something meaningful (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 209-210).

In fact, dedication refers to satisfying higher order needs such as the need for competence or the need for control (Salanovaa, Schaufeli, Martineza & Bresos, 2009). Absorption refers to the cognitive aspect where individuals are fully focused on something and experience a high level of concentration while performing a task (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). This includes being happily engrossed in one's work, so that time seems to pass quickly and one has difficulty in detaching oneself from work (Coetzer & Rothmann, 2007). Engaged employees become physically involved in their tasks, cognitively alert and emotionally connected to others when performing their job. In contrast, disengaged employees become disconnected from their jobs and hide their true identity, thoughts and feelings during role performances (Olivier & Rothmann, 2007). Research has revealed that engaged employees are highly energetic, self-efficacious individuals who exercise influence over events that affect their lives (Bakker, 2009). Although engaged employees do feel tired after a long day of hard work, they describe their tiredness as a rather pleasant state, because it is associated with positive accomplishments (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). For the purpose of this study work engagement is viewed as a positive fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption.

#### **2.4.2. Consequences of work engagement**

When individual members in an organisation harness themselves in active work engagement, they complete work role performances by driving personal energy into physical, cognitive and emotional labours (Warr, 2007). Thus employees who are work engaged give companies competitive advantages. Richman (2006) claims that work engagement helps predict employee outcomes, organisational success and financial performance. Thus researching



employee engagement enhances the knowledge in organisations on cost effective ways to improve performance (Bakker et al., 2011). Engagement has significant relations with in-role and discretionary work performance reflecting how well an individual performs the duties required by the job (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011). Thus engaged employees will be more vigilant and more focused on their work tasks and engagement should thus be positively related to task performance (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2009). When individuals invest energy in their work roles, they should have higher contextual performance, which relates to an individual's propensity to behave in ways that facilitate the social and psychological context of an organisation (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011). In terms of task performance, this signals that an engaged workforce will perform their tasks more efficiently and effectively. In terms of contextual performance, this means that employees, when engaged, will be more likely to create a social context that is conducive to teamwork, helping, voice and other important discretionary behaviours that can lead to organisational effectiveness (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009).

Work engagement is used as an indicator of intrinsic motivation at work (Warr, 2007). Research findings by Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011) suggest that engaged employees are likely to perform extra-role behaviours, since they are able to “free up” resources by accomplishing goals and performing their tasks efficiently, enabling them to pursue activities that are not part of their job descriptions. Another possibility is that engaged employees consider all aspects of work to be part of their domain and they step outside of their roles to work toward goals held by co-workers and the organisation (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2009).

Even though work engagement has many positive outcomes in organisations, in recent studies (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011) it was found that through investment in extra role behaviours, engaged individuals may be at greater risk of their work interfering with their family life. However, as the literature in engagement has developed, indications have emerged that work engagement may have a dark side. Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter (2011, p. 17) acknowledge this “dark side” of engagement, but it is worth exploring it a bit further.

### **2.4.3. Drivers of work engagement**

The strongest driver of employee work engagement is having a sense of feeling valued and involved (Robinson et al., 2004). Organisations need to understand the voice of the employee and diligence in contact to understand employees' needs, issues and values (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009). Several key components contribute to feeling valued and involved: involvement in decision-making, ability to voice their ideas, opportunities to develop their jobs and the extent to which the organisation demonstrates care for its employees (Robinson et al., 2004). As employees get older, their engagement declines. A possible explanation for this is that, with age, some diseases such as lower back pain could be contributing towards lower work engagement among the bus drivers. Similarly, there is an indirect correlation between engagement and time of service. As time of service increases, engagement declines (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2009). Negative experiences at work, such as an accident or experiencing harassment, have a negative impact on engagement (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011). Employees who have career development plans in place, as well as those who have recently received a performance evaluation, have higher levels of engagement (Warr, 2007).

According to Board (2007), tangible incentives are effective in increasing performance for task not done before, to encourage “thinking smarter” and to support both quality and quantity to achieve goals. Monetary incentives are seen to act as extrinsic rewards that are associated with increased work engagement, despite the stressors that may exist (McLachlan & Hagger, 2010). Despite the stressors, employees still engage and perform their work because they will know that at the end of the month they will still receive their pay, which results in them having a self-determined extrinsic motivation which refers to behaviours that individuals willingly engage in. Non-self-determined behaviours are those that the individual agrees to because of external pressure (Fullagar & Mills, 2008). Money acts as an extrinsic motivator which is the external forces that drive employees to engage in their work (Ali & Ahmed, 2009).

Social support (the extent to which a job provides opportunities for assistance and advice from supervisors or co-workers) is a social characteristic which is likely to be associated with work engagement. Kahn (1990) reported that engagement increased when work included rewarding interactions with co-workers. Social characteristics motivate by creating meaningfulness, resilience and security (Ryan & Deci, 2008). Engagement would be positively related to social support (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). Physical demands (the amount of physical effort necessary for a job) and work conditions (health hazards, temperature, and noise) are contextual work characteristics likely associated with engagement. According to Kahn (1990) when employees have trust in their leaders, they will be more willing to invest themselves in their work, because they feel a sense of psychological safety. Their work engagement thus increases. Kahn (1990), Macey and Schneider (2008) state that when leaders have clear expectations, are fair, and recognise good performance they

will have positive effects on employee engagement by engendering a sense of attachment to the job (Torrente, Salanova, Llorens & Schaufeli, 2012). Thus leaders are critical elements of the work context that can influence how individuals view their work. Previous research has indicated that there are significant relationships between work engagement and happiness (Salanova, Schaufeli, Martineza & Breso, 2009). The role of happiness in work engagement is described in the next section.

## **2.5. HAPPINESS AS WELL-BEING**

### **2.5.1. General happiness**

Happiness involves a purely evaluative type of well-being (i.e., positive affect) without reflection on arousal (DeVoe & House, 2011). Psychological well-being is typically defined in terms of the overall effectiveness of an individual's psychological functioning (Wright, 2005). Outside of the organisational sciences, it has been common for scholars to treat "happiness" as psychological well-being (PWB), sometimes called personal wellbeing or subjective well-being (Roche & Rolley, 2011). Although the term "happiness" is derived from Aristotle's teachings, in order to study the idea of "happiness" more scientifically and with more precise definition, scholars have recently tended to treat "happiness" as well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2008). Happiness or subjective well-being (SWB) is typically defined as "people's cognitive and affective evaluations of their lives" (Seligman, 2011). Aristotle, over 2000 years ago, reasoned that happiness was the key to a good life. Happiness, however, was not about the immediate joys of money or pleasure, but the role and contribution to greater positive factors in life, those that aid individuals in finding purpose and meaning (DeVoe House, 2011). The ideal society is defined as one in which all people are happy and satisfied and experience an abundance of pleasure.

The early Greek philosopher argued that happiness was not separate or exclusionary to self, or distance from other selves, but is sought in the environment in which we live (Roche & Rolley, 2011). For the purpose of this study, happiness is viewed as pleasant judgments (positive attitudes) or pleasant experiences at work.

### **2.5.2. The role of happiness on work engagement**

Adams (2012) stressed that every human being has some extraordinary strengths and authentic happiness that comes from enhancing and cultivating those strengths. The present study concentrates on understanding the role of happiness on work engagement and bridges the gap on the debate of a happy worker being a productive worker (Seligman, 2011). Previous research shows that positive relationships exist between happiness and work engagement (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009). High levels of happiness found to be associated with higher levels of work engagement while individuals experiencing low levels of happiness also experience lower levels of work engagement and higher levels of exhaustion/disengagement (Bosman, Rothman & Buitendach, 2005). Researchers found that happiness is associated with behaviours that create success and that happiness precedes successful outcomes. According to Maslach et al., (2001), the violation of the psychological contract is likely to produce a reduction in work engagement, because it erodes the notion of reciprocity, which is crucial in maintaining well-being. Happy employees have more engaging and autonomous jobs, they are more satisfied with their jobs and they show better performance in the workplace than less happy employees (Boehm, & Lyubomirsky, 2008). Furthermore, happy workers are more likely to engage in beneficial extra-role behaviours and

less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours. Employees with high levels of happiness garner both material and interpersonal rewards (Boehm, & Lyubomirsky, 2008). More and more practitioners urge that establishing a fun workplace environment is important for increasing work engagement, employee happiness, motivation and enhancing job satisfaction, while lowering stress (Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker Lloret & 2006). The success of happy people is said to rest on two main factors. First, because happy people experience frequent positive moods, they have a greater likelihood of working actively toward new goals while experiencing those moods. Second, happy people are in possession of past skills and resources, which they have built over time during previous pleasant moods (Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005). It is thus reasonable to expect that valuing happiness will have beneficial outcomes (Mauss, Tamir, Anderson & Savino, 2011).

Over the years, researchers have proposed a number of different approaches to operationalize happiness. Philosophers and social researchers have defined happiness in a variety of ways (Kesebir & Diener, 2008). The largest divide is between hedonic views of happiness as pleasant feelings and favourable judgments compared with eudaimonic views of happiness involving doing what is virtuous, morally right, true to one's self, meaningful, and/or growth producing (Ryff & Singer, 2008). The hedonic approach is exemplified by research on subjective well-being. Subjective well-being is usually seen as having two correlated components: judgments of life satisfaction (assessed globally as well as in specific domains such as relationships, health work and leisure) and affect balance, or having a preponderance of positive feelings and relatively few or rare negative feelings (Schimmack, 2008). Happiness, in the form of joy, appears in every typology of "basic" human emotions. Feeling happy is fundamental to human experience and most people are at least mildly happy much of the time. In the next section, happiness at work is discussed.

### **2.5.3. Happiness at work**

Definitions of happiness at work “refer to pleasant judgments (positive attitudes) or pleasant experiences” (Fisher, 2010, p. 385). In the past two decades, a number of new constructs have emerged which reflect some form of happiness or positive affective experience in the workplace. What these constructs have in common is that all refer to pleasant judgments (positive attitudes) or pleasant experiences (positive feelings, moods, emotions, flow states) at work (Roche & Rolley, 2011). The happiness of individuals ‘is a function of their incomes and the prevailing environmental conditions. The term ‘happiness’ is acknowledged by the different study fields as possessing different meanings and very often mixed up with the notion of ‘well-being’, which gives the concept a reputation for being elusive (Veenhoven, 2004).

### **2.5.4 Drivers of workplace happiness**

#### **2.5.4.1. Environmental contributors to happiness**

Once basic human needs are met, objective life circumstances account for a modest 8-15% of the variance in subjective well-being (Kesebir & Diener, 2008). At the transient level of positive moods and pleasant emotions, immediate situational occurrences clearly are important in explaining variance in happiness within a person over time (Suh & Koo, 2008). For much of the history of organisational behaviour it has been assumed that the dominant causes of happiness or unhappiness and stress in organisations were to be found in attributes of the organisation, the job, the supervisor, or other aspects of the work environment (Kesebir & Diener, 2008). At the organisational level, one might consider attributes of the

organisation's culture and human resources practices as likely causes of happiness among organisation members (Veenhoven, 2004). It is suggested that employees are happy when they trust the people they work for, have pride in what they do and enjoy the people they work with. Sirota, Mischkind and Meltzer (2005) agree that three factors are critical in producing a happy and enthusiastic workforce: equity (respectful and dignified treatment, fairness, security), achievement (pride in the company, empowerment, feedback, job challenge) and camaraderie with team-mates.

#### **2.5.4.2. Personal contributors to Happiness**

It seems that genes and personality explain some of the person-level variance in happiness, with some individuals being naturally programmed to be happier than others (DeVoe & House, 2011). Individuals high on trait positive affectivity appear to be more sensitive and reactive to potentially rewarding situations and respond with greater increases in pleasant feelings, while those high on negative affectivity respond with stronger negative emotions in potentially punishing situations (Kesebir & Diener, 2008). A biological basis for these traits is found in the distinct behavioural approach and behavioural avoidance systems in the brain. Research on twins suggests that up to 50% of the variance in subjective well-being is genetically determined (Weiss, Bates & Luciano, 2008). Dispositional happy people may also selectively expose themselves to environments or relationships that facilitate subsequent happiness (Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005). In contrast to this, job satisfaction theories suggest that happiness occurs when what the situation offers corresponds to what a particular individual needs, wants, or expects famously proposed that happiness is not having what you want, but wanting what you have (Fisher, 2010). This shows that the unique variance in happiness is predicted by both having what you want and wanting what you have (Roche, &



Rolley, 2011). There is also evidence that positive affect comes from perceptions of progress toward the idiosyncratic goals one has set and from employing one's unique constellation of personal strengths. The specific activities or accomplishments that would make one person happy may be different from those that would make another happy (Weiss, Bates & Luciano, 2008).

#### **2.5.4.3. Becoming happier with effort**

The booming market for self-help books indicates that many individuals believe they can improve their happiness with effort. Researchers have recently turned their attention to designing and assessing interventions aimed at improving long term happiness (Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005). Research by Lyubomirsky, King and Diener (2005) suggests that improving happiness is less straight-forward. For instance, practising gratitude three times per week was less effective than doing it once per week, perhaps because habituation began to set in, while performing several acts of kindness on a single day of the week was more effective than performing one act per day over the same week. Employees make efforts to be happy at work such as coping with stress and using drugs, alcohol and even nicotine to be happy (Fisher, 2010).

Some empirical evidence showed the positive relationship between workplace happiness that comes from humours or fun and employees' job satisfaction (Karl & Peluchette, 2006). Workplace fun was found to be positively related to work engagement which, in turn, increased happiness and job satisfaction (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010). Ford, McLaughlin and Newstrom (2003) reported that more than 90% of those surveyed agreed that a fun work environment leads to increased employee work engagement, enthusiasm,

group cohesiveness and employee satisfaction (O'Brien & Allen, 2008). Lochan (2008) showed that humour among bus drivers was a positive part of the work day. It led them to be happy and enjoy engaging on their daily driving duties. The use of humour during the short breaks was seen to provide employees with an effective coping strategy in order to deal with work-related stress. Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) found that workplace fun, happiness and job satisfaction was found to have a significant positive relationship with work engagement. Besides describing their job more positively, happy people are more satisfied with their jobs compared with unhappy people (Judge & Ilies, 2004). In the next section, job satisfaction as part of employee well-being is discussed.

## **2.6. JOB SATISFACTION AS WELL-BEING**

Rothmann (2008) points out that job satisfaction is one component of the work-related well-being that should be included in diagnostic studies of people's well-being in organisations. Job satisfaction is an attitude often defined as a positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation (Teoh, Tan, Chong & Wool, 2011). Job satisfaction is a component of employee well-being which is used as an aspect of work place happiness. Within the organisation sciences, job satisfaction is probably the most common and one of the oldest operationalisation of workplace "happiness" (Wright, 2005). Warr (2007) regards job satisfaction as one important dimension of an individual's happiness at work.

The concept of job satisfaction has been defined in many ways. Buitendach and De Witte (2005) stress that job satisfaction relates to an individual's perceptions and evaluations of a job and this perception is, in turn, influenced by their circumstances, including needs, values

and expectations. Individuals therefore evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors which they regard as being important to them (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002). Job satisfaction refers to the affective reaction to one's job as the most satisfying (Ozer & Gunluk, 2010). It is one of the most important necessities for an individual to be successful, happy and productive and is a feeling of satisfaction, that is, an outcome of the perception of what the job provides for an individual (Ay & Avaro Lu, 2010).

### **2.6.1. Dimensions of job satisfaction**

Different aspects of job satisfaction can be arranged according to two dimensions: an intrinsic and an extrinsic one. In the study by Buitendach and De Witte (2005), these two groups of motivators were associated with job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction was associated with job satisfaction, while extrinsic motivators were associated with job dissatisfaction. Extrinsic satisfaction refers to satisfaction, with aspects that have little to do with the job tasks or content of the work itself, such as pay, working conditions and co-workers, compensation, remuneration and continuous education (Randolph, 2005), as well as time to serve on professional forums, reward structures, research involvement, monetary bonuses and compensation for additional work done (Kacel et al., 2005). Intrinsic satisfaction refers to the job tasks themselves (e.g. variety and autonomy). Intrinsic factors were found to correlate with motivators or satisfiers. Intrinsic satisfaction refers to job tasks and job content (such as variety, autonomy, skill utilisation, self-fulfilment and self-growth) (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005).

A number of extrinsic job satisfaction factors have been identified as motivational factors. Motivational factors are those factors that are internal to the job and include variables such as the work itself, recognition, responsibility, feedback and growth, while extrinsic/hygiene factors include company policy, supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships and working conditions. Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003) showed that employees tend to prefer jobs that give them opportunities to use their skills and abilities and which offer a variety of tasks, freedom and feedback on how well they are performing. In addition Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003) conclude that these work characteristics make work mentally challenging and create feelings of pleasure and satisfaction for employees. Similarly Samuel and Chipunza (2009) list the top five most important job satisfaction factors to be those that have more to do with interpersonal relationships, atmosphere in the organisation and a sense of personal achievement (that is, personal growth opportunities and level and range of responsibility) (Chiboiwa, et al., 2011). (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren & de Chermont, 2003) found that job satisfaction was related to higher positive affect and lower negative affect. Other research has found that job satisfaction is positively associated with happiness. Job satisfaction, while focusing on the workplace and specifically a persons' job, is related to major types of positive outcomes (Sandberg, Yorgason, Miller & Hill, 2012). For the purpose of the present study job satisfaction is defined as an individual's perceptions and evaluations of a job and this perception is, in turn, influenced by their circumstances, including needs, values and expectations.

### **2.6.2. Contributors to job satisfaction in the workplace**

Remuneration and earnings are a cognitively complex and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction (Ay & Avaro lu, 2010). It can be noted that financial rewards have a significant

impact on job satisfaction. This is because salaries not only assist people to attain their basic needs, but are instrumental in satisfying the higher level needs of people. Such findings are largely consistent with the idea that most employees are socialised in a society where money, benefits and security are generally sought after and are often used to gauge the importance or the worth of a person (Dadish & Usman, 2010). Thus the greater the financial reward the less worry employees have concerning their financial state, thereby enhancing their impression of their self-worth to the organisation (Judge & Ilies, 2004). In contrast to this several other authors maintain that the key in linking pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount that is paid, but rather the perception of fairness. According to Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003), employees seek pay systems that are perceived as just, unambiguous and in line with their expectations. When pay is perceived as equitable, is commensurate with job demands, individual skill level and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to be the result.

Research also indicates that employees with longer tenure have a greater propensity to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with shorter tenure (Kord, 2012). Research has also established that employees with longer tenure were more satisfied with their work itself, as well as their level of pay. It can be concluded that satisfaction increases with time and that those benefits that increase in time, such as security and experience, are likely to have an important influence on employee satisfaction. Tenure refers to the length of time for which the individual has worked for the organisation (Ozer & Gunluk, 2010). Among the more intriguing findings has been that additional education results in lower job satisfaction. This occurs in spite of the recognised association of education with higher earnings and job attributes generally recognised as more desirable. The usual explanation relies on expectations (Randolph, 2005). The more educated have higher expectations for the

pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns from their jobs and so are more easily disappointed and dissatisfied (Ghafoor, 2012). Those with higher earnings report greater job satisfaction, but those reporting more hours of work have the same satisfaction as those reporting fewer hours of work. Pensions and profit-sharing plans are positively associated with job satisfaction (Rothmann, 2008). Some proponents maintain that the relationship between education and job satisfaction is positive in nature. Recent studies suggest, however, that educational level is positively related to job satisfaction, subject to a successful match being made between the individual's work and qualifications (Ghafoor, 2012). This implies that better educated employees are only likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction when the duties performed by them are in line with their level of education.

Research has consistently found age to exert an influence on job satisfaction (Robbins, 2003). Suggestions are that older employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Ghafoor, 2012). This difference may be attributed to better adjustment at work, better conditions and greater rewards at work. Ahmadi and Alireza (2007) espouse the view that older respondents were more likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction than younger respondents. Older workers appear to evince greater satisfaction with their employment than younger workers; however, this relationship is not clear (Kord, 2012). While many suggest a linear relationship other studies report a U shaped relationship (Ahmadi & Alireza, 2007). Research ascribes this to the fact that younger employees may feel satisfied because they have little experience about the labour market against which to judge their own work (Mackie & Moore, 2008). Alternatively, older employees may have reduced aspirations, as they realise that they face limited alternative choices as they get older.

Job satisfaction and engagement have fundamental differences, in that engagement connotes activation, as opposed to satisfaction, which is more similar to satiation (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Other research postulates that if employees are satisfied with their work they will show greater commitment and increased work engagement. Conversely, dissatisfied workers with negative attitudes will ultimately leave the organisation (Mackie & Moore, 2008). This is an important area of research because job satisfaction is correlated to enhanced job performance, positive work values, high levels of employee motivation and lower rates of absenteeism, turnover and burnout (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). In fact, well-being and income are more strongly associated than education and income (Ahmadi & Alireza, 2007). Job satisfaction is an evaluative description of job conditions or characteristics, which is a feature of a job attitude whereas work engagement is a description of an individual's experiences resulting from the work (Koslowsky & Krausz, 2002). Boehm and Lyubomirsky, (2008) state that work engagement is indeed associated with job satisfaction and evidence of success in the workplace. In the next section burnout is discussed as a negative aspect of employee well-being.

## **2.7. BURNOUT AS A NEGATIVE ASPECT OF EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING**

The term 'stress' may have been derived from the Latin word 'strictere', which literally means 'to draw tight.' The literature offers various definitions of this phenomenon (Ahmadi & Alireza, 2007). In other words, the stressfulness of the situation will depend on people's assessment and perception of the difference between the demands of the situation and their ability to meet those demands (Philip, Taillard, Sagaspe, Charles, Davies, Guilleminault & Bioulac, 2003). Stress value depends on the perceived imbalance between an individual's perceptions of the demands made by the environment and the individual's perceived ability

and motivation to cope with those demands. However, it is different from other life stresses in that organisations play a role in moderating the extent of the stress experienced (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). As soon as workers start feeling stressed, insecure and demotivated, organisations and the economy suffer. Rollinson (2005, p.270) defines workplace stress as the conditions arising from the interaction of people and their jobs, which are characterised by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning. Stressors in the workplace are those conditions that have the potential to result in a person experiencing a situation as stressful (Philip, Taillard, Sagaspe, Charles, Davies, Guilleminault & Bioulac, 2003). The degree of stress experienced and the ways in which a person reacts to it can be influenced by a number of other factors such as personal characteristics, lifestyle, social support, appraisal of the stressors, life events and socio-demographic and occupational variables (Rollinson, 2005). Job stress has been recognised as a significant occupational hazard that can impair physical health, psychological well-being and work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

Burnout is a special type of prolonged occupational stress that results from interpersonal demands at work that exceed the worker's resources (Ching-Fu Chen & Shu-Chuan Chen, 2012). It is a special type of prolonged occupational stress that is linked with numerous psychosomatic, psychological and negative job consequences (Cunradi, Greiner, Ragland & Fisher, 2003). Burnout is usually defined as a syndrome of exhaustion and cynicism (Hu & Schaufeli, 2011). Research on burnout and engagement has found that the core dimensions of burnout (exhaustion and cynicism) and engagement (vigour and dedication) are opposites of each other (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Whereas burnout mainly refers to emotional exhaustion (mental fatigue) and cynicism (a distant attitude towards one's work) work engagement is mainly defined by vigour and dedication (Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker



& Lloret, 2006). Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris (2008) suggest that work engagement is negatively related to burnout.

According to Van den Broecka, Vansteenkiste, De Witte and Lensa (2008) paying attention to both burnout and engagement seems fruitful, as from such a more encompassing perspective the thriving of employees can be stimulated more fully, that is by preventing ill-health and stimulating well-being. A commonly discussed source of burnout is overload: job demands exceeding human limits (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Increased workload has a consistent relationship with burnout, especially with the exhaustion dimension (Coetzer & Rothmann, 2007). For the purpose of the present study, burnout is viewed as prolonged occupational stress that results from interpersonal demands in the workplace that go beyond the worker's ability to cope.

### **2.7.1. IMPLICATIONS OF BURNOUT ON WORK ENGAGEMENT**

It is not always the case that stress results in reduction in work engagement. A low amount of stress can result in an increase of work engagement and performance (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). The relationship between stress, work engagement and performance has been verified in many experiments and is explained by Yerkes–Dodson's Law in Figure 1: 'Performance-Stress Relation Curve'. It looks like an inverted U (Ahmadi & Alireza, 2007). At zero arousal, that is when stress is virtually non-existent and attention is minimal performance is zero or poor. An example of minimal stress is when someone is about to fall asleep. As stress increases, so does the level of attention, resulting in improved performance. At high levels of stress, however, performance and work engagement begin to deteriorate dramatically (Ching-Fu Chen & Shu-Chuan Chen, 2012).

Title: Performance-Stress Relation Curve‘

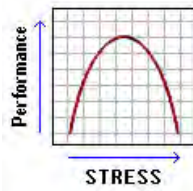


Figure 1: proposed by Ahmadi and Alireza (2007, p.159)

Stressors such as tight routine schedules can act as motivators in cases when the individual has to comply with the targets they have to meet. It is only when the stressors start to exhaust the drivers that work engagement is said to start to decrease (Eid & Larsen, 2008). Regarding the relationship between occupational stress and work engagement even when exposed to high job demands and working long hours, some individuals do not show symptoms of disengagement. Instead, they seem to find pleasure in dealing with these stressors (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

For bus drivers, fatigue is a stressor that is usually apparent when an individual cannot meet self-imposed or externally imposed performance goals, but is forced to continue working under adverse conditions by a sense of duty and/or the need to safeguard the lives of others“ (Tse, Flin & Mearns, 2006). When this fatigue is not dealt with, drivers find themselves not being able to engage and perform their duties well. This supports the findings by Livingstone, Amstrong, Obst and Smith (2009), which suggested that an individual’s cognitive performance drops by up to 40% after one or two nights of total sleep deprivation. It has been reported in other research that continuous sleep loss significantly impacts on tasks requiring vigilance and psychomotor skills. In the study of Taylor and Dorn (2006), fatigue was seen as a challenge, yet with strict occupational scheduling demands disrupting the

adoption of safety margins in prolonged driving, detriments to central task components were observed, to put pressure on drivers to continue engaging in their work.

Research on bus drivers shows that fatigued drivers can maintain adequate performance and protect task priorities through compensatory strategies such as driving slower (if organisational demands permit) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). These strategies were found to help to drivers to be in a position to continue engaging in their work (Annudi, Ran Kecklund, Peters & Kerstedt, 2008). The most common cluster were those who used activity, as well as stopping and drinking caffeine (Philip & Akerstedt, 2006). The second most common cluster was those that used activity or stopping only. The third most common cluster was activity only (Akerstedt & Kecklund, 2001). Interestingly enough contradicting results were found when fatigue was caused by sleep deprivation. Listening to the radio in such cases disrupted the bus drivers from engaging in the work effectively. Crummy (2008) found that it appeared that bus drivers experienced a level of confusion that impacted on their decision-making and ability to deal with additional stimuli while driving, such as the radio playing or children talking in the background. Sometimes sleep recovery was the only way the drivers found that would help them to perform their duties well. The outcome measures used in this study focused on the need for recovery at the end of every day (Machin & Hoare, 2008).

Some drivers were found to experience sleep deprivation as a difficulty that could affect their performance while working. However, sleep deprivation was found not have severe impact on drivers on condition they find some recovering time for sleep (Malmberg, Kecklund, Karlson, Persson, Flisberg, Palle & Malmberg, 2010). The need for some recovery time was a significant predictor of positive and negative affect and of their physical symptoms, indicating that it mediates the influence of workload on positive and negative affect and

physical symptoms (Machin, Hoare & Nancey, 2008). Strategies for management of fatigue in bus drivers should focus on the assessment and remediation of maladaptive coping strategies which impact of drivers' need for recovery. This in turn predicts positive and negative affect and physical symptoms (Machin, Hoare & Nancey, 2008). The way that bus drivers cope with the demands of their job can exert a strong influence on their health and well-being.

Results from previous studies on burnout show that, reduced personal accomplishment and also cynicism, as well as exhaustion, so is more a consequence of strain processes (Ahmadi & Alireza, 2007). It was found that employees reporting high burnout defined their safety role, with respect to their jobs, more narrowly. Higher strain is associated with more accidents and near misses (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009). Two major physiological factors which are postulated to generate fatigue are sleep loss and circadian rhythm disruption (Morrow & Crum, 2004). Beyond these explanations, other fatigue antecedents observed include various environmental factors, time on task, extended concentration and boredom as well as stress (Biggs, Dingsdag & Stenson, 2009). Individuals engage on their work when they perceive themselves to be able to meet the demands on their jobs (Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker & Lloret, 2006). However, when there is a perceived imbalance between an individual's perceptions of the demands made by the environment and the individual's perceived ability and motivation to cope with those demands, this results in stress, which has a potential to affect the work engagement of the individual (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010).

Research on bus driver work engagement shows that the way in which the bus drivers engage with their work is affected by the stressors (Hill & Boyle, 2007). For example, weather

conditions were seen to affect the visibility of the road, which accounted for stress from conditions related to limited visibility (e.g. night driving) (Kontogiannis, 2006). This affected the way drivers engaged in their work, since the drivers had at times to slow down (Hill & Boyle, 2007). The ‘policing’ of ticketing is another stressful factor reported by bus drivers. It results in a dilemma for the drivers, since at times they have an option of committing crimes to meet the routine schedules or to abide by the rules and work behind time during the peak hours (Biggs, Dingsdag & Stenson, 2009). There appears to be a positive correlation between time pressure and accidents for bus drivers (Tse, Flin & Mearns, 2006).

When it comes to being late, the only effective way to handle it is to do the job faster, which may include taking less time to answer questions, braking and accelerating harder, but also driving faster, i.e., using a higher mean speed (Pearce & Maunder, 2000). Many of these driving behaviours have the same consequences: the limits become lower and the risks higher (Cunradi, Greiner, Ragland & Fisher, 2003). It is unfortunate that the bus drivers at times engage in unsafe measures to cover up the time they would have lost, for example, workers feel that they need to commit traffic offences (such as speeding or ‘tailgating’) in order to meet task demands (such as making scheduled appointments on time (Rowland, Jeremy, Darren & Freeman, 2007). In addition, driver stress has been related to aggressive driving, poor concentration levels and accidents (Hoskins, 2003). Work engagement decrements occur before the driver is subjectively aware of the fatigue (Kontogiannis, 2006). Fatigued drivers become complacent and underestimate the effort needed to maintain driving performance (Tse, Flin & Mearns, 2006). This issue is, of course, most applicable to professional drivers, for whom hours of service limitations are implemented to guard against fatigue-related safety errors, but it also has relevance to stress spill-over from the work day on the commute home (Rowland, Jeremy, Darren & Freeman, 2007). Various resulting deleterious effects on

driving behaviour identified include impaired reaction times, decreased attention to safety behaviours, reduction in visual scanning behaviour, fluctuations in driving speed, failure to stay within lanes and, ultimately, falling asleep at the wheel (Biggs, Dingsdag & Stenson, 2009). In a study that was done by Biggs, Dingsdag and Stenson (2009) on metropolitan bus drivers, in urban areas of Sydney, Australia, fatigue was seen to be related to stress. Hartfiel, Havenhand, Khalsa, Clarke and Krayner (2011) found that the bus drivers' stress was due to tiredness, brought on by factors that include inadequate rest, prolonged wakefulness and environmental stressors.

Fatigue was seen to affect the performance of drivers, in that they engaged in aggressive driving and had poor concentration, leading to near misses. Powell et al., (2007) study near-miss accidents were found to be more frequent than actual driving accidents. Sagape, Taillard, Bayon, Lagarde, Moore, Boussege, Chaumet, Bioulac and Pierre (2010) revealed that one-third of French drivers experienced at least one episode of severe sleeplessness at the wheel, showing that stress had a negative impact on work engagement. The work-load stressors include extended commute times and tight route schedules (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007). The job stress phenomenon is known as burnout, as well as its positive opposite of engagement with work (Leiter, 2005). A link between emotional exhaustion and individual-level performance may be argued for by proposing that a high level of emotional fatigue has both an energetic and a motivational component, resulting in being unable as well as being unwilling to engage in work (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen & Christensen, 2005). Job stress has been recognised as a significant occupational hazard. This is because job stress can impair physical health, psychological well-being and work performance (Hartfiel, Havenhand, Khalsa, Clarke & Krayner, 2011). For instance when employees withdraw mentally, their work engagement levels will decrease.

## **2.8. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THIS STUDY**

The Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model is a heuristic and parsimonious model that specifies how burnout and work engagement may be produced by two specific sets of working conditions that can be found in every organisational context: job demands and job resources (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). The two most often studied positive and negative outcomes in the JD-R model are work engagement and stress/burnout, respectively (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012).

### **2.8.1. Differentiating job demands**

Bakker and Demerouti (2007, p. 312) define job demands as ‘those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills’ (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Hetland, 2012). These psychological costs (e.g. exhaustion) include aspects such as workload, time pressure and difficult physical environments. Each day individuals are exposed to a variety of workplace demands. Job demands, whether they are administrative frustrations, emotional conflict, or role overload, require sustained physical and psychological effort, which can have significant physiological and psychological costs (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010).

Working conditions categorised as job demands in the context of safety include risks and hazards present in the workplace, physical demands associated with the work, as well as the complexity of the work (Hu & Schaufeli, 2011). Previous research has identified aspects of the physical environment, such as noise and materials, as job demands (Rowland, Davey,

Wishart & Freeman, 2007). Thus job demands is the degree to which the environment contains stimuli that peremptorily require attention and response. Job demands are aspects of the job that have to be done and clearly in every job something has to be done (Simbula, Guglielmi & Schaufeli, 2011). Exposure to high job demands and therefore to high levels of workload may result in stress reactions, such as fatigue or exhaustion (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011). Consequently, job demands may have adverse health effects. Job demands are not necessarily negative they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires high effort. They are therefore associated with high costs that elicit negative responses such as depression, anxiety, or burnout (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012).

According to Makikangas, Bakker, Aunola and Demerouti (2010) there are challenge demands and hindrance demands. Examples of challenge demands include a high workload, time pressure and high levels of job responsibility (Bakker, Veldhoven & Xanthopoulou, 2010). Employees tend to perceive these demands as opportunities to learn, achieve and demonstrate the type of competence that tends to get rewarded. Hindrances tend to be appraised as stressful demands that have the potential to thwart personal growth, learning, and goal attainment (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009). Examples of hindrance demands include role conflict, role ambiguity, organisational politics, red tape and hassles. Employees tend to perceive these demands as constraints, barriers or roadblocks that unnecessarily hinder their progress toward goal attainment and rewards that accrue as a result of being evaluated as an effective performer (Makikangas, Bakker, Aunola & Demerouti, 2010). Individuals should be more willing to invest themselves in response to challenging demands because they are likely to feel more confident and secure that expending their effort will allow them to successfully meet these demands, and they are likely to see the opportunity for growth or gain achieved by meeting them as meaningful and desirable (Rich, LePine &



Crawford, 2010). As an example, people with a high level of job responsibility are likely to feel that they can successfully meet this demand by working very hard and that by doing so they will experience a sense of personal accomplishment and perhaps receive formal recognition (Bakker, Veldhoven & Xanthopoulou, 2010). This concurs with Macey and Schneider's (2008) view, that challenging situations promote engagement when employees trust that their investment of time and energy will be rewarded in some meaningful way.

Perceiving opportunity and meaning in the face of stressful demands predicts individuals deriving benefits from coping with those demands (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). Makikangas, Bakker, Aunola and Demerouti (2010) demonstrated that the experience of positive emotions and the experience of meaning emanating from being challenged are both associated with greater levels of motivation and engagement (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). As people feel that coping efforts will be effective and expect to experience meaning in meeting these challenges, they become more willing to invest the energy to adopt more active, problem-focused styles of coping and such investments should be reflected in greater engagement (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Rich, 2010). Challenge demands should thus have a positive relationship with engagement. Hindrance demands, because they tend to be appraised as having the potential to harm or block personal growth or gains, tend to trigger negative emotions (e.g. fear, anxiety, anger) and a passive or emotional style of coping (e.g. rationalisation, withdrawing from the situation) (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010). Individuals should be less willing to invest themselves to respond to hindering demands because the negative emotions they experience are likely to make them feel unable to adequately deal with these demands (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, Demerouti, Shaufeli, Taris & Schreurs, 2007).

### **2.8.2. Differentiating job resources**

The second set of working conditions on the job demands resources model are job resources, which not only help employees deal with job demands, but also have the potential to motivate employees (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). Job resources include physical, psychological, social and or organisational aspects of the job that help employees achieve work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and/or stimulate personal growth and development (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). Examples of job resources include autonomy, co-worker support, and feedback (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010). Job resources can be derived from the organisation (e.g. pay, job security), interpersonal and social relations (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support), organisation of work (e.g. participation in decision making) and the task (e.g. autonomy, feedback) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Resources are not only necessary to deal with job demands and to get work done, but they are important in their own right. Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen (2009) proposed that job resources play both an intrinsic and extrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning and development on the one hand, and the willingness to invest efforts and abilities to the work task on the other, thereby achieving work goals (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). These processes are reflected in a stronger dedication to one's work (and hence, e.g., to a lower intention to leave the organisation—the motivational hypothesis) (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011). Job resources refer to those aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, stimulate personal growth and development and reduce job demands and their associated physiological and psychological costs and include aspects such as job control, opportunities

for development participation in decision making, task variety, feedback and work social support (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, Demerouti, Shaufeli, Taris & Schreurs, 2007). Job resources are assumed to activate a motivational process (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011). Job resources are perceived resources that are instrumental in achieving work goals that can also foster employees' growth, learning, and development; satisfy needs for autonomy and competence; and increase willingness to dedicate one's efforts and abilities to the work (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). These perceptions and beliefs increase the degree to which individuals are willing to invest themselves into their role performances.

### **2.8.3. Basic assumptions of the job demands resources model**

The job demands resources model (JD-R model) can be summarised with a short list of assumptions/premises. Firstly whereas every occupation may have its own specific factors associated with job stress and work engagement the JD-R model proposes that these factors can be classified in two general categories: job demands and job resources (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). The presence of job demands has been linked to increased employee burnout and absenteeism and decreased performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In high-risk environments, other job demands—including exposure to hazardous materials, cognitively challenging work, or physically demanding work—are also present, and these job demands may lead to an entirely different set of outcomes for employees, such as workplace accidents, injuries and fatalities (Perry, Rubino & Witt, 2011). Similarly Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw and Rich (2010) note that examples of job demands include high work pressure, an unfavourable physical environment, and emotionally demanding interactions

(Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). The depletion of energy and increased stress from responding to demands gradually leads employees to feel used up and worn out (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011). Job demands are thus assumed to have a direct positive relationship with burnout (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010).

The JD-R model proposes that job demands act through job strain to affect other outcomes (Bakker, & Demerouti, 2007). It is argued that increasing job demands will lead to higher job strain, indicating the operation of compensatory processes, and that the latter will lead employees to look for less effortful ways to deal with goals they accord lower priority, such as those related to safety (Makikangas, Bakker, Aunola & Demerouti, 2010). When job demands increase, regulatory problems occur, in the sense that compensatory effort has to be mobilised to deal with the increased demands, whilst maintaining performance levels (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). This extra compensatory effort is associated with physiological and psychological costs such as increased sympathetic activity, fatigue and irritability. Continuous mobilisation of compensatory effort drains the employee's energy and might lead to stress/burnout, ill-health and eventually absenteeism (Simbula, Guglielmi & Schaufeli, 2011).

A second assumption of the JD-R model of work engagement is that two different underlying psychological processes play a role in the development of job strain and motivation, that is through a health impairment process and motivational process (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). Health impairment is a process through which poorly designed jobs or chronic job demands exhaust employees' mental and physical resources. In turn, this might lead to the depletion of energy and to health problems (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). Conversely, motivational process is the process where job resources exert their motivating potential and lead to high work engagement, low cynicism and excellent performance. Job

resources may play an intrinsic or an extrinsic motivational role (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, Demerouti, Schaufeli, Taris & Schreurs, 2007). Evidence for the dual process: a number of studies have supported the dual pathways to employee well being proposed by the JD-R model. It has been shown that the model can predict important organisational outcomes. Taken together, research findings support the JD-R model's claim that job demands and job resources initiate two different psychological processes, which eventually affect important organisational outcomes (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich, 2010). When both job demands and resources are high, high strain and motivation is to be expected. Consequently, the high demands-low resources condition should result in high strain and low motivation, while the low demands-high resources condition should have, as a result low strain and high motivation (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011).

The third assumption of the JD-R model is that job resources particularly influence motivation or work engagement when job demands are high (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). This implies that job resources gain their motivational potential particularly when employees are confronted with high job demands. For example, when employees are faced with high emotional demands, social support of colleagues might become more visible and more instrumental (Perry, Rubino & Witt, 2011). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) proposed that job resources play both an intrinsic and extrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning and development, on the one hand, and the willingness to invest one's efforts and abilities to the work task, on the other, thereby achieving work (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich, 2010). With respect to the intrinsic component, it is reasoned that work engagement may reflect the development of new ways to cope with cumbersome organisational safety practices (Hu & Schaufeli, 2011). It is argued that higher work engagement, resulting from increased job resources such

as autonomy, will have an impact on violations provoked by the organisation, in other words on “situational” violations (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011). According to this approach, work environments that offer abundant resources foster the willingness of employees to dedicate their efforts and abilities to the work task. In such environments it is likely that the task will be completed successfully and that the work goal will be attained (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). For instance, supportive colleagues and performance feedback increase the likelihood of being successful in achieving one’s work goals. Job resources are thus likely to foster work engagement through a motivational process that satisfies basic needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence and this increases the likelihood of attaining one’s work goals (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). Studies using the JD-R model have shown that job resources particularly have an impact on work engagement when job demands are high (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009).

Fourthly, the interaction between job demands and job resources is important for the development of job strain and motivation, as well; according to the JD-R model, job resources may buffer the impact of job demands on job strain, including burnout (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). Which specific job resources buffer the impact of different job demands, depends on the particular work environment (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011). Different types of job demands and job resources may interact in predicting job strain.

#### **2.8.4. The relationship between job demands and resources with work engagement**

Recent meta-analytic work suggests the relationship between job demands and engagement depends on whether the demand is a challenge or a hindrance demand (Crawford et al.,

2010). Challenge demands promote mastery, personal growth, or future gains and employees view these demands as opportunities to learn, achieve and demonstrate competence. Hindrance demands impede personal growth, learning and goal attainment and are generally seen by employees as constraints, barriers, or roadblocks that hinder progress toward goals and effective performance (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). Challenge demands have been found to be positively related to engagement, whereas hindrance demands have been found to be negatively related to engagement (Crawford et al., 2010). Similarly, based on a more heterogeneous sample of workers, there is a strong positive relationship between job demands (workload, emotional demands, work–home conflict) and exhaustion, together with a strong negative relationship between resources (autonomy, possibilities for development, social support) and disengagement (the opposite of motivation and commitment) (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010).

A sample study by Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen (2009) found that job demands was a strong predictor of work engagement while job resources was a strong predictor of both burnout and engagement. Crawford, LePine and Rich (2010) suggested that, because physical demands and work conditions lead workers to perform tasks, they are likely to be negatively associated with engagement. As physical demands and stressful work conditions increase, workers will become physically uncomfortable, leading to more negative experiences while at work (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012).

There is however, evidence that job resources are implicated, not only in the motivational process, but also in the energy depletion/health impairment process (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). Cross-sectional studies have shown that burnout is predicted by an absence of such job resources as social support, feedback and supervisory coaching and

a lack of job control, supervisor support, information, social climate and innovative climate (Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006). One explanation for such findings is that energy may be depleted not only by excessive job demands, but also by chronic shortfalls in important work-related resources that require individuals to draw on their own personal reserves to compensate (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). A number of studies have confirmed this mediating role of burnout and engagement between demands/resources and various negative/positive outcomes (Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006). The dimensions of affective well-being inter-correlate positively. Stress correlates negatively with all dimensions of affective well-being (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). When the stress level is much higher, and the affective well-being scores are lower, which seems to result in lower individual engagement (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012).

Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti and Hetland, (2012) study shows that it is important for employees to have sufficient job resources available in their work in order to increase positive aspects of employee well-being in the workplace such as work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction (Crawford et al., 2010). Incentives such as pay, autonomy, social support from colleagues, supervisory coaching, and performance feedback are examples of such resources, but one could also consider skill variety, possibilities for self-growth, participation in decision-making and high quality communication (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010). Job demands and resources were found to predict work engagement, job satisfaction, work happiness/flow states and burnout. These findings illustrate the importance of the current study for organisations (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). This is because the results show that in order to increase work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction reducing the exposure to job demands is not the best option; instead, the motivating potential of job resources should be exploited (Breevaart, Bakker,



Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). Thus job resources are not only necessary to deal with job demands and to get things done“, but they are also important in their own right because they increase work engagement, job satisfaction and work happiness when exposed at certain levels (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006).

In contrast, lack of organisational resources has a detrimental effect, not only on employee burnout, but also on employee motivation to engage and performance since it precludes actual goal accomplishment (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). In addition, providing job resources would set in motion a gain cycle that is not only likely to result in higher levels of engagement, but also to increase job resources (Perry, Rubino & Witt, 2011). The studies highlighted in the literature review have shown that what separates whether or not people engage in their work is largely a matter of attitude (Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006). How a person perceives their work environment, either in an optimistic way or in a pessimistic way, will determine their state of well-being, regardless of stressors and job demands (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). Understanding the concept engagement among employees is of use since it will enable practitioners to identify the factors that make employees motivated to engage in their work (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012).

To summarise, the JD-R perspective, all job demands, whether challenges or hindrances, should be positively related to burnout, because the increased effort associated with the appraisal of demands and coping with them results in strain (e.g. anxiety, fatigue). This in turn, is dissatisfying and, over time, can lead to employees feeling exhausted and worn out (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2008). Hindrance demands should thus have a negative relationship with engagement (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). People feel that they will be frustrated in their efforts to overcome these hindrances or barriers and perceive they will be

blocked from attaining meaningful outcomes. They become less willing to invest energy to deal with hindrances directly and will resort to more passive, emotion-focused styles of coping, such as those reflected in withdrawal and decreased engagement (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011). Evidence from suggests that job resources have a direct negative relationship with burnout (Perry, Rubino & Witt, 2011). Individuals with larger pools of resources are more easily able to meet demands and to protect themselves from the strains of resource depletion, whereas individuals with limited resources to meet demands more quickly accrue strains that eventually result in burnout (Bakker, Veldhoven & Xanthopoulou, 2010). Job resources are thus assumed to have a direct negative relationship with burnout (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011).

#### **2.8.5. Relevance of the job demands resources model in the present study**

The role of employee happiness, job satisfaction, burnout, job demands and resources on work engagement is part of the present study. Thus using the JD-R model is of relevance in this study, since studies such as Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti and Hetland, (2012) show that the availability of job resources is associated with positive outcomes such as work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. The JD-R model distinguishes between two different processes of reaction by the worker to his or her working (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011). According to the JD-R model, the two sets of working conditions evoke different processes. The JD-R model encompasses and extends both job demands and job resources which is considerably more flexible and rigorous (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011). Incentives are an example of job resources that influence employee well-being. Thus the use of the JD-R model in the present study is of relevance in predicting work

engagement, job satisfaction, work happiness/flow states and burnout. In analysing the findings in the present study, using the JD-R model helps to illustrate the importance and role job demands and resources play in organisations (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). This is because job demands and resources are important in influencing work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout.

Furthermore the two most often studied positive and negative outcomes in the JD-R model are work engagement and stress/burnout, respectively (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). Hence for the purpose of this study, the JD-R model is relevant in understanding work engagement among bus drivers in Zimbabwe. An advantage of the JD-R model is that it a heuristic and parsimonious model that specifies how job strain (burnout) and betterment (work engagement) may be produced by two specific sets of working conditions that can be found in every organisational context: job demands and job resources (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). (1) There is a strain process in which high job demands (e.g. work overload, emotional demands, work-home conflict) deplete employees' mental energy and may produce burnout (exhaustion and cynicism) and involuntary sickness absence (Simbula, Guglielmi & Schaufeli, (2011). (2) There is a motivational process in which sufficient job resources (e.g. autonomy, performance feedback, social support and opportunities for learning) foster employee motivation and thus may produce work engagement (vigour, absorption and dedication) and reduce voluntary sickness absence (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010).

Although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires high effort from which the employee has not adequately

recovered (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). The JD-R model therefore provides for a variety of job demands and resources. This helps to gain more understanding of work engagement among the bus drivers in the current study. This implies that job resources gain their motivational potential particularly when employees are confronted with high job demands (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012).

Secondly, the JD-R model is of relevance in this study because job resources are a set of working conditions which not only help employees deal with job demands but also impact on work happiness and job satisfaction leading to work engagement among the employees (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). Job resources include physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that help employees achieve work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs and/or stimulate personal growth and development (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010). For example, when employees are faced with high emotional demands, social support of colleagues might become more visible and more instrumental (Perry, Rubino & Witt, 2011). There is evidence for the salience of job resources in the context of high job demands for example in Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro and Borg (2012), the JD-R model supported the hypothesis that resources gain their salience in the context of high demands. Studies using the JD-R model have shown that job resources particularly have an impact on work engagement even when job demands are high (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009). The job demands resources model explains how some demands reduce engagement, while other demands may actually promote engagement (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011).

A third advantage of the JD-R model is that the main assumptions of the model have been confirmed in cross-sectional studies such as that of (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The JD-R

model has been of relevance to adopt in this study since it entailed a cross-sectional study (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). It appears that job demands and job resources can be empirically distinguished and that they are weakly to moderately negatively correlated (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). As far as the strain process is concerned, results convincingly show that job demands are positively related to burnout (Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006). Poor job resources are also related to burnout, particularly cynicism that this relationship is generally weaker than with job demands (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, Demerouti, Schaufeli, Taris & Schreurs, 2007). All these assumptions will be empirically stated since part of the research was done using a questionnaire.

A fourth advantage of the JD-R model is that there is evidence for the buffer effect of job resources, showing a strong support for the proposed interaction between job demands and job resources in their relationship with employee well-being (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich, 2010). Thus the JD-R model is thus of relevance to this study because it gives a better understanding of the buffering effect of job resources on job demands, showing strong support for the proposed interaction between job demands. The interaction between job demands and job resources is important for the development of job strain, motivation and work engagement (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). The use of the JD-R model will enhance the understanding work engagement among the bus drivers in the current study. Fifthly, job demands and resources can be linked to a variety of other outcomes, such as happiness, job satisfaction, absenteeism through burnout and work engagement (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012; Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012; Perry, Rubino & Witt, 2011; Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006). The JD-R model satisfies the

need for specificity by including various types of job demands and resources, depending on the occupational context under study (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011).

Even though the JD-R model has limitations, it has been adopted in this study in understanding work engagement among bus drivers because its advantages override the disadvantages of the model (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011). Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti and Hetland (2012) explain that a shortcoming of the JD-R model is that it currently lacks theory to account for this variation, given the importance of predicting engagement in the model. Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti and Hetland (2012) state that it is crucial to consider whether these differences in relationships with job demands are systematic and if so, what explains them. Similarly Perry, Rubino and Witt, (2011) add that, the failure to differentiate the type of demand in the current JD-R model masks relationships with engagement that, in fact, exist. In contrast to this other scholars such as Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen (2009) caution that even though the limitation exists, an advantage of the JD-R model constitute an overarching model that may be applied to various occupational settings, regardless of the particular demands and resources involved. Even though all job demands require sustained effort, deplete energy and result in strain and burnout, demands also vary systematically in terms of the psychological responses they tend to trigger. Some job demands should reduce engagement, while other demands may actually promote engagement (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011).

## **2.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter provided a brief outline of the literature review. It gives an overview of the conceptualisation of the variables used in this study. The literature review gave a background

to the conceptualisation of the variables used. The variables include previous research on work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction, stress/burnout and the JD-R model. Lastly, the theoretical model applied in this study was discussed.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter the researcher describes the characteristics of mixed method research and, in the process, examines those aspects that are of particular importance to this research project. Chapter three addresses the research design employed to investigate the research hypotheses. Firstly the research methodology is presented. This is followed by the research paradigm and the research objectives. The next section discusses the participants and includes the population, sampling design, the sample and the demographic information with regard to the sample characteristics. Presentation of the demographic results of the biographical questionnaire will be in the form of tables. This is followed by a section on data collection, which highlights the procedure by which the research was conducted. In the section on data analysis the statistical techniques that have been used are described. The statistical analysis indicating the reliability and validity of the instruments will be depicted in the form of tables.

#### **3.2. METHODOLOGY**

##### **3.2.1. Research design**

The study used a mixed method research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2010, p.5) define the methodology of mixed method as “The broad inquiry logic that guides the selection of specific methods”. Researchers have been mixing qualitative and quantitative approaches for decades (Cameron, 2011). Mixed methods research, is also known as mixed research, wherein a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and



quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration“ (Onwuegbuzie, Bustamante & Nelson, 2010, p.58). Mixed methods research has been hailed as a response to the long-lasting, circular and remarkably unproductive debates discussing the advantages and disadvantages of quantitative versus qualitative research as a result of the paradigm wars“ (Feilzer, 2010, p.6). Proponents of mixed methods research strive for an integration of quantitative and qualitative research strategies. This approach does not therefore fall comfortably within one or the other worldview (Leech, Dellinger, Brannagan & Tanaka, 2010). Researchers have attempted to construct an alternative framework (mixed methods research) that accommodates the diverse nature of such research (Creswell, & Clark, 2007, p. 26-28). Mixed method research is a growing area of methodological choice for many academics and researchers, across a variety of disciplines (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

This investigation entails a cross-sectional descriptive study for the quantitative part of the research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). A descriptive study establishes only associations between variables (Morse, 2009). Levin (2006, p.24) states that “cross sectional studies are carried out at one time over a short period of time.” A cross-sectional study examines a phenomenon by taking a cross section of it at one time and analysing that cross-section carefully. Even though cross-sectional studies base their conclusions on observations made at one time on one thing, their findings are of value, since relationships between variables can be made (Rubin & Babbie, 2010).

### 3.3. RESEARCH PARADIGM

Morgan (2007) provided four definitions of paradigm; one of these definitions is that a paradigm is shared beliefs within a community of researchers who share a consensus about which questions are most meaningful and which procedures are most appropriate for answering those questions“ (p. 53). There are many definitions of a paradigm. Some scholars suggest that a paradigm is a way of looking at the world. It is composed of certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct thinking and action. Others define a paradigm as a general organizing framework for theory and research that includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research and methods for seeking answers (Onwuegbuzie, Bustamante & Nelson, 2010).

There are debates surrounding research paradigms which have a long history and were particularly active in the 1980s. Some commentaries on the debate contend that the struggle for primacy of one paradigm over others is irrelevant, as each paradigm is an alternate offering with its own merits. There are several schools of thought in the paradigm debate, or so-called paradigm wars‘ (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). At one end of the debate are the purists‘, who assert paradigms and methods should not be mixed (Feilzer, 2010). In direct opposition to the purists‘ are the pragmatists, who argued against a false dichotomy between the qualitative and quantitative research paradigms and advocate the efficient use of both approaches. The pragmatic worldview (Morgan, 2007) is a deliberate choice for practitioners who practise a pluralistic orientation towards paradigms, focused on the primary importance of the research question and multi-method data collection and analysis. Pragmatism, as a research paradigm, accepts multiple realities and orients itself toward solving practical problems (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Even though there are debates concerning whether two

paradigms should be used at one point in time or not for the purpose of this study, both the positivism and interpretive paradigm to research has been adopted. This is because in the 21<sup>st</sup> century there are more pros than cons that have been identified as using more than one paradigm at a time. The quantitative paradigm adopted is based on positivism. This is characterized by empirical research where all phenomena can be reduced to empirical indicators which represent the truth. The ontological position of the quantitative paradigm is that there is only one truth, an objective reality that exists independent of human perception. The positivist paradigm was adopted in this study to ensure reality is objectively given. This enabled the investigator studied the phenomenon without influencing it or being influenced by it. Reality was described by measurable properties through the use of questionnaires. The quantitative research instruments were able to test theory through the use of statistical tools and packages.

The qualitative approach that has been adopted in the study is in the form of the interpretive paradigm. The interpretive paradigm is guided by the researcher's set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied (Maxwell, 2005, p. 36). This is not necessarily a matter of free choice and may require the researcher to examine some previously unexamined assumptions or personal theories (Maxwell, 2005, p. 37). Rather, the interpretative paradigm supports the belief that reality is constructed by subjective perception, it is constructed inter-subjectively through the meanings and understandings developed socially and experientially and predictions cannot be made (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Qualitative research methods usually aim for depth and quality rather than quantity of understanding. It is inductive in that the researchers develop concepts, insights and

understandings from patterns in a data rather than collecting data to assess hypothesis, models or theories (Leedy & Ormrode, 2010).

### **3.4. PARTICIPANTS**

#### **3.4.1. Population**

A population refers to the entire group of people from which data can be sourced and investigated and from which the researcher can make inferences (Leedy & Ormrode, 2010). For the purpose of the present study the target population of drivers includes bus drivers who work in Harare and have a destination going to the high and low density suburbs of Harare. In Harare there are six main bus ranks in the city centre that service different destinations. These bus ranks have names. Before the privatisation of the public transport system in Zimbabwe, these bus ranks were used by ZUPCO, which is a government-owned Bus company. However, after the privatisation of the transport system the bus ranks were used by privately owned commuter omnibuses as ranks. The exact names of the bus ranks have been used in the study. Of the six main ranks, four were chosen. The bus rank called Market Square, where the pilot study was done. Copacabana, Fourth Street and Charge Office are the names of the bus ranks where the actual study was conducted.

#### **3.4.2. Sample size**

Participants were selected in two categories for the quantitative (questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews) phase of the research. The first category was for the pilot study and the second was for the actual study. The participants for both the qualitative and quantitative part of the study were 322 inclusive of the pilot study.

### **3.4.3. Sampling design for the quantitative phase of the research**

For the quantitative part of the study, 30 participants were selected for the pilot study. The data used in this study was obtained from bus drivers in Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe. To ensure a good response rate, 400 bus drivers were invited to participate. Including the pilot study (n=313) respondents completed filling in the questionnaire. Systematic random sampling was used in the data collection. Four different bus ranks were used. The names of the bus ranks are Market square where the pilot study was done. Copacabana, Fourth and Charge office are the names of the bus ranks where the actual study was conducted.

The participants in the pilot study were selected from Market Square bus rank, using systematic random sampling. This is when a sample can be drawn at fixed intervals (Cheshire, 2005). In this study every third public transport commuter omnibus driver in the line of commuter omnibuses waiting for passengers was a target participant in survey. The purpose of the pilot study was to ensure that test-re-test reliability exists. This is the ability of a test to be replicable. Another purpose of the pilot study was to evaluate the questionnaire to see if it was possible to conduct the study in English (Bryman, 2011). If problems existed in using the questionnaires in certain areas, the questionnaire would have been adjusted. This was not necessary, however, as there was success in conducting the pilot study (Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). The second selection of participants was for the actual study. Two hundred and eighty three (n=283) respondents completed filling in the questionnaire in the study, excluding the pilot study.

#### **3.4.4. Sampling design for the qualitative phase of the research**

For the qualitative interviews three drivers were selected in the pilot study, while six drivers were selected in the actual study, using purposive sampling. The bus drivers were selected in a non-random way however with the intention of suiting the purpose of this study. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where the selection of participants does not involve random selection (Gray, Willianson, Karp & Dalphin, 2006). In purposive sampling, a researcher chooses a sample with a purpose in mind and the sample is selected to include people of interest and exclude those who do not suit the purpose (Leedy & Ormrode, 2010). In qualitative research, six to ten data sources or sampling units can be used to obtain sufficient data (Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). The drivers will provide sufficient data for this part of the study. The nine public transport commuter omnibus drivers were selected from Market Square bus rank.

#### **3.4.5. Demographic data with regard to the sample characteristics**

The demographic information of the (n=313) bus drivers who completed the questionnaire is presented in Table 1. The sample size for this study consisted of 313 respondents from 400 distributed questionnaires. The response percentage of participants is 78.25% as shown in Table 1. The largest number of respondents was from Charge Office and consisted of 30.99% of the drivers. This was followed by respondents from Fourth Street bus rank, made up 30.03% of the total participants in the study. Copacabana combined of 29.39% while the pilot study from Market Square made up 9.58% of the sample size.

**Table 1**

*Table for demographic data with regard to the sample characteristics*

		Frequency	Percent
<b>Gender</b>	Male	313	100.0
<b>Age</b>	24years and younger	23	7.3
	24-35	179	57.2
	36-45	85	27.2
	45-55	20	6.4
	56 years and above	6	1.9
	Total	313	100.0
<b>Bus rank</b>	charge Office	97	31.0
	Fourth Street	94	30.0
	Copacabana	92	29.4
	Market Square	30	9.6
	Total	313	100.0
<b>Education level attained</b>	Until form four = <i>(a year below grade 12 in South Africa)</i>	196	62.6
	Until form six = <i>(a year above grade 12 in South Africa)</i>	87	27.8
	Diploma level	23	7.3
	University level	7	2.2
	Total	313	100.0
<b>Tenure</b>	Less than one year	24	7.7
	2-5 years	117	37.4
	6-10 years	108	34.5
	11 -15 years	15	4.8
	16 years or more	49	15.7
	Total	313	100.0
<b>Marital Status</b>	Single	49	15.7
	Married	222	70.9
	Divorced	29	9.3
	Widowed	13	4.2
	Total	313	100.0

In the current study all the participants were male as shown in Table 1. Findings in this study are similar to Sjodin, Lovisa Romanoff, Aguilar-Villalobos, Needham, Hall, Luis, Cassidy, Simpson and Naeher (2012) study where all the bus driver participants were male. However even though the other studies such as Hwang, Choi, Choi, Lee, Kim, Cho and Yoon (2012) had female bus drivers, they were significantly low which highlights a trend in the career where there are few female bus drivers. There are possible explanations on why the whole sample in the current study consists of the same gender or in the case of other studies the females are few in this career. Firstly in this career drivers work more than the normal eight hour shift. In the current study and other studies like Sjodin, Lovisa et.al (2012) revealed that the average daily shift was  $13 \pm 2$  hours. Working the average daily shift of  $13 \pm 2$  hours instead of the normal 8 hour shift in the commuter omnibus industry could be a potential challenge for women to work as many hours as that since this would conflict with their family roles as women.

As shown in Table 1 the majority of the drivers were aged between 24 and 35 years (57.2%). This means that the majority of the bus drivers were young. This was followed by drivers who were between 36 and 45 years (27.2%). Drivers who were 24 years old and younger consisted of (n=23) or 7.3% of the sample size. Of the total sample 6.4% of the respondents were aged 45 to 55 years old. Of the total sample, the lowest number of respondents was aged above 56 years (1.9%). Table 1 further indicates that the majority (37.4%) of the respondents have been employed in the organisation for at least two to five years. The number of respondents who were employed for six to ten years in the organisation made up 34.5%. Respondents who have been employed in the organisation for less than one year comprised of



7.7%. The lowest number of respondents had been employed in the organisation between 11 and 15 years.

Table 1 shows the education level attained by the respondents. The educational terms in the table are those used in Zimbabwe, which is different from the South African system. The Zimbabwean system is similar to the South African educational system concerning primary education in that they both refer to grades one to seven. When it comes to secondary education the terms used are then different. The Zimbabwean educational system is like that of the U.K which dates back to the colonial period of Zimbabwe. When Zimbabwe became independent in 1980 the U.K. educational system continued to be used. Unlike the South African educational system, which refers to grade eight up to grade twelve, the Zimbabwean system has form one to form four which is the first phase of secondary school which is offered a national certificate and is a year below to that of metric in South Africa. In Zimbabwe a person can do a diploma after form four but not a degree. The second phase of secondary school is form six, which is a year above matric in the South African educational system. With a form six qualification a person is qualified to study for a degree.

As shown in Table 1, the majority of the respondents (62.6%) attended school up to form four (*a year below grade 12 in the S.A. educational system*). Those who have a form six qualification (*a year above grade 12 in the S.A. educational system*) were 27%. Twenty three (7.3%) of the respondents have a diploma, while seven respondents (2.2%) have a degree. It can therefore be deducted that all the respondents in this study of bus driver were educated. Forty nine (15.65%) of the respondents are single, while 9.27% of the respondents are divorced. Only 4.15% of the sample consists of widowers.

All the participants in the study were educated. When the government of Zimbabwe announced free education for all in September 1980, primary school enrolment soared from 819 568 to 2 251 319 within the first eight years of independence (Mapako, Mareva, Gonye & Gamira, 2012, p.28). Secondary school education also increased enrolment as numbers rose from 66 215 at independence (1980) to 604 652 in 1987 (Zvobgo, 1986). To ensure that the policy was implemented, free education was also offered in the rural areas. Results from the current study of bus drivers in Zimbabwe are a clear indication that the policy set by the government to enhance quality education for all was successfully achieved. According to Mundi (2012), 94.2% of males in Zimbabwe can read and write English. This explains why all the bus drivers in the present study can read and write.

### **3.5. RESEARCH MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

The development of the research instruments, both the questionnaire and the interviews, was based on the stated objectives as a guide to what to include in the research instrument. The questionnaire was based on standardised research instruments that have already been tested for reliability and validity. In the development of the questionnaire the shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) with nine items (UWES-9), is adopted, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) on job satisfaction is adopted; and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) has been used (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen & Christensen, 2005). On job demands and job resources the job demands resources scale was used and to test for the happiness of workers the Work-Related Flow inventory (WOLF) was utilised.

### **3.5.1. The biographical questionnaire**

The biographical questionnaire was used to determine the demographic profile of the sample. Questions tapped into the following personal information of the individual: age, gender, bus rank, years employed at the organisation and educational level attained. See appendix 3, section one on the demographic variables, page 228.

### **3.5.2. Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)**

The UWES has been adopted in the study: see appendix 3, section two of the survey page 229. It includes the three constituting dimensions of work engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. This is based on the definition by Bledow, Schmitt, Frese and Kuhnel, (2011) that work engagement is a positive motivational construct related to work and made up of vigour, dedication, and absorption. For the purpose of this study the shortened version of the UWES with 9 items was used to measure work engagement of the bus drivers (Balducci, Fraccaroli & Schaufeli, 2010). An example of a vigour question is “I am energetic on the workplace”. An example of a question on dedication is “I am enthusiastic about my job”. An example of a question on absorption is “I am fully committed to my job”. All items on the UWES are scored on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“always”) (Bledow, Schmitt, Frese & Kuhnel, 2011). In the South African context, the short UWES scale has been found to have good internal consistency corresponding longer original versions (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). The correlations between the short three-item AB scale and the original six-item scale exceeded  $\alpha=0.90$ .

### 3.5.3. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The MSQ is one of the most widely used instruments in the measurement of job satisfaction and its validity and reliability has been proven over the 40 years that it has been in use (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich, 2010). As illustrated in the instrument attached: (see appendix 3, section two of the survey page 243-235), the MSQ short form consists of 20 facets/aspects of the job which measure three types of satisfaction, namely overall job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction (occupational conditions: how people feel about the nature of the job's tasks) and extrinsic satisfaction (environmental conditions: how people feel about features of the job that are external to the work). Higher scores indicate higher satisfaction with one's job. The MSQ was used to identify job satisfaction levels (Coban, 2010, p. 1155). In the current study the short version of the MSQ, with 20 items, was used to determine the intrinsic (IS) and extrinsic satisfaction (ES) level. An example of a question on intrinsic satisfaction is "the chance to do things for other people". An example of a question on extrinsic satisfaction is "The way the company policies are put into practice". Every item is rated using a five-point Likert-type scale, with the alternatives being: *strongly disagree*, *disagree*, *neither agree, nor disagree*, *agree*, *strongly agree*. The highest possible score is 100 and the lowest is 20. Scores between 20 to 39 are classified as showing that job satisfaction was "too low", 40 to 59 as "low", 60 to 79 "sufficient", and 80 to 100 "high" (Blau & Gibson, 2011). In the South African context, the MSQ has been found to have good internal consistency with a cronbach's alpha coefficient of  $\alpha=0,92$  (Sempene, Rieger & Roodt, 2002). The cross-national reliability and stability of the MSQ has been confirmed by several studies. For example in the Kord (2012) study the Cronbach's alpha based on the standardized alpha reliability was reported  $\alpha=0.96$ .

#### **3.5.4. The Work-Related Flow inventory (WOLF)**

To test for the happiness of workers the WOLF was used: see appendix 3, section two of the survey page 233-234. This is based on Fisher's (2010, p. 385) definition of happiness at work referring to pleasant judgments and experiences (flow states) at work. Three flow dimensions are measured, namely absorption (4 items), work enjoyment (4 items) and intrinsic work motivation (5 items). Respondents indicated how often they experienced elements of flow on a seven-point scale (1 = never, 7 = always). An example of a question on absorption is "I get carried away by my work". An example of a question on work enjoyment is "I feel cheerful when I am working". An example of a question on intrinsic motivation is "I get my motivation from the work itself and not from the reward for it" (Hokerberg, Aguiar, Reichenheim, Faerstein, Valente, Fonseca & Passos, 2010). A study done in South Africa by Bakker (2008) suggest that, the work-related flow inventory has good internal consistency with a high Cronbach alpha coefficient of  $\alpha=0.90$ .

#### **3.5.5. The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI)**

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) has been adopted in the study: see appendix 3, section two of the survey page 230. The OLBI is an alternative measure of burnout, which has originally been constructed and validated among different German occupational groups (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The OLBI measures burnout with two dimensions: exhaustion and disengagement (Ching-Fu Chen & Shu-Chuan Chen, 2012). The eight items of the exhaustion sub-scale are generic and refer to general feelings of emptiness, overtaxing from work, a strong need for rest and a state of physical exhaustion. An example of a question on

exhaustion is “After my work, I regularly feel worn out and weary”. The disengagement subscale also comprises eight items. An example of a question on disengagement is “I frequently talk about my work in a negative way”. The OLBI originally distinguishes an exhaustion and disengagement dimension (Ay & Avarolu, 2010). Both subscales include four items that are positively worded and four that are negatively worded. This means that both ends of the energy and identification dimensions are included in the OLBI (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen & Christensen, 2005). In South Africa, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) findings clearly indicate that the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory OLBI is a reliable instrument. The reliability was both for exhaustion and disengagement Cronbach's alpha of  $\alpha=0.85$ .

### **3.5.6. Job Demands Resources scale (JD-R)**

The job demands resources scale (JD-R) has been adopted in the study: see appendix 3, section two of the survey page 231 -233. The JD-R scale has 42 items rated on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 4 (always) (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). On the Job demands resources scale (JD-R) the coded variables on representing job demands include risks and hazards include perceived risk, level of risk, number of hazards and perceptions of safety (Bakker, Veldhoven & Xanthopoulou, 2010). An example of a job demands question is “Do you work under time pressure?” The coded variables on the JD-R representing job resources knowledge include employee understanding of safety, policies, rules and procedures, training, growth opportunities and social support or organisational support which includes involvement and support, from co-workers, teamwork, co-worker support for safety and relationship with colleagues (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010). An example of a job resources question is “Do you think that your organisation pays good salaries?” In the South

African context, results in Rothmann, Mostert and Strydom (2006) study show that the Job Demands resources Scale is reliable, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of  $\alpha=0,92$ . The results from previous studies show that the JD-R scale is reliable and equivalent for different organisations (Simbula, Guglielmi, & Schaufeli, 2011).

### **3.5.7. Interview schedule guide**

An interview schedule guide is a script that structures the course of the interview more or less tightly (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In addition to biographical information, the development of the interview schedule guide was based on the stated objectives as a guide to what to include in the research instrument. Literature on work engagement, employee well-being, job demands and resources was used in the development of the interview schedule guide (Kord, 2012). The open-ended questions were distilled from the available literature (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007). See Appendix 4 on page 236- 238 for the concluded questions.

## **3.6. DATA COLLECTION**

### **3.6.1. Quantitative phase of the research**

The data was gathered by means of self-report questionnaires. The advantage of using questionnaires is that they can be administered to a large number of individuals. The method allows anonymity and is relatively more economical to use. Self-evaluation questionnaires are usually quantified; it is easier to compare the scores of different individuals (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). It has been found that the main problems experienced using questionnaires involve poor levels of response and the limitation of not being able to test the given responses

for accuracy. In order to increase the response rate in the current study the participants who were willing to complete the questionnaires were requested to complete the questionnaire the same day, during their free time. The advantage of doing research with the drivers was that they could have up to three to four hours free time in the morning from 08:30 to 11:30, while they were waiting in the queue for their turn to get passengers. The research made use of such times to get the drivers to fill in the questionnaires. The good thing was that the willing participants felt it was better for them to fill the questionnaire during such times, since they did not have spare time after work other than this. As a result, of the 400 targeted questionnaire respondents, 313 questionnaires were returned. This was a high response rate of 78.25%.

### **3.6.2. Qualitative phase of the research**

In the qualitative phase of the research, open-ended, in-depth interviews were to be used in data collection. An interview is literally an inter-view, an interchange of views between two persons conversing about a theme of common interest (Gray, Willianson, Karp & Dalphin, 2006). Thus the interview is a conversation that has a structure and a purpose determined by the one party, the interviewer (Kord, 2012). The interviews were tape-recorded to ensure reliability (Elliot, 2005). They were done with the intention of understanding the meaning of central themes of the subjects' lived world (Sekaran & Tilburg, 2010). The interviewer encouraged the subjects to describe precisely as possible what they experienced and felt about their work and how they behaved (Kvale, 2010). The key terms of the mode of understanding in-depth interviews involved experiences in the life world, meaning, descriptive, specificity, ambiguity, sensitivity The interviewer registered and interpreted the



meanings of what was said, as well as how it was said, the interaction and positive experience (Mapako, Mareva, Gonye & Gamira, 2012).

The advantages of interviews include high response rates, the clarification of ideas and the interviewer has a larger control over the interview (Cheshire, 2005). Open-ended interviews allow the interviewer to obtain more information during the interviews by asking for clarification of ideas when probing (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). During the interviews knowledge about bus drivers was obtained from self-report measures (Kimmel, 2007). Unfortunately there is a tendency for human beings to present themselves in the best possible light can distort the results from self-reports (Sekaran & Tilburg, 2010). The result is that data is systematically biased towards the respondent's perceptions of what is socially acceptable. This phenomenon is called social desirability bias and has been found to occur in virtually all self-report measures (Fisher, 2010). However, since this study consists of mixed methods, such subjectivity on what is reported were overcome by the questionnaires, in which more objective answers were given by the participants.

### **3.7. DATA ANALYSIS**

Data analysis is a process of unlocking information hidden in the raw data and transforming it something useful and meaningful (Kvale, 2010). For the purpose of this study data analysis was done in two stages, the quantitative phase and the qualitative phase.

### **3.7.1. The quantitative phase of data analysis**

#### **3.7.1.1. Statistical techniques**

The data has been analysed in two stages, the pilot study and the actual study. The data from the pilot study and the actual study was analysed statistically using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19 programme (Pallant, 2010). This assisted in describing the data more precisely in few words and making inferences about the characteristics of populations on the basis of data from the sample (Thyer, 2010). The first step in data analysis was to create a code book, which is a summary of instructions to convert information on the questionnaires into a format that SPSS can understand. This involved defining and labelling variables and assigning numbers to each of the possible responses (Pallant, 2010, p.11). To ensure that the data entered was clean a procedure for checking categorical variables carried out to ensure that there were no missing or exaggerated variables. The preliminary analysis then began, after completing the data entry and cleaning the data from the questionnaires (Sekaran & Tilburg, 2010). The analysis involved descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, multiple regression analysis and the multivariate analysis of variance MANOVA (Leedy & Ormrode, 2010).

#### **3.7.1.2. Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics were used to assess measures of central tendencies, measures of variability and frequencies. Descriptive analysis aims to describe the data by investigating the distribution of scores on each variable and by determining whether or not the scores on different variables are related to each other (Blanche & Durrheim, 2006). Descriptive

statistics were also used to describe the demographic characteristics of the sample. Descriptive statistics were used to address specific research questions, to check if there were any violations of the assumptions underlying the statistical technique used to address the research questions (Pallant, 2010). The descriptive statistics used in this study included means, frequencies, percentages and standard deviations. The mean is a measure of the central tendency, which provides an arithmetic average for the distribution of scores (Cheshire, 2005).

### **3.7.1.3. Inferential Statistics**

Inferential statistics is a subfield of statistical data analysis that concerns drawing inferences (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2010). Inferential tests are “used to infer whether differences or relationships between samples of data are ‘significant’ - whether they reflect real effects in the population” (Pallant, 2010). More specifically, these tests help to decide whether or not the difference or relationship between data could plausibly have occurred if there is no real effect in the population. To test for significant relationships cross tabulations, the Chi-square test and Pearson correlations were used (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

### **3.7.1.4. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient**

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient shows the degree of correlation between two interval level variables. In this study, this statistical method is used to determine if a significant statistical relationship exists between various dimensions of work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction, burnout, job demands and resources among bus drivers in Harare. Howell (2008) states that correlation procedures are used to measure the strength of

association between two variables and that correlation coefficients serve as an index of the linear relationship between two variables and that it can be used in inferential tests of hypotheses.

#### **3.7.1.5. Multiple regression analysis**

Multiple regression analysis has been used to make predictions based on as many independent variables as possible (Cheshire, 2005). Another motive for setting up a regression model is to see how the independent variables can be used to explain the variation in the dependent variable and how much of this variation is explained (Bryman, 2011). According to Pallant (2010, p.149) there are three main types of multiple regression analyses namely standard multiple regression analysis, the step wise multiple regression and the hierarchical or sequential multiple regression analysis. For the purpose of this study the hierarchical or sequential multiple regression analysis has been used, with the enter method. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to evaluate if job demands and resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and burnout after controlling for a number of variables, namely age and tenure.

#### **3.7.1.6. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)**

MANOVA is an inferential statistical procedure that enables one to test for significant difference between the means of more than two groups of subjects, as well as the influence of more than one independent variable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). MANOVA indicates whether there is a significant effect or not, but it does not show where this effect lies (Bryman, 2011). A *post hoc* or multiple comparison test, the Bonferroni test, was used to check where the exact significant difference lies. To test for significant differences, the one way MANOVA is used (Pallant, 2010). Tredoux and Durrheim (2002, p.271) explain that, –MANOVA (analysis

of variance) is a type of statistical analysis that is appropriate for designs having one independent variable consisting of more than two groups (one way MANOVA). In the present study, this statistical method is used to establish if a statistically significant difference existed between work engagement, job satisfaction, happiness, burnout, job demands and resources among bus drivers in Harare. In MANOVA, the hypothesis is that the mean performance in the population is the same for all groups (equality of population means) (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010).

### **3.7.2 Interview data analysis**

In analysing the data thematic content analysis has been used. This identifies themes, concepts and meanings (Silverman, 2000). Thematic content analysis also involves the process of coding text images, or other material, to reveal patterns through which key concepts appear or discern and identify the significant themes in that content (Lune, Pumar & Koppel, 2010). In order to analyse the data, the tape-recorded data was first transcribed, which involved examining and sorting the data, or taking down the contents of a tape-recording, word for word (Bryman, 2007). On the transcribing phase preparation of the interview material for analysis was done. This included a transcription from oral speech to written text. Decisions were made on the bases of the purpose and topic of the investigation and of the nature of the interview material (Kvale, 2010). Familiarization was the next process, where the researcher read the data many times and became clear on what kind of interpretation would be likely to support the data (Lune, Pumar & Koppel, 2010). The data was analysed by reading and re reading the text in depth, to search for patterns in the participants experiences regarding their leadership (Kimmel, 2007). Meaning units were then identified. The meaning units were from the statements made by the participants in the

interviews. After each natural meaning unit was grammatically rephrased the themes were identified (Kord, 2012). The next stage included that of inducing themes. The themes were found in relation to the research aims. The main themes were divided into sub-themes and different kinds of themes and were organized in such a way that the focus of the research question was not lost (Silverman, 2000). The next step was to code the information derived from the interviews. Coding assigns responses, observations, interactions or other categories that is relevant to the research question (Lune, Pumar & Koppel, 2010). There were three stages in the coding. The first stage, in the coding was to develop a list of coding categories. A short name was assigned to each and every other sub category. In the second stage, data was coded in frequencies. Thirdly, the data coded in each category was collected together (Cheshire, 2005). Elaboration and interpretation were then carried out. The last stage is the reporting stage, which consists of the communication of the findings of the study and methods applied in a form that lives up to scientific criteria and takes ethical issues into consideration (Kvale, 2010). In the final stage of analysis the main and common themes will be identified and compared to previous research findings (Lune, Pumar & Koppel, 2010). See Appendix for the transcribed data.

### **3.8. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Standardised research ethics played a major role in how this research was conducted. Ethics is the study of moral behaviour (Sekaran & Tilburg, 2010). Within the larger realm of professional ethics is research ethics, which encompasses principles and standards that, along with underlying values, guide appropriate conduct relevant to research decision (Kimmel, 2007, p.6). Having completed the research proposal the researcher procured an ethics clearance and permission from the School of Humanities, to conduct the study. A covering

letter was attached to the questionnaires inviting the bus drivers to participate. It explained the purposes of the research, that participation was voluntary and what the results would be used for. This was based on the anticipated norm of all research that includes people which is that participation in the research must be voluntary (Rubin & Babbie, 2010). As evidence that the participants were not forced to participate in the research they had to fill in an agreement form that was attached to the questionnaire based on ethical principles of respect for persons (Karatepe & Ehsani, 2012). Furthermore the participants were given informed consent to participate in the study (Kvale, 2010). Informed consent has been defined as the voluntary agreement of an individual, or his or her authorised representative, who has the legal capacity to give consent, and who exercises free power of choice, without undue inducement or any other form of constraint or coercion to participate in the research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

One of the basic concepts of conducting research with people is privacy. The respondents were assured that all responses would remain confidential. Respondents would remain anonymous and that only grouped data would be presented (Wassenaar & Mamotte, 2008). All this information about informed consent and volunteering was first explained verbally to the participants after which, they were given the opportunity to read for themselves the cover page of the questionnaire. Upon completion, respondents were requested to return the questionnaire directly to the researcher.

To ensure that this was achievable, the respondents were requested to write their pseudonyms on the forms. Anonymity exists in this study since there is no link between personal information and research participants' identity. Thus, information/data associated with a research participant may be considered anonymous when such information cannot be linked to the participant who provided it. In applying this concept to the research project, the

researcher protected the information provided by the research participants by not including the names and social security number of the participants in the actual analysis. This, in turn, made the information from the participants confidential (Sekaran & Tilburg, 2010).

### **3.9. RELIABILITY OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT**

Reliability refers to the consistency with which a measure yields the same results on repeated trials (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). According to Pallant (2010, p.6), the two frequently used indicators of a reliability scale are test-retest reliability and internal consistency. For the purpose of the present study reliability was tested using internal consistency, which is the degree to which items that make up the scale are measuring the same underlying attribute. The statistic used in this study was the Cronbach's coefficient alpha using SPSS version 19. In quantitative research, Sekaran (2010) suggests that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well times in a set are positively correlated to one another, which shows internal consistency reliability. Values range from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating greater reliability (Pallant, 2010). If the Cronbach's alpha reliability of the instrument is above 0.70 it is an acceptable value (Ghafoor, 2012).

In place of the reliability interpretive, researchers insist that findings should be dependable or confirmable (Maxwell, 2005). Qualitative research reliability is also called dependability (Thyer, 2010). Dependability in qualitative research is the extent to which the set of meanings derived from several interpreters are sufficiently congruent (Leech, Dellinger, Brannagan & Tanaka, 2010). Dependability involves the researchers' attempts to account for changing conditions in the observations, as well as changes in the design that may occur once they are collecting data in the field (Lune, Pumar & Koppel, 2010). When using in-depth or open



ended interviews dependability refers to the degree to which the reader can be convinced that the findings did, indeed, occur as the researcher says they did (Cheshire, 2005). To ensure that the research findings are credible the interviews were tape-recorded. Conformability is another term used to refer to reliability in qualitative research (Morgan, 2007). Conformability refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or collaborated by others (Ghafoor, 2012). In order to increase the likelihood of conformability of the research findings, an interview schedule guide was used (Morse, 2009). The participants were asked the same questions in the same order, with slight variations and additions, thus showing consistency in how the bus drivers had their experiences with regards to work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction, burnout, job demands and resources. Since the results of the qualitative part of the study cannot be replicated it is difficult to generalise the results. However, since the research methodology given is a mixed method of research, the results of the quantitative part of the study enable generalisation of the research findings while the qualitative part of the study only enables conformability (Riet & Durrheim, 2006).

### **3.10. VALIDITY OF THE RESEARCH**

Validity is the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure (Cheshire, 2005). There are several types of validity that contribute to the overall validity of a study (Pallant, 2010). The two main dimensions are internal and external validity. Further sub-types can be added under these headings (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Internal validity is the approximate truth about inferences regarding cause-effect or causal relationships. Thus, internal validity is only relevant in studies that try to establish a causal relationship (Ghafoor, 2012).

In place of validity, qualitative research refers to transferability or credibility of the research findings (Kimmel, 2007). Transferability refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings (Henning, Rensburg & Smit, 2004). In other words, do the measures (questions) accurately assess what the researcher wants to know? (Ghafoor, 2012). To ensure transferability of the results the findings of the study have been compared to previous studies carried out, together with existing theoretical literature (Riet & Durrheim, 2006). Credibility is another term used in qualitative research in place of validity (Thyer, 2010). Credibility means establishing that the results are believable from the perspective of the participants of the research (Ghafoor, 2012). To ensure credibility, first-hand information from the bus drivers was gathered by the researcher (Bryman, 2011). Validity in this study for the qualitative part of the study was achieved by asking participants to give honest answers on account of their lived experiences on work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction, burnout, job demands and resources. In turn this makes this study on bus drivers credible (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

### **3.11. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

Chapter has explained why the mixed method to research was chosen. The chapter gave a description of the research design, provided a description of the sample and discussed the demographics of the sample, highlighting this in graphical format. The data collection procedure and statistical techniques that were followed in the execution of the research were presented. The reliability and validity of the research instruments has been confirmed. This is a good reason for adopting the instruments at hand. The research findings are presented in Chapter Four.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS FOR THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE**

#### **4.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the research findings on the quantitative phase of the study. The chapter is divided into four sections, excluding the introduction and the chapter summary. The first section covers the descriptive statistics. This is followed by the results of the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, stating the significant relationships that exist. The section on the analysis with MANOVA highlights if there are possible significant differences that exist between the demographic variables and the results from overall work engagement, workplace happiness, job satisfaction, overall burnout, job demands and resources. The fourth section deals with the multiple regression analysis, which determines if variables of job demands and resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, workplace happiness, job satisfaction and burnout.

#### **4.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

In Table 2 the descriptive statistics of the measuring instruments are displayed. These include mean, maximum, minimum, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the data, as is suggested by (Bryman, 2011). The score of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Work-Related Flow inventory (WOLF), Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) and the Job Demands-Resources Scale (JD-R) have a normal distribution.

**Table 2**

*Descriptive statistics for work engagement, burnout, job satisfaction, workplace happiness, job demands and resources*

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
<b>Overall work engagement</b>	28.00	54.00	50.25	4.14	0.001	0.002	0.91
	4.00	18.00	16.34	1.74	0.002	0.003	0.78
<b>Dedication</b>							
	3.00	18.00	16.43	1.80	0.001	0.001	0.80
<b>Absorption</b>							
<b>Vigour</b>	7.00	18.00	17.48	1.16	0.001	0.002	0.87
<b>Overall burnout</b>	16.00	51.00	28.63	6.02	0.003	0.005	0.76
<b>Exhaustion</b>	8.00	27.00	12.87	3.32	0.003	0.004	0.72
<b>disengagement</b>	7.00	26.00	14.39	3.31	0.002	0.005	0.73
<b>Overall job demands</b>	11.00	43.00	22.16	5.89	0.004	0.001	0.90
<b>Overall job resources</b>	62.00	162.0	106.6	12.1	0.002	0.003	0.90
<b>Overall job satisfaction</b>	45.00	100.0	87.00	9.42	0.000	0.002	0.93
<b>Intrinsic job satisfaction</b>	24.00	60.00	51.71	5.80	0.001	0.001	0.86
<b>Extrinsic job satisfaction</b>	20.00	40.00	35.24	4.09	0.000	0.002	0.86
<b>Overall workplace happiness</b>	23.00	65.00	57.63	6.13	0.002	0.004	0.92
<b>Work enjoyment</b>	4.00	20.00	18.11	2.18	0.003	0.002	0.90
<b>Motivation</b>	10.00	25.00	21.25	2.98	0.002	0.004	0.81
<b>Absorption</b>	7.00	20.00	18.28	2.14	0.001	0.003	0.88

As illustrated in Table 2, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used as an estimate of reliability for all measuring instruments (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In quantitative research, Sekaran and Tilburg (2010) suggests that the Cronbach's coefficient alpha is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well items in a set are positively correlated to one another. It shows internal consistency reliability. If the Cronbach's alpha reliability of the instrument is above 0.70 it is an acceptable value (Ghafoor, 2012). As shown in Table 2, in all the research instruments the Cronbach's coefficient alpha are above 0.7 hence the instruments are reliable.

#### **4.2. 1. Descriptive statistics for work engagement**

Using Blau and Gibson (2011), scores between 9-18 show that work engagement is low, while 19- 36 are classified as sufficient and those between 37- 54 are classified as high. Since the short version of the Utrecht work engagement Scale (UWES) has been used the highest possible score on this scale was 54, while the lowest possible score was 9. In the current study, the mean work engagement score is  $M=50.25$  and  $SD=4.14$ . Thus the results from the descriptive statistics in Table 2 show that, on average, the commuter omnibus drivers were engaged in their work. The average minimum score for the work engagement scale was  $M=28$ , while the average maximum score for the scale was  $M=54$ . The skewness is 0.001 and the kurtosis of the work engagement data is 0.002. Since both the skewness and kurtosis are less than one, it approximates normality. The UWES has good internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha for the UWES are: for overall work engagement  $\alpha = 0.91$ , for overall dedication  $\alpha = 0.78$ , for overall absorption  $\alpha = 0.80$  and for overall vigour  $\alpha = 0.87$ . Results in the current study confirms those of Chiboiwa, Chipunza and Samuel (2011) where the alpha levels were all acceptable.

#### **4.2. 2. Descriptive statistics for work place happiness**

Using Fisher (2010) scores below 21 are classified as showing that workplace happiness is low, while 22- 43 are classified as sufficient and those between 44- 65 are classified as high. Since the Work-Related Flow inventory (WOLF) has been used the highest possible score on this scale is 65 while the lowest possible score is 13. In the current study the mean workplace happiness score is  $M=57.63$  and standard deviation  $SD=6.13$ . The results from the descriptive statistics on Table 2, show that, on average the commuter omnibus drivers were happy in their work. The average minimum score for the happiness on the WOLF scale was  $M=23$  while the average maximum score for the scale was  $M=65$ . The skewness is 0.02 and the kurtosis of the work place happiness data is 0.04. Since both the skewness and kurtosis is less than one it approximates normality. Furthermore the WOLF has good internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha for the WOLF are: overall happiness  $\alpha = 0.92$ , Work enjoyment  $\alpha = 0.90$ , Motivation  $\alpha = 0.81$  and Absorption  $\alpha = 0.88$ . In the current study the Cronbach alpha coefficient was even higher  $\alpha=0.70$ , hence the alpha levels were all acceptable. Similarly in Bakker (2008) the WOLF has good internal consistency.

#### **4.2. 3. Descriptive statistics for job satisfaction**

Using Blau and Gibson (2011), scores between 20-39 are classified as showing job satisfaction that is too low while 40-59 are classified as showing job satisfaction that is low, those between 60-79 are classified as sufficient and between 80-100 high. Since the job satisfaction has been used the highest possible score on this scale is 100 while the lowest possible score was 20. In the current study the mean job satisfaction score is  $M= 87.00$  and standard deviation  $SD=9.42$ . The results from the descriptive statistics in Table 2 show that

on average the commuter omnibus drivers had high job satisfaction with their work. The average minimum score for the job satisfaction scale was  $M=45$ , while the average maximum score for the scale was  $M=100$ . The skewness is 0.000 and the kurtosis of the work job satisfaction data is 0.002. Since both the skewness and kurtosis is less than one it approximates normality. Furthermore the MSQ has good internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha for the MSQ are: for overall job satisfaction  $\alpha = 0.93$ , intrinsic satisfaction,  $\alpha = 0.86$  and for extrinsic satisfaction  $\alpha = 0.86$ . Similarly the reliability of the MSQ has been confirmed in the Kord (2012) study, in which the Cronbach's alpha based on the standardised alpha reliability was reported to be acceptable since they were above  $\alpha= 0.70$ .

#### **4.2.4. Descriptive statistics for burnout**

Using Kristenskensen, Borritz, Villadsen and Chritensen (2005), scores below 19 are classified as showing burnout that is low, while those above 45 are classified as high. Since the burnout inventory has been used the highest possible score on this scale was 64, while the lowest possible score was 16. In the current study the mean burnout score is  $M=28.634$  and standard deviation  $SD=6.021$ . The results from the descriptive statistics in Table 2 show that, on average, the commuter omnibus drivers had moderate burnout on their work. The average minimum score for the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) was  $M=16$ , while the average maximum score for the scale was  $M=51$ . The skewness is 0.003 and the kurtosis of the work burnout data is 0.005. Since both the skewness and kurtosis is less than one it approximates normality. Furthermore the OLBI has good internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha for the OLBI are: overall burnout  $\alpha = 0.761$ , Exhaustion  $\alpha = 0.720$  and for disengagement  $\alpha = 0.73$ . The findings clearly indicate that the OLBI is a reliable instrument including two moderately high correlating dimensions. In Bakker and Demerouti (2007) the reliability was both for exhaustion and disengagement Cronbach's alpha of 0.85. Even though this Cronbach

alpha coefficient in the present study seems to be slightly lower than that of previous research, it is still acceptable, since Pallant (2010) states that, ideally, a Cronbach alpha coefficient scale should be above 0.70 for it to be considered reliable and acceptable.

#### **4.2. 5. Descriptive statistics for job demands and resources**

In the current study the mean job demands score is  $M=22.169$  and standard deviation  $SD=5.899$ . The average minimum score for the Job Demands-Resources Scale (JD-R) was  $M=11$  while the average maximum score for the scale was  $M=43$ . In the current study the mean job resources score is  $M=106.67$  and standard deviation  $SD=12.13$ . The average minimum score for the job resources scale was  $M=62$  while the average maximum score for the scale was  $M=162$ . The skewness is 0.04 and the kurtosis of the work job demands data is 0.01. The skewness is 0.002 and the kurtosis of the work job resources data is 0.003. Since both the skewness and kurtosis is lower than one it approximates normality. Furthermore the JD-R scale has good internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha for the JD-R scale are: overall job demands  $\alpha = 0.909$  and for overall job resources  $\alpha = 0.909$ . Similarly in previous studies such as (Rothmann, Mostert & Strydom, 2006; Simbula, Guglielmi & Schaufeli, 2011; Perry, Rubino & Witt, 2011) the JD-R scale is reliable, since it has good internal consistency.

Next is a section of the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient showing the practical and statistical significant relationship exists between various dimensions of work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction, burnout, job demands and resources among bus drivers in Harare.



**TABLE 3**

*The correlation coefficients (UWES), (MSQ), (WOLF), (OLBI) and the (JD-RS) of the commuter omnibus drivers*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Total work engagement	1.0														
Dedication	0.922 + +**	1.0													
Absorption	0.898 + +**	0.73 + +**	1.0												
Vigour	0.833 + +**	0.76 + +**	0.79 + +**	1.0											
Total job satisfaction	0.82 + +**	0.89 + +**	0.68 + +**	0.83 + +**	1.0										
Intrinsic satisfaction	0.75 + +**	0.87 + +**	0.74 + +**	0.72 + +**	0.92 + +**	1.0									
Extrinsic satisfaction	0.79 + +**	0.81 + +**	0.85 + +**	0.77 + +**	0.91 + +**	0.82 + +**	1.0								
Overall happiness	0.548 + +**	0.402 + **	0.428 + **	0.450 + **	0.667 + +**	0.574 + +**	0.660 + +**	1.0							
Enjoyment	0.513 + +**	0.328 + **	0.360 + **	0.425 + **	0.532 + +**	0.537 + +**	0.466 + **	0.835 + +**	1.0						
Motivation	0.501 + +**	0.297 + +**	0.367 + **	0.314 + **	0.540 + +**	0.559 + +**	0.450 + **	0.838 + +**	0.488 + +**	1.0					
Work absorption	0.59 + +**	0.404 + **	0.349 + **	0.422 + **	0.599 + +**	0.587 + +**	0.546 + +**	0.845 + +**	0.691 + +**	0.513 + +**	1.0				
Total burnout	-0.532 + +**	-0.398 + **	-0.350 + **	-0.412 + **	-0.492 + **	-0.474 + **	-0.461 + **	-0.476 + **	-0.427 + **	-0.385 + **	-0.395 + **				
Exhaustion	-0.59 + **	-0.325 + **	-0.33 + **	-0.393 + **	-0.40 + **	-0.43 + **	-0.357 + +**	-0.411 + **	-0.383 + **	-0.307 + **	-0.360 + **	0.883 + +**	1.0		
Disengagement	-0.35 + **	-0.354 + **	-0.37 + **	-0.312 + **	-0.45 + **	-0.42 + **	-0.442 + **	-0.413 + **	-0.356 + **	-0.361 + **	-0.326 + **	0.863 + +**	0.537 + +**	1.0	
Overall job demands	-0.16 **	-0.168 **	-0.13 +*	-0.117 +*	-0.014	-0.018	-0.002	-0.080	-0.086	0.000	-0.106	-0.014	0.0121 +*	-0.13 +*	1.0
Overall job resources	0.54 + +**	0.49 + **	0.42 + **	0.38 + **	0.466 + **	0.460 + **	0.513 + +**	0.471 + **	0.335 + **	0.403 + **	0.448 + **	-0.353 + **	-0.0287 + **	-0.328 + **	0.076

1(Total work engagement), 2(Dedication), 3(Absorption), 4(Vigour), 5(Total job satisfaction), 6(Intrinsic satisfaction), 7(Extrinsic satisfaction), 8(Overall happiness), 9(Enjoyment), 10(Motivation), 11(Work absorption), 12(Total burnout), 13(Exhaustion), 14(Disengagement), 15(Overall job demands).

+ Practically significant (medium effect  $\leq 0.3$ ),

+ + Practically significant (large effect  $\geq 0.05$ ).

\*\* Correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

### 4.3. THE PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION CO-EFFICIENT

In accordance with the aims of this study, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient has been used in order to determine the strength of the relationship between work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction, burnout, job demands and resources. The correlation coefficients of the UWES, MSQ, WOLF, OLBI and the JD-R scale of the commuter omnibus drivers are shown in Table 3. A correlation is practically significant, with a medium effect, when  $p \geq 0.30$  and it is said to have a large effect when  $p \geq 0.50$  (Pallant, 2010, p.134).

Table 3 indicates that overall work engagement is practically and statistically significantly related to overall job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction with a large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). The results show that work dedication is practically and statistically significantly related to work absorption, vigour, overall job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction with a large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Work absorption has practically and statistically significant positive correlation coefficients of large effect with overall job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction with a large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Vigour was practically and statistically significantly related to overall job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction with a large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). The results depicted in Table 3 clearly indicate that there are practically and statistically significant relationships between variables, work engagement and job satisfaction. Table 3 shows the practically and statistically significant positive correlations coefficients of large effect between the UWES and MSQ. In other words an increased level of job satisfaction is associated with an increased level of work engagement. *The conclusion is that there are*

*practically and statistically significant positive relationships between variables of work engagement and job satisfaction.*

Overall work engagement is practically and statistically significantly related to overall happiness, happiness enjoyment, happiness motivation and happiness work absorption, with large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). In other words, this study reveals that as overall happiness, enjoyment, motivation and work absorption increase, so does total work engagement. The results indicate that there are practically and statistically significant correlations between overall work dedication, overall happiness, happiness work absorption with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ) and happiness enjoyment, happiness motivation, with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Furthermore table 3 shows that overall work absorption has practically and statistically significant positive correlations coefficients between overall happiness, happiness enjoyment, happiness motivation and happiness work absorption of medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Vigour on work engagement was practically and statistically significantly positively related to overall happiness, happiness enjoyment, happiness motivation and happiness work absorption with large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). *The conclusion is that there are practically and statistically significant positive relationships between variables of work engagement and work place happiness.*

Total work engagement was practically and statistically significantly related to total burnout and exhaustion, with large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Work dedication shows practically and statistically significant negative correlation coefficients, of medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ) with overall total burnout, exhaustion and disengagement. Absorption was practically and

statistically statistically negatively related to overall total burnout, exhaustion and disengagement with a medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Vigour was practically and statistically negatively related to overall total burnout with a medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ), exhaustion and disengagement, with a medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). A practically and statistically significant negative correlation of medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ) was obtained between total work engagement and overall total burnout as measured by the OLBI and UWES. In other words an increased level of work engagement on the UWES is associated with an increased level of engagement as measured by the OLBI (Bosman, Rothman, & Buitendach, 2006, p.52). While an increase in burnout is associated with a decrease in work engagement.

As shown in Table 3, total job satisfaction had practically and statistically significant negative correlation, with overall total burnout, exhaustion and disengagement, with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Intrinsic satisfaction had practically and statistically significant negative correlations with overall total burnout, exhaustion and disengagement with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Extrinsic satisfaction had practically and statistically significant negative correlation with overall total burnout, exhaustion and disengagement with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Overall job satisfaction was practically and statistically positively related to overall happiness, happiness enjoyment, extrinsic satisfaction, happiness motivation and happiness work absorption with large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Practically and statistically significant positive correlations exist between intrinsic satisfaction, overall happiness, happiness enjoyment, happiness motivation and happiness work absorption with large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Extrinsic satisfaction had practically and statistically significant positive correlations with overall happiness, happiness enjoyment, happiness motivation and happiness work absorption with large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). In other words an increase in work place happiness is associated with

high job satisfaction. Table 3 clearly indicates that there are practically and statistically significant relationships with large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ) between variables of work place happiness and job satisfaction.

Total happiness had practically and statistically significant negative correlations with overall burnout, exhaustion and disengagement with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Happiness enjoyment was practically and statistically negatively related to overall total burnout, exhaustion and disengagement with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). The results indicate that there are practically and statistically significant negative correlations between happiness motivation and overall total burnout, exhaustion and disengagement with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Happiness work absorption had practically and statistically significant negative correlations with overall total burnout, exhaustion for and disengagement with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). This implies that an increase in work place happiness is associated with lower levels of burnout. Overall job resources had practically and statistically significant positive correlation coefficients with total work engagement and overall happiness with large effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Overall work dedication had practically and statistically significant positive correlation coefficients with overall job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, and overall job demands with medium effect ( $p < 0.01$ ). Job resources were practically and statistically significantly positively related to overall happiness, happiness enjoyment, happiness motivation and happiness work absorption with (medium effect) ( $p < 0.01$ ). On the JD-R scale job demands had no practically or statistically significant correlations coefficients that were obtained between the UWES, MSQ, the WOLF and the OLBI. In other words there are no associations or practically or statistically significant correlation between job demands and total work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and burnout.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is dealt with in the next section.

**Table 4**

*MANOVA of UWES, OLBI, JDRS, FLOW and MSQ with and background characteristics as independent variables.*

<b>STEP 1</b>										
<b>Variable</b>		<b>Wilks' Lambda</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Error df</b>	<b>Wilks' Lambda</b>	<b>Partial</b>	<b>Eta</b>			
		<b>Value</b>			<b>P value</b>	<b>squared <math>\eta^2</math></b>				
Age		0.99	4	303	0.000	0.078				
Bus rank		0.99	3	304	0.000	0.17				
Education level		0.992	3	304	0.000	0.149				
Marital status		0.994	3	304	0.000	0.078				
Tenure		0.996	4	303	0.000	0.107				

<b>STEP 2 BETWEEN SUBJECTS EFFECTS</b>										
<b>Variable</b>		<b>Total</b>	<b>work</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>job</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>job</b>	<b>Overall</b>	<b>job</b>
		<b>engagement</b>		<b>satisfaction</b>		<b>happiness</b>	<b>demands</b>		<b>resources</b>	<b>burnout</b>
Age	Partial $\eta^2$	0.146		0.150		0.088	0.010		0.080	0.119
	Significance	0.00		0.00		0.00	0.567		0.00	0.00
Bus rank	Partial $\eta^2$	0.993		0.986		0.986	.950		0.984	0.951
	Significance	0.00		0.00		0.00	0.00		0.00	0.00
Education level	Partial $\eta^2$	.227		0.253		0.075	0.011		0.117	.061
	Significance	0.00		0.00		0.00	0.331		0.00	0.00
Marital status	Partial $\eta^2$	0.123		0.148		0.104	0.003		0.073	0.116
	Significance	0.00		0.00		0.00	0.819		0.00	0.00
Tenure	Partial $\eta^2$	0.168		0.177		0.122	0.052		0.101	0.174
	Significance	0.00		0.00		0.00	0.03		0.00	0.00

**Significant at  $p \leq 0.05$**

#### 4.4. MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (MANOVA)

One of the research objectives of the present study is to investigate the significant differences between the demographic variables with regards to total work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall burnout, overall job resources and resources. In the study, the most commonly used form of statistical analysis, as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), which is the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), was performed to test for the significant the differences. This was used to investigate the age, education, bus rank, tenure and marital status significant differences in psychological well-being, together with the job demands and resources. Table 4 shows a summary for the MANOVA.

As shown in Table 4, the MANOVA was performed to investigate the age group differences in work engagement, psychological well-being, job demands and resources. According to Pallant (2010, p.294), if the significant level of Wilks' Lambda is less than 0.05 there is a significant difference among the groups. In this case the obtained value for Wilks' Lambda has a significant value of  $\alpha=0.00$  which is less than  $p < 0.05$ . Multivariate tests of significance were used to test whether there are statistically significant differences among the combined age groups of dependent variables. In this case the Wilks' Lambda was 0.99 while partial eta squared  $\eta^2 = 0.07$ ,  $F(4,303)$ .

As shown in Table 4 step one, the Wilks' Lambda p value is a significant at  $p < 0.00$ . To examine where the exact significant difference was, further analysis was carried out using the

tests of between-subjects effects, as shown in Table 4, Step 2. In Step 2 all the different age groups had a significant difference with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout  $\alpha = 0.00$  or  $p < 0.05$ . The only exception was that of overall job demands which did not show any significant value among the different age groups with  $\alpha = 0.567$  or  $p > 0.05$ . Hence the research objective has been answered to conclude that all the different age groups had no significant difference with regards to overall job demands.

As shown in Table 4, a one way between groups MANOVA was performed to investigate the bus ranks differences in work engagement, psychological well-being, job demands and resources. The obtained value for Wilks' Lambda has a significant value of  $\alpha = 0.00$ , which is less than  $p < 0.05$ . The Wilks' Lambda  $\alpha = 0.99$ , while partial eta squared  $\eta^2 = 0.07$ ,  $F(3,304)$ . To determine where the exact significant difference was, further analysis was carried out using the tests of between subjects' effects as shown in Table 4 Step 2. On the tests of between subjects effects, results indicated that all the different bus ranks had a significant difference with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall burnout, overall job demands and resources. They all had a significant value of  $\alpha = 0.00$ , or  $p < 0.05$ . Hence the research objective has been answered.

Table 4 shows a MANOVA performed to investigate the significant differences of the education level attained by the bus drivers on overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall burnout, overall job demands and resources. The obtained value for Wilks' Lambda has a significant value of  $\alpha = 0.00$ , which is less than  $p < 0.05$ . The Wilks'



Lambda was 0.99, while partial eta squared  $\eta^2= 0.14$ ,  $F(3,304)$ . The tests of between subjects effects, indicated that the education level attained by the bus drivers had a significant difference with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. They all had a significant value of  $\alpha=0.00$  or  $p< 0.05$ . The only exception was that of overall job demands which did not show any significant value among the different educational levels attained with  $\alpha = 0.331$  or  $p> 0.05$ . Hence the research objective has been answered to conclude that the education level attained by the bus drivers shows no significant difference with regards to overall job demands.

A MANOVA investigated the significant difference of the marital status of the bus drivers on psychological well-being together with the job demands and resources. The obtained value for Wilks' Lambda has a significant value of  $\alpha=0.00$  which is less than  $p<0.05$ . The Wilks Lambda  $\alpha= 0.99$  while partial eta squared  $\eta^2=0.078$ ,  $F(3,304)$ . On the tests of between subjects' effects, results indicated that the marital status of the bus drivers had a significant difference with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. They all had a significant value of  $\alpha =0.00$  or  $p< 0.05$ . The only exception was that of overall job demands which did not show any significant value among the different marital status groups with  $\alpha = 0.819$  or  $p> 0.05$ . Hence the research objective has been answered to conclude that the marital status of the bus drivers shows no significant difference with regards to overall job demands.

A MANOVA was performed to investigate the significant difference of the tenure of the bus drivers on psychological well-being, job demands and resources. The obtained value for

Wilks' Lambda has a significant value of  $\alpha=0.00$  or  $p < 0.05$ . In this case the Wilks' Lambda  $\alpha= 0.99$  while partial eta squared  $\eta^2= 0.107$ ,  $F(3,304)$ . On the tests of between subjects' effects, results indicated that the tenure of the bus drivers had a significant difference with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall burnout, overall job demands and resources. They all had a significant value of  $\alpha = 0.00$ , or  $p < 0.05$ . Hence the research objective has thus been answered.

Next is a section on the multiple regression analyses determines whether or not job demands and job resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout.

#### **4.5. MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS**

One of the research objectives of this study was to determine whether or not job demands and job resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout. Table 5 is a summary of the multiple regression analyses determining whether or not job demands and job resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout. As shown in Table 5, the standard multiple regression was used to assess the ability of independent variables (job demands and resources) on the dependent variables (work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout). A regression analysis is used to determine the proportion of the total variance of one variable that is explained by another variable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

Table 5

Results of a regression analysis with UWES, OLBI, JDRS, FLOW and MSQ as dependent variable and job demands and job resources as predictors (Beta-coefficients)

Dependent variables	Predictors or independent variables	Beta value $\beta$	R squared $r^2$	Adjusted R squared $\Delta r^2$	F-value	Degrees of freedom	Maximum Cooks Distance	Regression significance $\alpha$
<b>Step 1</b>			0.075	0.069	12.575	2,308		
<b>Overall engagement</b>	Age							
	Tenure							
<b>Step 2</b>			0.493	0.423	23.254	2, 306	0.249	0.00
<b>Overall engagement</b>	Job demands $\beta$	-0.145						
	Job resources $\beta$	0.368						
<b>Step 1</b>			0.152	0.146	27.512	2,307		
<b>Overall burnout</b>	Age							
	Tenure							
<b>Step 2</b>			0.408	0.406	20.988	4, 305	0.077	0.00
<b>Overall burnout</b>	Job demands $\beta$	-0.028						
	Job resources $\beta$	-0.264						
<b>Step 1</b>			0.109	0.104	18.858	2,307		
<b>Overall satisfaction</b>	<b>job</b> Age							
	Tenure							
<b>Step 2</b>			0.506	0.501	26.848	4,305	0.115	0.00
<b>Overall satisfaction</b>	<b>job</b> Job demands $\beta$	0.015						
	Job resources $\beta$	0.405						
<b>Step 1</b>			0.081	0.075	13.407	2,306		
<b>Overall happiness</b>	Age							
	Tenure							
<b>Step 2</b>			0.526	0.513	26.989	4, 304	0.229	0.00
<b>Overall happiness</b>	Job demands $\beta$	-0.065						
	Job resources $\beta$	0.429						

Dependent variables: Work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction, burnout

$\beta$  is the beta value

$\alpha$  is the regression significance; F, F-test of F statistic; p, is the probability value;

$r^2$  is the proportion of variance accounted for by the other variable; squared tells how much of the variance in the independent variable is explained by the model.

$\Delta r^2$  is the adjusted R square statistic, it corrects this value to provide a better estimate of the true population value.

Preliminary analysis was conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homogeneity. To determine if there is a strange case having undue influence on the results for the model as a whole, Cooks Distance is used. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p.75) cases with values larger than 1 on the Cooks Distance residuals statistics table are a potential problem. As shown in Table 5, the maximum value for the Cooks Distance for overall work engagement is 0.249, for work happiness it is 0.229, for job satisfaction it is 0.115 and for burnout it is 0.077. In all the cases the Cooks Distance is less than 1, suggesting no major problems.

#### **4.5.1. Predicting the role of job demands and resources on total work engagement**

For each of the variables used the regression analysis was conducted in two steps, using the enter procedure. In Step 1 demographic variables (age and tenure) were used. These variables explained 7.5% of the variance with total work engagement. In Step 2 the entry of job demands and resources after controlling for age and tenure, the total variance explained an additional 49.3%,  $r^2 = 0.493$ ;  $F(2,306) = 23.254$ . There is a stronger relationship between work engagement and job resources, than with work engagement and job demands contributing to the differences in the beta values. On work engagement, job resources possessed a higher beta value of  $\beta = 0.368$  than job demands, which had a negative beta value of  $\beta = -0.145$ . This suggests that bus drivers with high job resources are likely to have high work engagement while the presence of high job demands is likely to result in reduction of work engagement. The overall regression was significant ( $p = 0.00$ ,  $p < 0.005$ ) and this indicates that job demands and resources explained more variance in overall work engagement than that explained by age and tenure. In this case the conclusion is that the

dimensions of job demands and resources are a strong predictor of the total work engagement.

#### **4.5.2. Predicting the role of job demands and resources on total happiness**

In Step 1 of the regression analysis, demographic variables (age and tenure) were used. These variables explained 8.1% of the variance with total happiness. In Step 2 the entry of job demands and resources, after controlling for age and tenure, the total variance explained an additional 52.6%,  $r^2 = 0.526$ ;  $F(4, 304) = 26.989$ . There is a stronger relationship between work happiness and job resources than with work happiness and job demands, contributing to the differences in the beta values. On work happiness, job resources possessed a higher beta value of  $\beta = 0.429$  than job demands which had a negative beta value of  $\beta = -0.655$ . This suggests that bus drivers with high job resources are likely to have high work happiness, while the presence of high job demands is likely to result in reduction of work happiness. The overall regression was significant ( $p = 0.00$ ,  $p < 0.005$ ) and this indicates that job demands and resources explained more variance in overall happiness than that explained by age and tenure. In this case the conclusion is that the dimensions of job demands and resources are a strong predictor of total happiness.

#### **4.5.3. Predicting the role of job demands and resources on total job satisfaction**

In Step 1 of the regression analysis, demographic variables (age and tenure) were used. These variables explained 10.9% of the variance with total job satisfaction. In Step 2 the entry of job demands and resources, after controlling for age and tenure, the total variance explained

an additional 50.6%,  $r^2 = 0.506$ ;  $F(4,305) = 26.848$ . There is a stronger relationship between job satisfaction and job resources than with job satisfaction and job demands contributing to the differences in the beta values. On job satisfaction job resources possessed a higher beta value of  $\beta = 0.405$  than job demands which had a beta value of  $\beta = 0.015$ . This suggests that bus drivers with high job resources are likely to have high job satisfaction. The overall regression was significant ( $p = 0.00$ ,  $p < 0.005$ ) and this indicates that job demands and resources explained more variance in overall job satisfaction than that explained by age and tenure. In this case the conclusion is that the dimensions of job demands and resources are a strong predictor of total job satisfaction.

#### **4.5.4. Predicting the role of job demands and resources on total burnout**

In Step 1 of the regression analysis demographic variables (age and tenure) were used. These variables explained 15.2% of the variance with total burnout. In Step 2 the entry of job demands and resources, after controlling for age and tenure, the total variance explained an additional 40.8%,  $r^2 = 0.408$ ;  $F(4,305) = 20.988$ . On burnout job resources possessed a higher beta value of  $\beta = -0.264$  than job demands which had a negative beta value of  $\beta = -0.028$ . This suggests that bus drivers with high job demands are likely to result in increased burnout. The overall regression was significant ( $p = 0.00$ ,  $p < 0.005$ ) and this indicates that job demands and resources explained more variance in overall burnout than that explained by age and tenure. In this case the conclusion is that the dimensions of job demands and resources are a strong predictor of total burnout.

#### **4.6. Chapter summary**

Chapter four has highlighted the quantitative phase of employee well-being among the commuter omnibus drivers. On average, the bus drivers were well engaged, had high levels of job satisfaction and work happiness. However burnout was average. It was identified that several relationships exist between work engagement, burnout, work happiness and job satisfaction. Multiple regression analysis revealed that Job demands and resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, burnout, work happiness and job satisfaction. The next chapter offers results of the qualitative phase of the study.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### RESULTS FOR THE QUALITATIVE PHASE

#### 5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings from the interviews of the study. The findings are guided by the study's research objectives, as mentioned in Chapter Three. The chapter seeks to highlight descriptions presented by participants with regard to their lived experiences as bus drivers. All this information was obtained from nine participants. The researcher's main aim was to obtain a coherent sense of meaning that could be attached to each of the commuter omnibus drivers.

The presentation of the findings commences with a description of the perceptions of work engagement among the commuter omnibus drivers that participated in the study. This is followed by a section on the perceptions of work happiness among the commuter omnibus drivers. The third section gives the perceptions of job satisfaction among the commuter omnibus drivers on their work. This is followed by a section highlighting the perceptions of the commuter omnibus drivers on the perceptions of stressors and the challenges that they experience on their jobs. The fifth section concerns the perceived job demands and resources by the bus drivers. In some instances, the exact words used by the commuter omnibus drivers were retained. The participants have been given pseudonyms, to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. The words bus drivers were used interchangeably with commuter omnibus drivers, to refer to the bus drivers that participated in the study.



## 5.2. Perceived work engagement among the commuter omnibus drivers

Money was a key motivator that made the bus drivers engaged in their work. The drivers said that even though some people made sarcastic comments about their jobs, they did not bother, because they knew that they had other sources of income which was a source of motivation for them to work. For example the sixth participant said, *“Even though some people mock us, what they don’t know is that I earn more money in addition to my salary which is a key motivation to do my job”*. The drivers felt that, since they were employed, they just could not just opt not to go to work. This was because they needed the money they earned from their jobs. Furthermore, since the drivers were paid in the form of commission, if they decided not to work hard it would backfire on them on their pay. For example the third participant said, *“Whether I want to work or not I have to because I am paid on commission. If I decide to be lazy I will earn less money, hence my potential salary always drives me to engage on my work”*

Motivation from the potential salaries the drivers would earn enhanced work engagement, as reported by all the commuter omnibus drivers that participated in this study. This is because the bus drivers felt that each time they thought about the potential money they would get if they were engaged they would find the energy to work. One of the bus drivers said, *“Each time I think about the potential money that I can earn in a day, even if I was about to be lazy I find all the energy to do my work. At times I even go to the extent of working in illegal places”*. Some of the drivers mentioned working in illegal places for them to get as much money as they could. The name the drivers gave to such practices is *–Mushikashika*. *Mushikashika* are illegal bus ranks that bus drivers start in the streets for which they need not pay any tax for patrolling. These are streets they turn into temporary bus ranks with no illegal

names. They take advantage of people who will be walking in town going to the bus ranks. If a person has to walk a kilometer or two from where they are to their relevant bus stop they would rather take a kombi in the *Mushikashika* rank. This will save them walking more than half the distance they would to their normal bus rank. Once in a while the bus drivers operating in these *Mushikashika* ranks are caught by the police and made to pay fines.

The drivers who engaged in such acts did not mind this potential risk, since they focused on the potential gain of performing such illegal acts. For example the seventh participant said, *“At times when it is not busy to the extent that I will have to wait in the queue for even four hours for my turn to come, I tend to go to the Mushikashika to find customers. There is risk in doing that but I have devised a way of operating without being caught by the police. So at least even though at times the legal ranks are not busy I always find a way of making as much profit as possible as if though it were busy.”*

Some drivers reported that they did not go to the *Mushikashika* since they had many bad experiences of being caught by the police. It was thus not worth it, after all, to go to the *Mushikashika*. The commuter omnibus drivers who went to the *Mushikashika* felt that engaging in such acts gave them and their employees a competitive advantage.

Finding purpose in their job caused the bus drivers to be engaged in their work. For example, the sixth participant said, *“Furthermore, what makes me to be engaged at my work is that I find purpose in what I do, for example when I first got employed on this job I was afraid that I would lose my job because of the target money that I had to meet. However now I find it to be an interesting aspect since I find purpose on my job each day”*. The drivers felt that the required target amount of money stipulated by the employees was a positive motivator that

kept them busy and engaged them on their work most of the time. For example the ninth participant said, *“I am engaged at my work because I feel that the targets I have been given by my boss motivate me to work”*.

Two commuter omnibus drivers, felt that they were under pressure to meet the required target amount of money. The employees were pressured to be engaged most of the time. They felt that even if this was a demanding challenge, it was a positive motivator that kept them busy and engaged with their work. Even though the drivers had to meet the required target, this was an advantage for them, since they would only have to give the owner of the commuter omnibus the required amount of money. The rest of the profits they would keep for themselves. Participant five said, *“At first when I started my job I was afraid that I would not meet the required US\$80-US\$100. However I now appreciate this, because the first thing I am for is to reach the target money. After reaching the target money I keep on being engaged so that I will have all the money to myself.”*

Concerning the required target amount of money the comments by the bus drivers show that what initially seemed to be a stressor on their jobs, resulted in their increasing their work engagement and income. This is evident in one driver’s comments: *“On another note like I mean..... there is no kind of like structured way to check that we have done everything. But I guess you could decide in the end it’s up to you.”* However, despite the fact that the bus drivers get paid for their job, they stressed that they really enjoyed their work, which was a good reason to engage in the work. The bus drivers were engaged because of the commitment they had to their jobs which, in turn, made them passionate about their work. Participant number one said, *“I am passionate about my job so that is why I have all the energy to go to work each and every morning.*

The drivers said that at times they had to work even though they were tired. What gave them the vigour to continue working was the motivation of knowing that they would get money by working. The ninth participant said, *“I get 15 % commission for all the work I do. So sometimes I only feel tired when I arrive home. This is because if I get tired early and try to rest it means less pay at the end of the week. So that is why I just can’t afford to follow my feelings because I am tired.”* Another reason for their conscientiousness was that some of the drivers amount of money had been employed on condition they met the target amount of money as required by their employees.

The bus drivers were engaged because of the commitment they had onto their jobs, which made them passionate about their work. The first participant stated, *“I engage in my work because I am committed to being a bus driver. I enjoy being responsible since I will be dealing with human life. The thought of work make me to be enthusiastic and passionate in everything that I do.”*

Making use of opportunities to help someone was a source of intrinsic satisfaction among the bus drivers and made them engage in their work. The fifth participant said, *“I like engaging on my work especially the part when I get the opportunity to help people. It makes me feel like a full person. My job has made me realize that being a bus driver is actually a way of serving the community. Such intrinsic satisfaction I get from my job motivates me to engage on my job”*. The respect the bus drivers received from helping passengers motivated them to continue engaging on their work. The eighth participant said, *“Some people respect us for helping them when we can because they know that bus drivers carry human life hence they even encourage us to drive safely.”*

A supportive work environment increased work engagement among the drivers, since they have the energy to work. The fifth participant said, *“My boss is very understanding at times when he sees that I have overworked he even gives me some days off to recover. This in turn makes me engage in my work because I will be having energy”*. The commuter omnibus drivers appreciated how their core works were very friendly to them. Such a good working environment gave the bus drivers the energy to engage on their work. For example the sixth participant said, *“The working conditions under which we work in are good the environment allows us to balance and work life. The good thing is that my core workers are good and polite. This in turn gives me the energy to engage on my work”*.

Having positive attitudes in the midst of stressors gave the bus drivers the energy to continue engaging on their work. Positive attitudes encouraged the bus drivers, in that they would focus more on the positive aspects of their work and not dwell on the negative. This is evident in a comment made by the first participant, who said, *“At times I find passengers a bit irritating because at times people ask questions that are not that good. I go a bit out of the handout because it’s a bit frustrating to be told how to drive/do ones work. However, in order to get over it I have learned not to take matters at hand seriously. My positive attitude towards life and towards good and bad events makes me engage and continue having energy on my work.”* The joy of being connected with the people and the interaction that they have made the bus drivers enjoy engaging on their work. Their job has variety which made it enjoyable for the bus drivers to engage on their work. One driver said, *“I engage on my work because it is interesting most of the time. The interesting thing about my job is that I get to meet people with different personalities all the time which makes me not to have a routine way of doing things, the how and when to say or do things.”*

Training for the job and on-the-job training programmes' was reported to help enhance engagement. However, other drivers sometimes had their own ways to further improve their jobs. One driver who said, *"even though I get trained to enhance my driving I now find my own way of doing things, which makes my driving/job interesting. You can do it in your own way that makes it more natural and more. And this is really helpful in enhancing the person in me that I can become."* The bus drivers pointed out how organizational support structures increased their job satisfaction. One driver said, *"I know from friends who have been bus drivers that they went through vigorous training on how to work professionally and so did I. The training that we get as drivers such as test retest is good sometimes it revives me on the purpose of my job."* In relation to this, other bus drivers reported different experiences. Since the employers of the bus drivers were different the support they got differed. For instance some of the drivers indicated that they had to use their own money to go for commuter omnibus test retest driving skills. This is a legal requirement every five years.

### **5.3.Perceived happiness among the commuter omnibus drivers**

During the interviews most commuter omnibus drivers said that for them happiness was having frequent positive states of mind. For them happiness was a feeling that they had within themselves. For example one commuter omnibus driver said, *"Personally I think happiness is when I am at peace with what will be happening around me in the workplace it is when I am not worrying about anything concerning my job."* The drivers, however, added that although they said that they were happy, it did not mean that they did not experience negative events but rather the majority of the time at the workplace they were happy or

experiencing positive moods. What made the drivers happy were the positive attitudes they had towards their jobs. The third participant said, *“I have learned to view both negative and positive experiences in a positive manner. For instance, when the passengers are rude I take it as an opportunity to be polite, not to say that I am super human who does not get hurt? It’s just I have learnt to view passengers as people passing by on my job of which I have learned to appreciate that without them I have no income. In life, in general, events don’t always happen in the manner in which I want, however I focus more on what I will benefit from working rather than experiences.”*

The bus drivers felt that that since driving busses was their career<sup>6</sup>, they would be doing an injustice if they did not enjoy their job. Thus even though they were happy at their job this did not necessarily mean that their work is not challenging, or at times boring. The drivers had learned to find interesting aspects and activities to occupy them during work. For instance the sixth participant said, *“I have more than ten trips a day to town from the suburbs, hence in order for me to enjoy my job I listen to the radio while I am driving. Different types of music make my day, in fact I then tend to focus on my driving in a peaceful manner.”* Even though the drivers said they were happy it also depended on the passengers were carrying. In one group the passengers would be very enthusiastic and in another group I will be a bit more relaxed but still the drivers tried by all means to enjoy the work. The second participant said, *“However sometimes I also get to meet people who are hard-headed. Yah but I still enjoy my work in spite of all the situations and different people I get to meet I have learned that as a bus driver I will always get to meet stubborn and good people all at once. For example on this other day a passenger told me that I was too slow since they were late for work. When I*

*started increasing the speed for the vehicle the other passengers started to yell at me saying comments like: you want to kill us!”*

The commuter omnibus drivers felt that being a bus driver had helped them deal with different sorts of people, because their communication skills had improved. Four of the bus drivers indicated that they had learned from their work experience that since they could not change the behaviour of the people around them, it was their duty rather to change the way and manner in which they reacted to these people. Interacting with people with a diverse range of personalities among the passengers and even some core workers had enhanced their personalities and public relations skills. One of the drivers said, *“Um not so much of communication skills as I have said myself -esteem probably to some extent I do see that it has helped me to communicate more effectively. And just having that experience to me is good because I am going to be working with diverse groups of people.”*

Personality is another contributor towards the attitudes of the bus drivers. Some commuter omnibus drivers felt that their individual communication skills and personality, as it stood, had more effect on their public relations skills as a driver. For example, the seventh participant said, *“..... you know when communicating with passengers I am used to joking around and being like enthusiastic and like friendly. So I kind of brought that on my job which is good in some respects and not good in others. In summary I really enjoy my job.”*

In contrast to the experiences they had with the passengers, some of the commuter omnibus drivers were happy that the people in their workplaces appreciated them. The eighth



participant said, *“If only the passengers knew they would thank us more. I love it when passengers, core workers and my boss appreciate any good work that I do. I feel sorry for the other workers who told me this other day that most of the time their bosses complain about how they work. For me I value the few times I am appreciated.”* The drivers acknowledged that there will always be some people who do not appreciate any good or what another person does. The bus drivers emphasised how they thought that their personality played a big role in their having a positive attitude towards their job.

In addition to being appreciated by everyone around them, that is the passengers, core workers and their bosses, the older bus drivers were happy that they were respected almost everyone. One of the participants felt that since he was old, everyone felt comfortable working with him. At one point the ninth participant said, *“There are many benefits that come with age. I now find fulfilment with the respect I have earned on my career. Even though some of these young drivers have trouble with their employees, I don’t. I think that my boss now trusts me since I have worked for him for more than 10 years.”* The commuter omnibus drivers said that they did not focus on their work only but rather they had other sources that made them happy. The older participants stressed that they were happy to be bus drivers, because of the respect that they were shown by people as a result of their age. This is because passengers felt that the bus drivers who were older than 35 were less reckless than the younger bus drivers. Interestingly, even though the younger drivers felt that they enjoyed the jobs they did not focus on the issue of respect, but rather on the issue of working in harmony with the people around them.

Most of the time during the day, when the drivers had nothing to do while waiting in the queue, they would chat with colleagues. This made them to forget about all the negative things that would be happening at a particular time. The drivers' value laughing with colleagues because it makes them more relaxed and released some stress. The fourth participant said, *“As I have said earlier on, I chat with my colleagues just to occupy myself. At times I start to talk to ladies who will be passing by in order to be happy.”*

Even though behaviour such as randomly calling girls who were passing by led to the bus drivers being called names like „*Boora Ngoma*“ this did not bother them at all because all they wanted was to have fun. One of the bus drivers said, *“Boora Ngoma is a very sarcastic name that people give us. I understand that they think that we are acting foolishly, which is true to some extent. Anyway as workmates on the rank we will only be trying to have some fun.”* The other bus drivers who did not engage in activities such as whistling at girls, they felt that it was unfortunate for them since people generalised the behaviour of all bus rank workers. For instance the second participant said, *“What I hate about the name though is that some people tend to look down upon us personally I don't engage in some of the behaviours my colleagues do.”*

Other commuter omnibus drivers emphasised that they made an effort to be happy by engaging in social activities during the times they were not busy, such as from eight to eleven o'clock. They would talk about life and encourage one another concerning even family-related issues. Some drivers indicated that they did not just socialise with core workers but they would also spend their free time socialising with other people on Facebook. For example

the first participant said, *“So far I haven’t made many friends at my work place. So even if I talk to my colleges I always find time to chat with my friends on face book. I like my job because I have Facebook to keep me cheered up at work.”* Interestingly it is the bus drivers aged below 35 years mentioned that they mainly focused on charting with friends on face book during free times at work. For the older drivers some of them had a negative attitude towards Facebook. In fact two drivers one aged 47 and another aged 57 indicated how they did not understand why young married man some among the commuter omnibus drivers had friends on Facebook. One of the participants for example said *“If a married man has girl friends on Facebook they are cheating on their wives because they spend time with these girls on Facebook. In actual fact I have not joined Face book because I don’t understand it.”*

Another social activity engaged in by the bus drivers in order to be happy included taking drugs. Some of the commuter omnibus drivers confessed that they would take drugs to make themselves happy. In contrast to this, other drivers who did not take drugs at work felt that it was unfair that people had stereotypes about them in relation to most drivers taking drugs. The sixth participant said, *“it pains me when people label every bus driver as a drug addict personally I don’t take drugs at all. Personally I think that only about 20% percent of us the drivers take drugs”*. The drivers had different perceptions on the number of bus drivers who took drugs since another driver gave a random comment that about 80% of the drivers were on drugs. This particular driver he was one of the 20% of the bus drivers who were not on drugs. The driver who said 80% of the drivers were on drugs had only been employed for less than a month. This could have suggested a bias because he did not know much about the organisational culture.

The bus drivers indicated that strategies for coping with stress and fatigue enhanced their happiness at work. Some of the drivers highlighted how they at times worked over time which was a potential stressor itself. What made these drivers able to manage fatigue was the fact that other than socialising during their free times or they would also take some time to sleep. For example one of the drivers indicated how he would rather opt to sleep and not chat with co-workers if he was tired. To him this was a way of saving energy to work during the peak hours. This gave drivers some time to recover and to do their work in a peaceful manner.

The drivers said that they had learned to live one day at a time. The third participant said, *“When challenges come I have learned to address them and not to worry about a challenge before I face it.”* There are many activities that the bus drivers do to keep themselves going. They said that they rarely get stressed, because they engaged many activities as colleagues to keep themselves occupied with positive thoughts. One driver said, *“I really enjoy my job. It’s funny because some people think that being a bus driver is monotonous. However I think that it is because of the outside perception they have since they are not directly involved in the job.”*

Some bus drivers found it strange that passengers thought that being a bus driver was monotonous. This was because they have no idea of what the job entails. In fact the drivers said that their work gave them a good life with a lot of enjoyment. The bus drivers had many activities that they did as drivers to keep themselves occupied with positive thoughts. Furthermore they would always find new and interesting aspects about their job. Furthermore

as a result of driving commuter omnibuses the bus drivers appreciated having learnt a lot about being polite to the passengers. The seventh participant said, *“At times I then I suppose I will talk about it to my friends and say something funny and laugh it out so that it does not stress me. This will be when we will be sitting outside and I will, be like by the way how are you going about it doing it. But I mean it” snot frequent and everyone has their own style that works for them and for me as alone as I am comfortable.”*

The commuter omnibus drivers felt that being a driver helped them to have leadership qualities. What is rewarding about being a driver is probably the confidence gained from leading a group of people and the confidence of knowing that he can do it. Furthermore being a commuter omnibus driver enabled the bus drivers to enhance their personalities with regards to time management. The sixth participant said, *“Definitely yes with the work load I had to be more responsible, also in terms of time management, also you get to realize that you are kind of a role model. So that is not what you are supposed to do cause you have to realize your responsibility of arriving on time and being prompt and I think that is quite an important thing of taking on that responsibility.”* Similarly another participant said, *“All I need is to myself and enjoy it and try to be myself at work and be friendly you know not to be like stern and etc..... That”s sound instead of wanting people to take my place and to approve of me like then I will like not spend enough time on the actual work.”*

#### 5.4. Perceived job satisfaction among the commuter omnibus drivers

One bus driver said that he felt satisfied with his job because before he was employed he had certain expectations about the job, which were met. In relation to their salaries the bus drivers revealed that they were satisfied with the pay, even though their commission ranged from 10% to 15%. This is because the drivers did not compare themselves with other drivers, rather they compared themselves with other professionals in the country. The fourth participant said, *“I am happy to be a bus driver now because I am getting a better salary than when I was working as an administrator. This is because I earned two hundred dollars and yet now I earn up to US\$500 or more per month.”* This shows that the attitude of comparing their salaries with that of others made these drivers satisfied with their jobs. Yet still one of the participants said, *“I failed my O’levels and became a bus driver but now I am earning more than educated people. At least I am better than them”*.

All of the drivers said that even though some people made sarcastic comments about their job this did not bother them because they knew that they had other sources of income. The eighth participant said, *“I feel sorry for people who see us as poor useless and struggling people I laugh because I know that I am better than them. After all sometimes we get a lot of money depending with the time of the month and seasons of the year. Like now, it’s Christmas season so a lot of people travel that’s why we get more money during times as these.”*

The bus drivers felt that much of their work satisfaction stemmed from the money they earned. Some drivers felt that the salaries in the driving industry had made them to start

thinking about becoming bus drivers. The seventh participant said, *“I don’t think the money is too bad compared to other jobs in Zimbabwe. At the current moment we actually get paid better salaries than some well educated people. This is quite good!”* Other than the official incomes they earned, the bus drivers had other possibilities of earning more money on their jobs. As a result the drivers were satisfied with their jobs. One of the participants indicated that since he had worked for many years in the industry he now had many connections, some from his church and others from passengers. He said, *“A significant number of people hire me to work for them during weddings and funerals. This automatically increases the amount of money I get during the weekends. Even though this does not happen every weekend, I really appreciate such times when I am hired.”* As a result the bus drivers did not only rely on the money from the trips in town. This is because the nature of their jobs enabled them to have more sources of income.

For the other drivers their extra sources of income were different, because they had fewer connections. For example the drivers said that some of them were required to work from six to six that every day. What the drivers did was that they would start working at for using the companies’ vehicle up to eight in the evening. The money bus drivers would earn beyond the targeted amount per day, they would take for themselves. The bus drivers acknowledged that this was not a good practice; however this was the only option they saw as a way of increasing their salaries. For others, their employers required to give them a target profit ranging from \$80-\$100. The surplus money these workers got after meeting the target they would take it as their own. They justified their actions by saying that they knew that some people might think that they were stealing money from their employers, but they felt that

since they gave them the required signed and agreed target money, that they want hen the rest was for them to enjoy.

Some of the bus drivers confessed that they loved their jobs when there was bad weather such as rain. This is because most of the drivers would then charge double the amount of the commuter omnibus fares. For example the fourth participant said, *“I know that what we do is bad because we take advantage of desperate people wanting to go home. It’s only that we want the money.”* This enabled them to take the extra money after the target money had been met. Another driver even emphasised this point, by saying. *“It’s good for us because we get profit. During the weekends we at times charge double the amount to compensate our time we could be resting. After all there will be a few commuter omnibus patrolling, so we in turn get more profit.”*

Concerning the working environment, the commuter omnibus drivers appreciated how their co-workers were very friendly to them. The amicable and good working environment enhanced job satisfaction among the bus drivers. For example, they had social support structures. One of the bus drivers said, *“The times we socialise at work are helpful. If one of us has a problem at work or related to the family the other drivers talk to the person and even encourage the person. Such support and socialising contributes to the satisfaction I have on the job”*. The drivers, however, felt that job satisfaction differed, since they were employed by different employers and their work experiences were different.



The bus drivers felt that working in the city was far better than driving long distances, because they could take breaks during the day. The younger drivers felt that driving in the town gave them an opportunity to advance themselves in education. One driver said: *“At times we sit during the day as if we are aimless and yet that is the time we take to advance in our education I and a few other guys have written and passed our O’levels by taking advantage of the free time on our work. Who knows, maybe we might end up having some diplomas as bus drivers.”*

The bus drivers said that even though they were paid for the job, being responsible and careful on the job was a good. One driver said, *“After all I have come to realize that I will be carrying human life which is precious, so I just cannot afford to be reckless. Oh ... yes I think it has. I am always surprised about how much I know that I didn’t know. Like over the years you pick up more than you would. I guess as far as I am concerned I have more understanding and that is probably come along with age.”* The bus drivers had learned to take their work more seriously. Making use of opportunities to help someone was a source of intrinsic satisfaction among the bus drivers. One of the drivers said, *“I like especially the part when I get the opportunity to help people. It makes me feel like a good person. My job has made me realize that being a bus driver is actually a way of serving the community. Some people respect us for that, because they know that bus drivers carry human life, hence they even encourage us to drive safely.”*

The bus drivers liked to help passengers, because they had positive joyous feelings after doing so. They did not view helping people as an obligation, but felt that it was not good to waste any opportunity to be pleasant. The bus drivers felt that driving is wonderful, because it, allowed them to meet different people from different walks of life and gave them

opportunities to help other people. The first participant said, *“Sometimes four people come with ten rand which is the bus fare for two people and they negotiate to pay half the price, sometimes it will be raining and they will be stranded hence I just help them if I can. There are many ways in which I get to help people as a driver. Sometimes even when parking my vehicle during the day I get opportunities to help even people who do not know directions this makes me feel happy and satisfied.”*

The young bus drivers indicated how they were happy each time they got an opportunity to help someone. For instance, the second participant said, *“at times four people come with ten rand which is the fare for two people and negotiate to be driven. Even though I take the people at my own expense it makes me happy, because I would have helped someone”*. The theme of helping other people was indicated by many of the bus drivers as a source of happiness in their workplace. Helping people among the bus drivers included giving people directions where to go, helping old people and giving people discounts or even free rides to people in need when it was raining.

### **5.5. Perceived stress among the commuter omnibus drivers**

For the commuter omnibus drivers the few times they were stressed or experienced rare negative feelings did not matter to them at all. They emphasised that in their workplace challenges did occur, but they had learned not to allow the happenings around them to determine their joy and happiness. The fifth participant said, *“In life and in the workplace events always happen in the manner that I always wish but I have learned to be happy most of the time. Living each moment at a time makes me enjoy my work.”*

All the commuter omnibus drivers agreed that the police were the only source of stress in their jobs, because of the way they patrolled in the towns. During the Christmas season the police were reported to be a major source of stress among the bus drivers to the extent that sometimes they did all they could avoid them. The drivers felt that the police were not patrolling in order to maintain peace and safety, but rather they enjoyed taking money from the bus drivers. These drivers felt that if only they did not have to run away from the police, their work would be a perfectly peaceful job. As a result of the challenge of police taking the bus drivers' money, the bus drivers felt the passengers failed to understand their sudden change of driving behaviour to becoming a little reckless. For example, the seventh participant said, *"I think that the passengers do not understand us when we are trying to run away from the police, what they don't understand is that if we go to the route where they will be having a roadblock we will have to pay R300 for example and yet for one trip I might have made R120. That frustrates me because at times and I don't know how to make the passengers understand. I think there has been one bit of a clash but it wasn't that much of a clash it was just one person talking too much. For some people they will be saying get us to our work places early and others whatever..... The good thing is that this happens once in a while."*

The bus drivers admitted that their reckless behaviour when they were driving was not a good habit. Even though they continued to engage in such acts, especially when they saw the police, they justified the acts saying that all they wanted was not to be given a ticket by the police. At the time of the present research a significant number of commuter omnibus accidents happened of which the drivers were aware. They felt that when they avoided the

police they were always careful and that is why they were not involved in the car accidents. Instead of viewing the accidents by other fellow drivers as a warning not to value money over people, the bus drivers still felt that everyone else around them did not understand why they behaved the way they did.

Another misunderstanding the bus drivers had was the question of change. At the current moment the US dollar and the South African rand are being used in Zimbabwe instead of the Zimbabwean dollar. It is difficult to find coins in these currencies. This is a big challenge that all the bus drivers reported to have. This is because at times the passengers ended up paying US\$1 or R10, instead of the R5 or US50c, since change was an issue. A significant number of fights between the bus drivers, conductors and passengers emerged over the five rand change. It is unfortunate that at the time of this research there were two fatal accidents that occurred on different occasions as a result of fighting over the five rand change. The bus drivers were aware of such incidences and felt that the passengers had to understand that if there was no change they could not get a free ride, so instead that is why they made them pay US\$1 or 10 rand. In order to solve the problem of change the bus drivers introduced a system of giving passengers a ticket when there was no change. It is unfortunate that this stopped after being implemented for a short time because there were some people who started to manufacture similar tickets and sold them to passengers at US\$1 for 10 tickets. As a result the commuter omnibus started to make losses. One driver said, *–if only the passengers were cooperative and understood, they would not buy the tickets from the crooks. We have no choice now but to take their dollar if we do not have change. I hate to quarrel over change but there is nothing I can do about it.*”

Peak hours are a major source of fatigue, frustration and stress among commuter omnibus drivers. The ninth participant said: *“I hate peak hours because I tend to do my job in a slow manner. This is because there will be a lot of traffic. It bothers me more when I see a police roadblock during such times. This is because any delay by 30minutes at such times could mean a potential trip that is lost meaning that I get less money for the day. It pains me even more when I am given a ticket either early in the morning or towards the end of the day.”*

Another challenge during peak hours was that during load-shedding hours the traffic lights would not be working. This affected the manner in which the bus drivers worked. The bus drivers would experience symptoms of driver stress, such as worry, irritation and anxiety.

In contrast to this, other bus drivers found peak hours to be interesting, because they focus on a different aspect of peak hour. They made use of the times it was not busy to rest, so that they would be full of energy during the peak hours. It is not surprising that one of the drivers said, *“Interestingly, I rarely get tired on my work this is because during the day I have time to rest each time I will be on the queue waiting for my vehicle to be loaded with people. During peak hours it’s about thirty minutes before loading my vehicles, however if it’s not a peak hour at times it takes about three to four hours before loading my vehicle.”*

## **5.6. Perceived job demands and resources among the bus drivers**

Incentives such as money and wages earned were prime job resources that impacted on bus drivers’ work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. Money played an extrinsic motivational role, which fostered the willingness to be dedicated to one’s work among the bus drivers. One of the participants said, *“Even though there are other job resources that*

*motivate me to be engaged, happy and satisfied with my job, for me money is the key resource that makes me want to work. Each time I think about the potential money I might earn I feel energy in my bones. When I meet the target of the day it makes me happy and satisfied”.*

The drivers felt that they were under pressure to meet the target amount of money required by their employers and were pressured to be engaged most of the time. They felt that even though this was somehow a demanding challenge, it was a positive motivator that kept them busy with their work. The second participant said, *“Since I have to meet a required amount of target by my employer this gives me pressure to meet the target required amount of money by the employees and hence I am always pressurized to be engaged most of the time. I feel that even though this is somehow a demanding challenge on the other hand it was a positive motivator that keeps me busy with their work.”* The bus drivers reported that pressure during pick hours, such as situational and task demands, impact negatively on driver safety. The bus drivers reported having experienced near-miss accidents during peak hours. This is because the bus drivers felt the pressure and need to commit traffic offences such as speeding or close following in order to meet task demands. An example is that of the first participant, who said, *“One of the challenges of the task that are demanding is that I end up committing road crimes such as over speeding and running over red lights. On the other hand I always have near-miss accidents, which is a bit scary but I have no choice, the pressure is too much”.*

The demands of the workload the bus drivers experienced made them more responsible and improved their time management. The fourth participant said, *“Even though sometimes the workload is demanding, definitely the workload I had to be more responsible also in terms of time management also you get to realize that you are kind of a role model. So that is not what*

*you are supposed to do cause you have to realize your responsibility of arriving on time and being prompt and I think that is quite an important thing of taking on that responsibility.”*

A good and peaceful organisational climate was another job resource that enhanced work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. The organisational climate was one in which the workers would work in harmony with one another. They would even find time to socialise during breaks and in their free time. Participant eight said, *“The other drivers and people that work on the bus rank are like family we have time to socialize and interact even when we don’t agree we always have a way to resolve the conflict in harmony. This has been a key to my work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction on my career”*. Other than the good co-workers, the bus drivers felt that the respect and appreciation they got from the passengers and employers was a job resource that encouraged work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. Participant three said, *“I am grateful that I am a bus driver people respect us because our job involves working with human life. Furthermore each time I work very hard my boss appreciates what I have done. This is indeed a job resource that makes me to be engaged, happy and satisfied on my job”*. Time to rest was another job resource that enabled the bus drivers to always have renewed energy to work more, even during odd hours.

The drivers felt that their working environment was good and this was a job resource that enhanced work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. Even though demands on the job existed, they were overcome by the job resources they had. They had social support structures, in which they would lend or give each other money in the event of death or illness. They agreed that every driver would, for example, contribute a dollar to another assist the driver in need at a particular point in time, such as supporting one another for a funeral.

Participant nine related how he had benefitted from the support structures: *“I don’t know how I would have managed to cope when my mother died. Since I am the breadwinner in my family it was my responsibility to pay most of the funeral expenses. I thank God for my co-workers, who helped me with approximately \$200 for the funeral it made a difference.”*

Another support structure included that of lending each other money. They supported each other financially and even had a provision by which drivers would have to return the money.

The bus drivers felt that the coaching and training they received on the job helped them to have good public relations and better emotional intelligence. In turn, they focused more on the purpose of their job, rather than on the negative work environmental factors. The fifth participant said, *“Dealing with people at our work can be hard but I was coached by my boss that people come and go, hence I should not dwell on what they say or do. Rather I should focus on doing my duties with all my heart. It helps me know and choose what to say, how to say it and when to say it and interacting with passengers for example”.*

## **5.7. Chapter summary**

This chapter has presented descriptions by participants of their lived experiences as commuter omnibus drivers. The most important finding has been the meaning of the lived experiences of the bus drivers in relation to work place happiness, job satisfaction, work engagement, burnout, work demands and the resources available for them to work. Some of the key themes that emerged on perceived work engagement included money earned, pressure to meet the required target amount of money, commitment on jobs, supportive work environment, positive attitudes and training on the job. On perceived job satisfaction, the key



themes that emerged include job expectations that were met, money earned, good and peaceful working environment, personality, having frequent positive states of mind and helping passengers. Stress coping strategies enhanced happiness of the drivers. The police, misunderstandings with passengers and peak hours were the perceived major sources of stress. Themes that emerged on job demands include workload, pressured of meeting targets required by the employers, situational and task demands during peak hours. The job resources were enhanced by the good and peaceful organisational climate and an amicable working environment.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **DISCUSSION**

#### **6.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the discussion of the research findings of the current study. The discussion will be done in line with the research questions. A comparison of the current study and previous studies will be made. Firstly the quantitative phase of the study will be discussed, followed by the discussion of the qualitative phase of the study.

#### **6.2. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE**

##### **6.2.1. DISCUSSION OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIABLES**

The first research objective was to determine the relationships between work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction, stress/burnout, job demands and resources among bus drivers. In accordance with the first objective of this study, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the strength of the relationship between work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction, burnout, job demands and resources. This is being compared to previous research.

The present study reveals that there are practically and statistically significant positive relationships between variables of work engagement and work happiness. These results reflect variables with those in the study of Bakker and Schaufeli (2008). Results show that an increase in work happiness is associated with an increase in work engagement. Hence if happiness makes people feel more active and engaged, in general, there would be benefits in a wide variety of jobs. This confirms the findings by Bosman, Rothman and Buitendach

(2005), where positive affectivity showed an association with higher levels of work engagement while higher levels of negative affectivity were found to be associated with decreased work engagement. A key implication of these results is that there is a general tendency for happy people to be more socially engaged than unhappy people. One of the reasons could be that a number of specific effects of happiness lead to positive social interactions and these effects are particularly important implications for happiness and work engagement. Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) show that happy employees, were more engaging than less happy employees. In the context of the present study the work environment could have contributed to increasing employee happiness and work engagement which, in turn, lowered stress. Work place happiness acted as an intrinsic motivator of work engagement. It is of importance to consider that happiness should not result in social loafing for it to be associated with work engagement. Hence results in the current study are in line with research suggesting that feeling good is strongly associated with feeling energetic and active (Ching-Fu Chen & Shu-Chuan Chen, 2012).

Results of this study are consistent with those of Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008), indicating that there are practically and statistically significant relationships between variables of work engagement and job satisfaction. In the context of this study an increase in the level of job satisfaction is associated with an increase in the level of work engagement. These results have relevant practical implications for companies. For instance, findings in this research are an indicator of the benefits of positive organisational climate in job satisfaction, work engagement and performance. The results of this study suggest that work engagement has positive effects in the short and the long-term productivity of organisations. This is because employees who are satisfied with their work will show greater commitment and work engagement. Similar results were found by O'Brien and Allen (2008), where employee job

satisfaction was associated with increased work engagement. In addition to this, research by Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker and Lloret (2006) postulates that if employees are satisfied with their work they will show greater commitment and increased work engagement. Conversely, dissatisfied workers with negative attitudes will ultimately leave the organisation (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008).

In this study the Zimbabwean socio-economic and political challenges could have contributed to the significant relationships that exist on work engagement and job satisfaction. This is because many companies closed, which affected the employment status of many. According to Mundi (2012), at the current moment the unemployment rate in Zimbabwe is 95%. The bus drivers might thus have been more engaged and satisfied with their work since they are among the few who are employed. The tendencies of the drivers to compare their salaries with other jobs could have played a role in their being more satisfied and engaged in their work. The results could also be a reflection of the positive effect that incentives have on job satisfaction and work engagement.

The results of this study are concur with those of Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008), who indicated that burnout might affect the work engagement of employees, showing practically and statistically significant negative correlation coefficients. Results in the current study mean that an increased level of burnout is associated with a decreased level of work engagement. These results confirm the first relationship, where an increase in happiness is associated with an increase in work engagement. In addition to this research, Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen and Christensen (2005) note that a relationship between emotional exhaustion and individual-level performance may be argued for by proposing that a high level of emotional fatigue has both an energetic and a motivational component, resulting in

being unable as well as unwilling to engage in. Job demands such as workload drain the employee's energy and, in an attempt to cope with the resulting burnout, the employee might withdraw mentally, resulting in decreased work engagement levels. Results could be indicative that the bus drivers had stress-coping strategies to reduce burnout, since they were engaged in spite of the stressors. Research by Ching-Fu Chen and Shu-Chuan Chen (2012) shows that burnout at low levels acts as a motivator of work engagement, but when it becomes higher and unbearable it reduces work engagement. These results could also be a reflection of the positive role of intrinsic motivation on work engagement. Hence even though burnout existed among the bus drivers, it was a motivator for and not a hindrance to work engagement.

Results in this study reveal that there are practically and statistically significant positive relationships between variables of work happiness and job satisfaction. The results are consistent with the findings of Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008). Happy employees were said to have more job satisfaction and they showed superior performance in the workplace than less happy employees. Results in the current study mean that an increased level of happiness is associated with an increase in job satisfaction. Ford, McLaughlin and Newstrom (2003) reported that there is greater than 90% positive agreement that a fun work environment leads to increased employee satisfaction. Similar to previous studies such as Judge and Ilies (2004) found that, besides describing their job more positively, happy people are more satisfied with their jobs compared with unhappy people. Even though the focus of the present research was not on the organisational climate and culture, the role of these factors in this study could still have been significant. For example, factors such as a supportive organisational climate and a positive organisational culture could have played a positive role in mediating the relationships between happiness and job satisfaction. This is because previous research, such

as that by Schulte, Ostroff and Kinicki (2006) found that organizational-level climate and culture can have unique cross-level influence on individual job satisfaction and happiness when taking into account the influence of individual-level, psychological climate. Since burnout is a stressor that was highlighted in this study, positive attitudes among the bus drivers could have also resulted in happiness and job satisfaction among the bus drivers.

Results of the current study are similar to those of Crawford, LePine and Rich (2010), who showed that job resources have direct practically and statistically significant positive relationships with variables of work engagement. The findings indicate that there are positive relationships between different types of job resources and work engagement. In terms of practical implications, results emphasize the importance of providing good job resources to employees to enhance work engagement and enhance efficacy. Since job resources are assumed to activate a motivational process, they are instrumental in achieving work goals and increasing willingness to dedicate one's efforts and abilities to the work. Work engagement also increases efficacy beliefs, leading to the perception of greater task resources. These motivational perceptions and beliefs increase the degree to which individuals are willing to invest themselves in their role performances. This confirms the unique contribution of resources proposed by the JD-R model in that resources have favourable effects on work engagement (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). Work environments that emphasize growth and resources foster work engagement. Hence results in the present study suggest that providing work units with organizational resources increases work engagement. This helps to foster an excellent organisational climate, which consequently increases work engagement and performance of employees.

Findings in the current study are in line with previous results that found positive relationships between job resources and happiness flow states (Salanova et al., 2006). In the context of this study job resources have a positive relationship with the balance between challenges and skills, which, in turn, contribute to explaining variance in workers experiences of happiness. Job resources thus show a strong positive influence on work happiness. Other research shows similar results that the levels of job resources and happiness flow states correlated strongly with each other and their changes over time are associated (Bakker, 2008). Results reflect the possibility of a good organisational climate and culture contributing to the happiness of the bus drivers. The supportive, sociable and harmonised work environment could have played a role in the relationship between job resources and work happiness. The findings of the study show that the positive culture type and climate type on the different bus ranks can be associated with positive levels of workplace happiness.

Results of this study agree with those of Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti and Hetland (2012), where the job resources showed practically and statistically significant positive relationships associated with job satisfaction. Results show that there are tangible benefits of having job resources. This is because they will result in positive individual employee outcomes, such as increased job satisfaction and more affective commitment. All of these outcomes can lead to lower turnover rate for the organization and can help to reduce costs associated with employee turnover. In addition to this in Reisel et al., (2010), job resources are associated with certain psychological costs, such as work engagement and job satisfaction, in that they give employees energy to work, to encourage commitment.

It is of importance to note that organisational climate and culture could have mediated the relationship between job resources and job satisfaction. This is because when employees

perceive their work environment as positive such perceptions will influence their work-related attitudes and behaviours. The employee attitudes will help the employees appreciate the job resources available and job satisfaction will result in organisational commitment. Results of this study confirm the unique contribution of job resources to job satisfaction, as proposed by the job demands resources scale.

In the current study, results establishing the relationship between job resources and burnout reveal that there are practically and statistically significant negative correlation coefficients. Similarly, in Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli, (2006), job resources have been found to correlate negatively with burnout. However, according to the JD-R model, scarce job resources are negatively related to burnout, because the lack of resources increases job demands and could therefore indirectly contribute to burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The JD-R model may therefore bridge the gap between occupational health management and human resources management that are traditionally concerned with job strain and motivation, respectively (Schaufeli, Bakker & Rhenen, 2009). In the context of this study, findings indicate that lower individual engagement results when the stress level is much higher and the affective well-being scores are lower. The findings of this study are consistent with those of Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie and Stough (2011), which showed that the dimensions of affective well-being inter-correlate positively, however stress burnout correlates negatively with all dimensions of affective well-being.

The present study revealed that job demands had no practically and statistically significant correlation coefficients between work engagement, job satisfaction, happiness and burnout. However results from this part of the study contrast with those of Schaufeli and Bakker



(2004) who found that job demands lead to burnout, which might impact on the work engagement of employees. Empirical evidence on the relationship of job demands to engagement, for example, has been mixed. Crawford, Rich and LePine (2010), suggested that the relationship between job demands and engagement depends on whether the demand is a challenge or a hindrance demand. Challenge demands have been found to be positively related to engagement, while hindrance demands have been found to be negatively related to engagement (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). In the current study the effect of high job demands may have been reduced by job resources such as incentives, providing feedback, social support and leader/manager guidance and support. This is backed up by the study of Xanthopoulou et al., (2007), in which job resources were seen to buffer against the negative impact of job demands.

### **6.3. ANALYSIS OF THE THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES OF THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE, USING MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS**

The second research objective of this study was to determine whether or not job demands and job resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether or not job demands and job resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout.

The overall regression on overall work engagement was significant ( $p= 0.00$ ,  $p<0.005$ ) and this indicates that job demands and resources are a strong predictor of the total work engagement. The present study is consistent with the job demands and resources scale, where

job demands and job resources are a strong predictor of work engagement (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). The practical implication of the results of the current study is that in the workplace there is need for managers to focus on enhancing the job resources, in order to increase work engagement and productivity. Results indicate that the association of work engagement should be attributed to its association with job demands and resources. A proposition of the results of this study is that job resources particularly influence motivation or work engagement when job demands are high. Similarly in Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and Konig (2010) study the job demands when high were predicted to decrease work engagement, however when they were low they did not have much impact on work engagement. Job resources are said to increase work engagement both in the presence and in the absence of job demands (DeVoe & House, 2011). This implies that job resources gain their motivational potential particularly when employees are confronted with high job demands. Results of the current study show that the job demands resources model can predict important organisational outcomes. For example, constructive feedback not only helps employees do their work more effectively, but also increases work engagement.

The overall regression in overall happiness was significant ( $p= 0.00$ ,  $p<0.005$ ) and this indicates that job demands and resources are a strong predictor of total happiness. In the current study job demands are seen to be a strong predictor of workplace happiness or flow states. Results of the study confirms the findings of Bakker et al. (2003) study where job demands and resources were found to be a strong predictor of happiness flow states in the work place. Results reflect that the reason why job demands and resources are found to be a strong predictor of happiness flow states is that job resources can act as buffers. This is because the resources in the working environment would facilitate this balance, because job

characteristics such as autonomy, performance feedback, social support and supervisory coaching can foster personal growth and the realisation of goals (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2011). The results show the importance of helping employees to be happy at work in order for job resources to act as buffers. Hence creating more resources to be shared in the workplace raises subsequent happiness. Similarly, in Schaufeli, Bakker and Rhenen (2009) study job demands and resources are found to be a strong predictor of happiness flow states. This suggests that measures of happiness (particularly positive emotions), when associated with job demands and resources, can predict long-term productivity, even if happy states are unrelated to short-term productivity.

In the current study, job demands and job resources were found to be a strong predictor of job satisfaction. The overall regression in overall job satisfaction was significant ( $p= 0.00$ ,  $p<0.005$ ) and this indicates that job demands and resources are a strong predictor of total job satisfaction. Similarly in a study by Judge and Piccolo et al., (2010), job resources were found to be a strong predictor of job satisfaction. This means that as job resources increase, the likelihood of flow will increase, presumably mitigating stress along the way. In the context of this study results show that in the workplace, individuals who have access to strong job resource pools are more likely to experience increased job satisfaction, even though job demands might be present. This positive relationship should hold until equilibrium between job demands and resources is achieved (Schaufeli, Bakker & Rhenen, 2009).

In relation to the results of this study, job resources are important for enhancing job satisfaction, which will enhance organisational citizenship and commitment among the employees. Organisational citizenship and commitment among the employees will enhance

meaningfulness, which has an impact on how individuals invest themselves in their work. Johnson (2010) found that meaningfulness is experienced when an individual feels that their contributions to the organization are value added. This suggests that in the future of the organisations, when job satisfaction is associated with job demands and resources, job satisfaction can predict long-term productivity.

In the current study, job demands and resources are seen to be a strong predictor of burnout. The overall regression in overall burnout was significant ( $p= 0.00$ ,  $p<0.005$ ) and this indicates that job demands and resources are a strong predictor of total burnout. Similarly, in Bakker and Demerouti (2007), job demands are predicted to have a direct positive relationship with burnout. That is to say, job demands will exhaust an employee's mental and physical resources, thereby increasing burnout and hindering engagement in safety activities. Results indicate that changes in job demands predict future burnout. According to the JD-R model, job demands evoke a health impairment process that exhausts employees' mental and physical resources and leads to burnout (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). In the current study results show that the burnout experienced by individuals in the workplace can be understood in relation to potential or actual loss or gain of job resources even though job demands may be present. Social support is a straightforward resource, in that it is functional in achieving work goals. Instrumental support from colleagues can help to get the work done on time and may alleviate the impact of work overload on burnout. Following the JD-R model, it has been proposed that job demands and resources would be related to burnout and engagement (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011). On balance, the results support the JD-R model and the notion of a strain process and a motivational process. Furthermore results of this study show that there is a dual pathway to employee well-being, proposed, by the JD-R model. For example, a high quality relationship

with one's supervisor may alleviate the influence of job demands (e.g. work overload, emotional and physical demands) on burnout, since leaders' appreciation and support puts demands in another perspective. Leaders' appreciation and support may also aid the worker in coping with the job demands facilitate work engagement and job performance. In turn job demands and resources act as protectors and predictors against burnout and ill-health. The JD-R model integrates the traditional negative view on employee wellbeing (burnout) with a positive view (engagement) and thus provides a more balanced approach of employee well-being (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009).

#### **6.4. DISCUSSION OF THE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VARIABLES**

The third research objective of the study was to investigate the significant differences between the demographic variables with regards to total work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall burnout, overall job resources and resources. The MANOVA was performed to test for the significant the differences (Tabachinick & Fidell, 2007).

Results indicated that the different age groups had a significant difference with regards to total work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. They all had a significant value of  $p=0.00$ , or  $p < 0.05$ . There is a consistent trend towards greater total work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness and overall job resources among older people than the younger people (Broome, Nalder, Worrall & Boldy, 2010). Similarly in Broome, Worrall, Fleming and Boldy (2012) the older people were significantly more satisfied, happy and had more job resources than among younger people.

In the context of the present study, this could explain the possible causes for many accidents in the industry. Having many young commuter omnibus drivers explains a lot of the rule breaking among the bus drivers. The fact that there are more young male bus drivers in this study could be because most bus drivers retire at an early age due to back pain. Professional drivers have been found to be at high risk for developing lower back pain. There are more young drivers in this study as a result of early retirement. Similarly Akalanka, Fujiwara, Desapriya, Peiris and Scime (2010) have suggested that back injuries occur due to ergonomic risk factors, such as awkward postural stress, repeated and forceful motions, prolonged working time in constant sitting and long-term exposure to whole body vibration, as well as psychosocial factors leading to bus drivers retiring at a very young age.

To find the significant differences of the educational level attained by the bus drivers, results indicated that the educational level attained had a significant difference on overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. They all had a significant value of  $p=0.00$  or  $p< 0.05$ . Similarly from the results in Teoh, Tan, Chong and Wool (2011), concluded that employees who have higher academic qualifications seem to have higher levels of employee well -being. In the context of this study, the 95% unemployment rate, noted by Mundi (2012), is a possible reason why even men with degrees are in this industry of driving commuter omnibuses for a living. Results of the current study, showing significant differences with regards to educational level, are valid in the Zimbabwean context. This is because the level of commitment to the job by the form four holders (a year below matric in South Africa) and drivers with degrees will be different. The degree holders will be viewing driving commuter omnibuses as a temporary job while the drivers with form four qualifications could view driving as a permanent career choice. Hence the different educational levels among the bus drivers foster differences in work engagement,

job satisfaction, happiness and even perceived burnout. Similar findings are evident in Crawford, LePine and Rich (2010), suggesting that holders of Master degree tend to enjoy higher job satisfaction and happiness compared to others who have secondary, diploma and primary degree education backgrounds.

Schell, Theorell and Saraste (2012) showed that the tenure of the bus drivers resulted in significant differences with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. In the current study, the differences in tenure explain the significant differences in work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. In terms of working experience, the results in the current study are consistent with Teoh, Tan, Chong and Wool (2011) who found that, no matter how many years' employees work for in their respective organisations, tenure influences their degrees of work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. In the current study the majority of the employees that is 37.4% of the respondents have been employed in the organisation for at least two to five years. This is mainly because the majority of the bus drivers are young so there is no way they would have worked as bus drivers for more than eleven years. This could be reflecting the current stability in the bus driving industry, since many of young people are continuing to work in the industry for a significant number of years.

Results were also consistent with those of Sandberg, Yorgason, Miller and Hill (2012), who indicated that the marital status of the bus drivers had a significant difference with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. However, in contrast to the current study no significant difference was found between marital status and employee well-being (Teoh, Tan, Chong & Wool, 2011). The

differences in work and family roles and job demands might have affected the employee well-being of the drivers differently. This is because the responsibilities that married or widowed men bear are much larger than those of single men. Even though the focus of this study is not on family work life balance, the significant differences in relation to the marital status of the bus drivers can be explained by this. The socio-economic status in the country also affects people with families, in that living expenses are high, which results in significant differences in employee well-being.

This study has no significant differences with regards to gender because all the participants were male. The findings of this study are similar to those of Sjodin, Lovisa Romanoff, Aguilar-Villalobos, Needham, Hall, Luis, Cassidy, Simpson and Naeher (2012), where all the bus drivers were male. In contrast to this, other studies had female participants (Johansson, Evans, Cedersto, Leif & Rydstedt, 2012). However, even though the other studies had female bus drivers their numbers were significantly low, which highlights a trend in the career where there are few female bus drivers. In a study that was done in Sweden, 88% of the participants were male bus drivers while the rest were females (Johansson, Evans, Cedersto, Leif & Rydstedt, 2012). In another study, males were 97.2% and females were 2.8% (Hwang, Choi, Choi, Lee, Kim, Cho and Yoon, 2012).

There are possible explanations of why the whole sample in the current study consists of the same gender or in the case of other studies, females are few in number in this career. Bus drivers' work more than the normal eight hour shift, which is a trend evident in other studies like Sjodin, Lovisa *et al.*, (2012), indicating that the average daily shift was  $13 \pm 2$  hours. The results of this study do not mean that there are no female bus drivers at all in Zimbabwe. In the ZUPCO, government-owned, buses, which are different from the private owned



commuter omnibuses, females are employed as bus drivers. This could however, be because of the Gender Equality Act in recruitment and selection. In the ZUPCO bus company the bus drivers work the normal eight-hour shift. Thus working the average daily shift of  $13 \pm 2$  hours could be a potential obstacle for women, as many hours as that since this would conflict with their family roles as women. According to traditional Zimbabwean gender roles, women's proper place is in the home and men's roles are in the workplace (Wood & Eagly, 2010). Even though strict adherence to gender roles has declined in recent decades, this could still have an impact on women, in that they will not work or be employed in what are perceived to be male jobs (Powell, 2011).

Results indicated that all the different bus ranks had a significant difference with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. Similarly in Schell, Theorell and Saraste (2012) theorised that workplace design characteristics are associated with significant differences in employee well-being and job satisfaction. In the context of this study the fact that there are significant differences in employee well-being in the different bus rank is a true reflection of individual differences in the workplace. Since the bus ranks are different the working environment are also different. For example the Charge Office bus rank is situated opposite a police station. Some random comments made by the bus drivers in the study at the rank showed that the presence of the police made the environment peaceful compared to other bus ranks.

The Copacabana bus rank was more overcrowded. In fact, at the time of the present research, there were some crime scenes that occurred in the presence of the researcher. These included theft and fights between drivers and passengers. The differences in the working environment contributed to the significant difference in the states of employee well-being. In addition to work environment, a supportive and harmonious physical environment may have influenced

employees' views of their workplaces, influencing significant differences between ranks (Schell, Theorell & Saraste, 2012). The fact that the bus ranks were different meant that the organisational cultures were different. This shows that there is the possibility of different organisational climates at the different bus ranks. As a result the differences can result in differences in perceptions and attitudes towards their work. Thus the significant differences that existed in employee well-being could be reflecting the differences in organisational cultures and climate among the bus ranks.

## **6.5. ANALYSIS OF THE QUALITATIVE PHASE OF THE STUDY**

The research objective of this study was to investigate the lived experience in terms of work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and stress/burnout, together with job demands and resources, among public transport drivers in Harare. The fifth research objective of this study was to explore the factors that contribute to the bus drivers' work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and what stresses them. In order to meet these two objectives of the study, interviews were carried out to get the perceptions and lived experiences of the bus drivers with regards to work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and stress/burnout together with job demands and resources.

### **6.5.1. Perceived work engagement among the commuter omnibus drivers**

Money was a source of motivation which enhanced work engagement, as reported by all the commuter omnibus drivers that participated in this study. This is because the bus drivers felt that each time they thought about the potential money they would earn if they were engaged they would find the energy to do the work. For example, one driver said, "*Each time I think*

*about the potential money that I can earn in a day, even if I was about to be lazy, I find all the energy to do my work. At times I even go to the extent of working in illegal places*". This is consistent with Hansez and Chmiel (2010), who found that money acted as an activate motivational process which is perceived as a job resource that is instrumental in achieving work goals. This fosters employees' growth, learning and development, satisfying the need for autonomy and competence. In turn, the motivational role that money plays increases the willingness to dedicate one's efforts and abilities to the work. According to Broad (2007), tangible incentives and money are effective in increasing performance for tasks not done before. In the present investigation, the drivers felt that since they were employed they just could not opt not to go to work. This was because they needed the money they earned from their jobs. Since the drivers were paid in the form of commission if they decided not to work hard it would backfire on them and nullify their earnings.

The clear expectations of the bus drivers by their employers encouraged them to be engaged. For example, the ninth participant said, *"I am engaged at my work because I feel that the targets I have been given by my boss motivate me to work"*. The drivers felt that the required target amount of money was a positive motivator that kept them busy and engaged in their work most of the time. Macey and Schneider (2008) argue that when leaders have clear expectations, are fair and recognize good performance they will have positive effects on employee engagement by engendering a sense of attachment to the job (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011). This shows that transformational leaders are able to bring about feelings of passion and identification with one's work. Support for this suggestion can be found in a recent study by Jiao, Richards and Zhang (2011), which suggested that transformational

leadership behaviours increase followers' motivational perceptions of goal instrumentalities, which increase their organisational citizenship behaviours.

In addition to the fact that the bus drivers get paid, they stressed that they really enjoyed their work. This was a good reason to engage in the work. Coetzer and Rothmann (2007) found that engagement includes being happily engrossed in one's work, so that time seems to pass quickly and one has difficulty in detaching oneself from work. The bus drivers were also engaged because of the commitment they had to their jobs, which made them passionate about their work. For example, the first participant said, *"I engage in my work because I am committed to being a bus driver. I enjoy being responsible since I will be dealing with human life. The thought of work make me enthusiastic and passionate in everything that I do. I am passionate about my job so that is why I have all the energy to go to work each and every morning"*. Similarly Wellins and Concelman (2005, p. 1) suggested that to be engaged is to be actively committed, as to a cause", while other research suggests that employee engagement is conceived in terms of commitment and extra-role behaviour (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008).

At times the drivers pointed out that they had to work even though they were tired. What gave them the vigour to continue working was the motivation of knowing that they would get money by working. The ninth participant said, *"I get 15 % commission for all the work I do. So sometimes I only feel tired when I arrive home. This is because if I get tired early and try to rest it means less pay at the end of the week. So that is why I just can't afford to follow my feelings because I am tired."* Research has revealed that engaged employees are highly energetic, self-efficacious individuals who exercise influence over events that affect their

lives (Bakker, 2009). Other research suggests that although engaged employees do feel tired after a long day of hard work, they describe their tiredness as a rather pleasant state, because it is associated with positive accomplishments (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011).

The older participants said that they were happy to be bus drivers because of the respect that they were shown by people. This in turn, motivated them to be engaged at work. Another motivation for driver employee engagement is having a sense of feeling valued and involved (Robinson et al., 2004). Even though the aspect of organisational climate was not the focus of this study, being valued was an aspect of organisational culture that encouraged the bus drivers to be engaged in their work. This shows that the notion of organizational climate is fundamental to the study of organizations and is widely regarded as an important determinant of attitudinal, behavioural and performance-related outcomes and work engagement (van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte & Lens, 2008). As a result of a good organisational climate, engaged employees create their own positive feedback, in terms of appreciation, recognition and success.

Finding purpose in their jobs made the bus drivers engaged in their work. The bus drivers chose to engage in their work because they had responsibility. Similarly Macey et al., (2009) defined engagement as –an individual’s sense of purpose and focused energy, evident to others in the display of personal initiative, adaptability, effort, and persistence directed toward organisational goals” (p. 7). One bus driver said, “*The training that we get as drivers such as test retest is good sometimes it revives me on the purpose of my job.*” This confirms Riordan, Vandenberg and Richardson (2005) who note that an employee involvement climate

involved participation, information sharing and training. Rewards lead to high-involvement work practices. In most organizations, performance and work engagement of the employees is a result of the combined effort of individual employees (Roche & Rolley, 2011).

A supportive work environment increased work engagement among the drivers, since they would have the energy to work. This shows that the drivers appreciated how their employers and co-workers were very friendly to them. The fifth participant said, “*My boss is very understanding at times when he sees that I have overworked he even gives me some days off to recover. This in turn makes me engage in my work because I will be having energy*”. Such a good working environment gave the bus drivers the energy to engage in their work. This is consistent with research done by Bakker et al., (2011) explain that social support (the extent to which a job provides opportunities for assistance and advice from supervisors or co-workers) is a social characteristic probably associated with engagement. Thus social characteristics motivate workers to engage by creating meaningfulness, resilience and security. However, as the literature in engagement has developed, suggestions have emerged that engagement may have a dark side Bakker et al., (2011, p. 17) acknowledge this “dark side” of engagement. In the current study some of the drivers mentioned working in illegal places, to get as much money as they could. Some drivers reported that they did not go to the *Mushikashika* since they had many bad experiences of being caught by the police. It was thus not worth it, after all, to go to the *Mushikashika*. This shows that negative experiences at work, such as an accident or experiencing harassment, have a negative impact on employee work engagement. Cooper, Heron and Heward (2007) state that negative reinforcement has an impact on employee work engagement, in that it decreases work engagement, however positive reinforcement increases work engagement.

### 6.5.2. Perceived happiness among the commuter omnibus drivers

During the interviews most commuter omnibus drivers said that for them, happiness was their having frequent positive states of mind. This is consistent with the definition of happiness at work by Fisher (2010, p. 385), who refers to happiness at work as pleasant judgments (positive attitudes) or pleasant experiences (positive feelings, moods, emotions, flow-states) at work. The bus drivers felt that that since driving buses was their career they would be doing an injustice if they didn't enjoy their job. Lu and Gilmour (2004) found that happiness, in the form of joy, appears in every typology of "basic" human emotions.

Roche and Rolley (2011) reported that a major factor in what made drivers happy was the positive attitudes they had towards their jobs. One of the bus drivers said that, *"I have learned to view both negative and positive experiences in a positive manner."* When interacting with different people, positive attitudes had an impact on employee happiness. Four of the bus drivers indicated that they had learned from their work experience that since they could not change the behaviour of the people around them, it was their duty to rather change the way and manner in which they reacted to these people. In the present study, having positive attitudes was a key to bus driver happiness in the workplace. Positive attitudes influenced the bus drivers, in that they would focus more on the positive aspects of their work and not dwell on the negative. In contrast to the experiences they had with the passengers, some of the commuter omnibus drivers were happy that the people in their work places appreciated them. Being appreciated had a positive impact on the attitudes of bus drivers towards their work. In relation to the Job Demands Resources model, being

appreciated was a social support job resource that enhanced the bus drivers to find opportunities for professional development associated positively with work-related flow states, which, in turn improved workplace happiness (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). This led to intrinsic satisfaction which enhanced the workplace happiness of the bus drivers.

The drivers acknowledged, however that there will always be some people who do not appreciate any good or what another person does. The bus drivers emphasised how they thought that their personality played a big role in their having a positive attitude, leading to happiness in their job. Even though personality was not an attribute measured in this study it is of importance to consider the role that personality has on attitudes in the workplace. Thus in the context of this study personality is considered as another possible contributor towards the attitudes of the bus drivers. Research on twins suggests that up to 50% of the variance in subjective well-being and personality is genetically determined (Weiss, Bates & Luciano, 2008). In the present study some commuter omnibus drivers felt that their individual communication skills and personality, as it stood, had more effect on their public relations skills as a driver.

An attribute that was not measured in this study but is of importance is that of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is another possible contributor that explained the attitudes leading to workplace happiness among the bus drivers. The drivers reported that the nature of their work required them to communicate with different people. As a result the bus drivers had to learn to communicate in an appropriate manner. They felt they now had experience on what to say and how to say it. This is consistent with Saadi, Honarmand, Najarian, Ahadi and Askari (2012) study suggesting that emotional intelligence becomes a tool that enables one to know when to express, when not to express and how to express those



feelings. This shows how drivers felt emotional intelligence played a role in what the drivers did to have good in communication skills, which had a positive impact on bus driver happiness.

In addition to being appreciated by everyone around them, that is the passengers, co-workers and their bosses, the older bus drivers were happy that they were respected almost by everyone. One driver felt that since he was middle-aged, everyone felt comfortable working with him. At the organizational level, one might consider attributes of the organization's culture and human resources practices as likely causes of happiness among the members of the organisation. The older, middle-aged participants reported that they were happy to be bus drivers because of the respect that they received from people as a result of their age. This is because passengers felt that the older bus drivers were less reckless than the younger bus drivers. Sirota, Mischkind and Meltzer (2005) agree that a critical component in producing a happy and enthusiastic workforce is equity, which is the respectful and dignified treatment, fairness and security that the workers get at their workplace.

Even though the younger drivers felt that they enjoyed their jobs, they did not focus on the issue of respect but rather the issue of working in harmony with the people around them. The experience of respect by the older drivers and the feeling of harmony by the younger drivers was investigated by Lu and Gilmour (2004), who list some categories of sources of happiness, namely gratification of need for respect and harmony of interpersonal relationships. The bus drivers pointed out that even though they were happy it did not mean that they did not experience negative events. Their comments show how emotional

intelligence played a role in the bus driver workplace happiness. Behaviour that led to happiness as a result of emotional intelligence is evident in a comment by one bus driver:

*“I have learned to view both negative and positive experiences in a positive manner. For instance when the passengers are rude I take as an opportunity to be polite, not to say that I am super human who does not get hurt. It’s just I have learnt to view passengers as people passing by on my job of which I have learned to appreciate that without them I have no income. In life in general events don’t always happen in the manner in which I want however I focus more on what I will benefit from working rather than experiences.”*

In the current study the drivers’ value laughing with colleagues because it makes them relaxed and release as stress. As the work day passes, it is expected that work related stress will start to dissipate. One driver said that, *“..... you know when communicating with passengers I am used to joking around and being like enthusiastic and like friendly. ....In summary I really enjoy my job.”* Therefore the use of humour seems to provide participants with an effective stress coping strategy which leads to increased happiness. It seems that when co-workers are able to share a laugh with one another, they are reminded not to take things too seriously and this humour then acts as a source of entertainment for the drivers (Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005). In the case of the bus driver, laughter reduced the feeling of job strain and increased workplace happiness among the bus drivers. This enhanced an organisational climate, where the laughter was a psychological job resource which helped the individual drivers to be happy at work by managing work and life balance (Perry, Rubino & Witt, 2011).

The young bus drivers indicated how they were happy each time they got an opportunity to help someone. Helping people can be said to have acted as an intrinsic aspect of their work that led the bus drivers to be happy. One bus driver said, *–at times four people come with ten rand which is the fare for two people and negotiate to be driven. Even though I take the people at my own expense it makes me happy because I have helped someone.*” The theme of helping other people was indicated by many of the bus drivers as a source of happiness at their workplace. Helping people among the bus drivers included giving people directions where to go, helping old people and giving people discounts or even free rides to people in need, like when it was raining.

What is rewarding about being a driver is probably the confidence gained from leading a group of people. Being a commuter omnibus driver enabled the bus drivers to enhance their personalities with regards to time management. All these benefits that accompanied being a bus driver led to happiness which is consistent to Weiss, Bates and Luciano (2008) showed evidence that a positive affect comes from perceptions of progress toward the idiosyncratic goals one has set and from employing one’s unique constellation of personal strengths. The drivers would always find new and interesting aspects about their job. As a result of driving commuter omnibuses the bus drivers appreciated having learnt a lot about being polite.

The commuter omnibus drivers said that they did not focus on their work only, but rather had other sources that made them happy. Even though the aspect of organisational culture is not the focus of this study the results of the study imply that the bus drivers have an organisational culture of socialising to be happy at work. These cultures include spending

time socialising with others and engaging in physical activity, in order to take their minds off work and its accompanying stressors. Most of the time during the day, when the drivers had nothing to do, while list waiting in the queue, they would chat with colleagues. This made them to forget about all the negative things that were happening at a particular time. Thus the work environment played a role in the happiness of the bus drivers. This is consistent with Kesebir and Diener (2008) study suggesting that once basic human needs are met, objective life circumstances account for a modest 8-15% of the variance in subjective well-being.

The commuter omnibus drivers emphasised that they made efforts to be happy by engaging in social activities during work during the times they were not busy and during the times they were waiting in the queue, such as from eight to eleven o'clock. They would talk about life and encourage one another concerning even family related issues. Lochan (2008) found that coping strategies varied from participant to participant, but they often involve some form of pastime that is personally enjoyable or rewarding to the individual. Some drivers indicated that they did not just socialise with co-workers but they would also spend their free time socializing with other people on Facebook. One bus driver said, *–So far I haven't made many friends at my work place. So even if I talk to my colleagues I always find time to chat with my friends on Facebook. I like my job because I have Facebook to keep me cheered up at work.*” Comments made by some bus drivers, on how to occupy themselves with Facebook to be happy, shows current trend in the workplace where workers occupy themselves with Facebook to keep up their spirits.

In Visser et al., (2003) study, bus drivers made an effort to be happy by reducing stress through adapting to stress coping strategies as a way of maintaining happiness. Similar to previous studies in the current study another social activity engaged in by the bus drivers in order to be happy included taking drugs. This finding supports the idea that the use of alcohol, as a form of coping, helps in some way to manage the psychological effects of strain and thus increases happiness (Bultmann, De Vries, Beurskens, Bleijenberg, Vercoulen and Kant, 2000). The difference between the current study and that by Issever, Onen, Sabuncu and Altunkaynak (2002) is that the bus drivers did not go to a bar during the day, but rather they drank at work. In the current study, some of the commuter omnibus drivers mentioned that they did not take drugs to make themselves happy. Hence the stress coping strategies to increase workplace happiness vary from participant to participant (Lochan, 2008).

In other instances, some of the drivers mentioned how they at times worked overtime which was a potential stressor itself. What made these drivers able to manage fatigue was the fact that instead of socialising during their free hours they would take some time to sleep. Similarly, in previous studies, drivers highlighted how they were happy at their work as a result of the stress and fatigue coping strategies they had at their work. Crawford et al., (2010) said that if the organisational climate was good, it acted as a job resource that led to workplace happiness among bus drivers. This is because the bus drivers managed to increase flow states by overcoming stressful job demands through socializing, drug taking and enjoying the workplace environment and the benefits associated with the job, which increased workplace happiness. This is consistent with another of the basic premise of the JD-R model, where supportive environment is considered to be a job resource that enhances employee well-being or workplace happiness (Brown et al., 2008).

### 6.5.3. Perceived Job satisfaction among the bus drivers

The bus drivers felt that a much of their work satisfaction was due to the money. This is consistent with Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and Konig (2010) showed that much of the job satisfaction of the bus drivers was a result of extrinsic satisfaction. Financial rewards do have a significant impact on job satisfaction (Ay & Avaro lu, 2010). Such findings are largely in agreement with the idea that most employees are socialized in a society where money, benefits, and security are generally sought after and are often used to gage the importance or the worth of a person (Dadish & Usman, 2010). The present study shows that the greater the financial reward, the less worry employees have concerning their financial state, thereby enhancing their impression of their self-worth to the organisation. Salaries not only help people to attain their basic needs, but are also instrumental in satisfying the higher level needs of people (Brown et al., 2008). The present study has shown that the level of earnings is substantial and has a positive effect on job satisfaction. This argument is supported by DeVoe and House (2011), who stress that pay is one of the most important factors influencing workers' level of job satisfaction.

When the drivers compared their salaries to others they felt satisfied. One driver said, *“I don't think the money is too bad compared to other jobs in Zimbabwe. At the current moment we actually get paid better salaries than some well-educated people. This is quite good!”*

Several other authors maintain that the key in linking pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount that is paid, but rather the perception of fairness (Brown et al., 2008) Similarly Buitendach and De Witte (2005) proffer the view that job satisfaction relates to an individual's perceptions and evaluations of a job, and this perception is in turn influenced by

their circumstances, including needs, values and expectations. One bus driver indicated that he felt satisfied with his job, because before he was employed he had certain expectations about the job which were met. Previous research on immigrant adaptation has suggested that positive and accurate expectations are associated with better post-migration adaptation outcomes (Mahonen, Leinonen & Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2012). According to Robbins et al., (2003), employees seek pay systems that are perceived as just, unambiguous, and in line with their expectations. Thus when pay is perceived as equitable and is commensurate with job demands, individual skill level and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to be the result.

In relation to their salaries the bus drivers indicated that they were satisfied with their pay, even though their commission ranged from 10% to 15%. This is because the drivers did not compare themselves with other drivers but with other professionals in the country. One driver said, *“I am happy to be a bus driver now because I am getting a better salary than when I was working as an administrator. This is because I earned two hundred dollars and yet now I earn up to \$US500 or more per month.”* All of the drivers said that, even though some people made sarcastic comments about their, job they did not bother because they knew that they had other sources of income. This shows that the attitude of comparing their salaries with those of others made these drivers satisfied with their jobs. A recent study confirmed the positive impact of remuneration on employee well-being (Brown et al., 2008).

Other than the official incomes they earned, the bus drivers had other possibilities of earning more money on their jobs. As a result the drivers were satisfied with their jobs (Randolph 2005). For example one of the bus drivers indicated that since he had worked for many years

in the industry he now had many connections some from his church and others from passengers. He said, *“A significant number of people hire me to work for them during weddings and funerals. This automatically increases the amount of money I get during the weekends. Even though this does not happen every weekend I really appreciate such times when I am hired.”* As a result some of the bus drivers did not only rely on the money from the trips in town. For others, their employers gave them a target amount, ranging between \$80-to-\$100 per day. All the extra money these workers then got after meeting the target they would keep for themselves.

In terms of the working environment, the commuter omnibus drivers appreciated how their co-workers were very friendly to them. The drivers were also happy with their working environment since they had social support structures where they would lend or give each other money in the event of death or illness. Similarly Chiboiwa et al., (2011) lists some of the important job satisfaction factors as those that have more to do with interpersonal relationships, atmosphere in the organisation and a sense of personal achievement. Making use of opportunities to help someone was another source of intrinsic satisfaction among the bus drivers. One of the drivers said, *“I like especially the part when I get the opportunity to help people. It makes me feel like a good person.”* The bus drivers felt that they always liked to help people, so that is why they had pleasant experiences in helping passengers. This made the drivers feel happy and satisfied. This confirms findings in Buitendach and De Witte (2005) study who found that intrinsic satisfaction was associated with job satisfaction.



#### **6.5.4. Perceived stress burnout among the bus drivers**

All the commuter omnibus drivers indicated that the police were a major source of stress, because of the way they patrolled in the towns. Similarly in Machin and Hoare (2008) reported that drivers often experienced symptoms of driver stress, such as worry, irritation and anxiety that they might be given a ticket by the police. During the Christmas season, the police were reported to be a major source of stress, to the extent that bus drivers sometimes played cat and mouse with the police. This is consistent with Biggs, Dingsdag and Stenson (2009) study who reported that stress and fatigue among the metropolitan drivers was a result of the ‘policing’ of ticketing.

In the present study the stress from the police ticketing resulted in bus drivers prioritizing income more than the safety of passengers. The bus drivers admitted that their reckless behaviours‘ when they were driving was not good behaviour. Rowland, Wishart and Freeman (2007) found that issues to do with police ticketing are said to also impact on driver safety, if, for example, workers feel as though they need to commit traffic offences such as speeding or close following, in order to meet task demands such as making scheduled appointments on time. At the time of the present research, a significant number of commuter omnibus accidents happened of which the drivers were aware. Instead of viewing the accidents by other fellow drivers as a warning not to value money over people, the bus drivers still felt that everyone else around them did not understand why they behaved the way they did. This confirms findings in Hartley, Penna, Corry and Feyer (2000), where income was found to be inversely related to motor vehicle incidents, suggesting that financial situations may play a role in driver stress. According to JD-R model, job demands influence workplace safety and

job demands relate to safety outcomes such as accidents and injuries, adverse events and unsafe behaviour (Rich et al., 2010).

In contrast to the current work, in a study done in China safety was a key issue among bus drivers. This was because of the Economic-Driving Assistance Program for Transit Vehicles (EDTV), in which the connected vehicle technologies allow vehicles to transmit a much broader range of information to controllers, such as real time vehicle locations, bus schedule deviations and speeds. The control parameters can be transmitted back to buses (Wanjing, Hanzhou & Baoxin, 2012).

Another factor that stressed the bus drivers in the current study and in that of Tse, Flin, & Mearns (2007) occurs when aspects of the road environment, for example road works and passengers, appeared to surround them. The bus drivers are aware of their obligation to provide safe and efficient transport, but may feel that their performance is being constantly monitored by passengers, causing them to place undue pressure on themselves to perform (Damijan & Uhrynski, 2010). Biggs, Dingsdag and Stenson (2009) nominated driver interactions with passengers as a factor affecting fatigue. The three major interactions that featured were conventional passenger demands (such as requests for directions), aggressive passenger behaviour (such as verbal or physical aggression) and perceptions of constant passenger vigilance of driver performance, notwithstanding that these might be imagined to some extent and/or exaggerated (Morrow & Crum, 2004). A major difference from that of the previous studies, such as that of Morrow and Crum (2004), is that even though bus drivers in the current study reported to be stressed they had learned ways to overcome such stressors.

What made them overcome these stressors were the positive attitudes they had towards their jobs.

One of the stress factors among bus drivers in the study of Novaco and Gonzalez (2008) was weather related stress (e.g. heavy rain, snow). In Zimbabwe there is no snow and the bad weather reported by these authors is not prevalent. The only problem was when there were heavy rains because this would increase the number and size of the potholes in the roads. Hill and Boyle (2007) explored how different tasks and roadway conditions influence the amount of stress perceived by drivers. Other commuter omnibus drivers felt that bad weather such as rain was good for their job. Bad weather viewed as a stressor was in some cases seen as an advantage. For example, some of the bus drivers admitted how they would charge double the amount of the commuter omnibus fares. One of the bus drivers said, *“I know that what we do is bad because we take advantage of desperate people wanting to go home. It’s only that we want the money.”* This enabled them to take the extra money after the target money had been met. Another driver even emphasized this point by saying. *“It’s good for us because we get profit. During the weekends we at times charge double the amount to compensate our time we could be resting. After all there will be few commuter omnibus patrolling so we in turn get more profit”*.

The commuter omnibuses that some of the drivers used were not in good condition. Thus the condition of the vehicle was a potential stressor. Damijan and Uhrynski (2010) among others reported that, driving gear, suspension and driving conditions, rolling resistance, type of surface, temperature, humidity and wind were a source of stress among bus drivers. Drivers also identified the inadequacy of thermostatic control in the driver’s cabin, as well as

neck, back and shoulder pain generated from seating affecting fatigue levels. Similar to other studies, the other occupational factors that stressed the drivers included ergonomic problems (e.g. adjusting the seat, back support, vibration, and rocking or bouncing of seat) (Cunradi, Chen & Lipton, 2009). In this study results imply that, when there is a perceived imbalance between an individual's perceptions of the demands made by the environment, the result is stress and burnout. This is because the individual's perceived ability and motivation to cope with those demands results in stress, which has the potential to affect the work engagement of the individual. Similar results were found in a study by Biggs, Dingsdag and Stenson (2009), where other fatigue factors were implicated, such as that of cabin ergonomics, despite considerable variation across depots as to which design features were responsible.

In the current study the participants experienced fatigue which is a feeling of tiredness and reduced alertness that is associated with drowsiness and impairs both capability and willingness to perform a task which is also similar to Craig, Tran, Wijesuriya and Boord (2006) study. Even though in the current study the bus drivers experienced fatigue it did not affect the manner in which they worked that much, since they would take some rest during the day. Such studies have shown that lack of sleep, low sleep quality or excessive daytime sleepiness are significant predictors of driver fatigue, as well as fatigue-related crashes (Van den Berg & Landstrom, 2006). Drivers reported that managerial support was important, both in reducing the amount of stress experienced and carried by drivers following negative job episodes and in predicting the likelihood that a driver would feel comfortable taking steps to prevent driving fatigue (Biggs, Dingsdag & Stenson, 2009). In the context of this study it can be suggested that the practice of routinely dealing with unpredictable, heavy traffic represents a chronic stressor that is likely to manifest itself through accumulated fatigue effects.

Peak hours are another source of burnout, fatigue and frustration among the commuter omnibus drivers. During traffic congestion, work engagement was characterized by slower speeds, longer trip times and increased queuing (Annudi, Ran Kecklund, Peters & Kerstedt, 2008). This congestion would mean that the bus drivers were under pressure to complete job quotas, meet daily sales targets, or have similar work pressures that require them to drive between work locations. Slow traffic conditions increased stress, which might have increased the potential for aggressive and erratic driving. Traffic congestion due to rush hours, crashes or other situations is frequently experienced and may be interpreted as stressful by many occupational drivers (Rowland, Davey, Wishart & Freeman, 2007). Greater traffic congestion and time pressures predicted aggression, irritability, frustration and negative mood. One of the bus drivers said: *“I hate peak hours because I tend to do my job in a slow manner... It bothers me more when I see a police road broke during such times. This is because any delay by 30 minutes at such times could mean a potential trip that is lot meaning that I get less money for the day.”* Research has found that 50% of a sample of UK highway drivers reported traffic jams to be an irritation, even if they were not in a hurry (Salminen & Lahdenniemi, 2002). Another challenge during peak hours in this Zimbabwean study was that during electricity load-shedding hours the traffic lights would not be working. This affected the manner in which the bus drivers worked. During peak hours stress resulting from interactions with other drivers occurred. For example, driving behind a vehicle that is constantly braking was a stressor due to the near-miss accidents that occurred.

Some of the bus drivers found peak hours to be interesting, because they focus on a different aspect of peak hour. This is because they made use of the times it was not busy to rest so that they would be full of energy during the peak hours. It is not surprising that one of the drivers said, *“Interestingly I rarely get tired on my work this is because during the day I have time to*

*rest each time I will be on the cue waiting for my vehicle to be loaded with people. During peak hours it's about thirty minutes before loading my vehicles, however if it's not a peak hour at times it takes about three to four hours before loading my vehicle.*" This finding contradicts Rowland, Davey, Wishart and Freeman (2007), who reported that commuters who experience high traffic congestion have higher stress levels.

#### **6.5.5. Perceived job demands and resources among the bus drivers**

Incentives such as money and wages earned, was one of the job resources that impacted the bus drivers' work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. Previous studies such as that of Bakker and Leiter (2010), have consistently shown that job resources and personal resources such as money facilitate work engagement. Money played an extrinsic motivational role, which fostered the willingness to be dedicated to one's work among the bus drivers. This is evident in one of the participants, who said, *"Even though there are other job resources that motivate me to be engaged, happy and satisfied with my job. For me money is the key resource that makes me want to work. Each time I think about the potential money I might earn I feel energy in my bones. When I meet the target of the day it makes me happy and satisfied"*. Similarly, in McLachlan and Hagger (2010) study, incentives, rewards and recognitions are the prime job resources that impact on employee motivation and work engagement. In the present study money acts as a job resource that buffers the effect of job demands experienced in the workplace. Money is considered to be one of the job resources that led to happiness among the bus drivers. This is consistent with Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and Konig (2010) reported that where remuneration is included in the JD-R model as

a job resource, it is seen to give employees positive feelings, moods, emotions, and flow states at work and is associated with workplace happiness.

The bus drivers highlighted how organisational and social support structures enhanced their job engagement. They felt that their working environment was good and this was a job resource that enhanced that work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. Even though organisational climate and culture is not the focus of the present study, it is of importance to consider their role in this study. For instance, results show that the work environment the bus drivers had was one in which the organisational culture and climate enhanced work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction, in turn buffering the effect of job demands and burnout. Thus even though job demands were there this was all overcome by the job resources the commuter omnibus drivers had. This is consistent with Xanthopoulou et al., (2007) who indicated that job resources were seen to buffer against the negative impact of job demands. Thus the JD–R model suggests that demands and resources determine how much strain is experienced by employees (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). The bus drivers were happy and satisfied in their workplace, since the job resources had a positive impact on their state of happiness and job satisfaction. The bus drivers reduced physiological and psychological job demands as a result of their job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001).

The bus drivers had social support structures, which they viewed as a job resource. For example, the bus drivers would lend or give each other money in the event of death or illness. In a study by Crawford et al., (2010) other job resources included a supportive environment, which can be further delineated in terms of the source of the support. For example they had social support structures in which every driver would contribute a dollar to assist the driver in

need at a particular point in time, such as supporting one another for a funeral. Participant nine highlighted how he had benefitted from the support structures: *“I don’t know how I would have managed to cope when my mother died. Since I am the bread winner in my family it was my responsibility to pay most of the funeral expenses. I thank God for my co-workers who helped me with approximately \$200 for the funeral, it made a difference. Such a good supportive work environment is a job resource that helps us in times of need.”* This is consistent with Bakker, Wilmar and Schaufeli (2008) who perceived work engagement as a set of job resources such as support and recognition from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, opportunities for learning and development and opportunities for skill use. Employees may also receive social support, which includes the degree of advice and assistance from others and support regarding every aspect at work and outside work.

Training for the job and on-the-job training programmes’ were reported as a job resource that enhanced work engagement and happiness. The bus drivers felt that the coaching and training they received on the jobs helped them to have good public relations. Even though emotional intelligence is not an aspect focused on in this study. It is still of importance to consider, the role of emotional intelligence in good public relations which the bus drivers had. Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EQ) is defined as a set of competencies demonstrating the ability one has to recognize his or her behaviours, moods and impulses, and to manage them best according to the situation (Saadi, Honarmand, Najarian, Ahadi & Askari, 2012). In the context of this study emotional intelligence enhanced the capacity of the drivers to focus more on the purpose of their job, rather than on the rest of the negative work environmental factors. The fifth participant said, *“Dealing with people at our work can be hard but I was coached by my boss that people come and go hence I should not dwell on what they say or*



*do. Rather I should focus on doing my duties with all my heart. It helps me know and choose what to say, how to say it and when to say it and interacting with passengers for example”.*

In addition to the good co-workers the bus drivers felt that the respect and appreciation they got from the passengers and employers was a job resource that enhanced work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. Participant three said, *“I am grateful that I am a bus driver people respect us because our job involves working with human life. Furthermore each time I work very hard my boss appreciates what I would have done. This is indeed a job resource that makes me to be engaged, happy and satisfied on my job”*. Time to rest was another job resource that enabled the bus drivers to always have new energy to work more even during odd hours. In the context of this study being appreciated and working in harmony was an environmental job resource that reduced the impact of job demands and challenging organizational aspects of the job, in that the bus drivers were stimulated to be happy. Similarly in the study by Bakker and Demerouti (2007), positive experiences such as being appreciated and working in harmony with other co-workers was an environmental job resource that reduced the perception of many negative factors in the work environment.

Even though organisational climate and culture is not part of this study, their role on the perception of job demands and resources in this study is of importance. For instance, a good and peaceful organisational climate and culture was another job resource that enhanced work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. Eisenberger, Jones, Stinglhamber, Shanock and Randall (2005) showed that job resources were shown to positively influence happiness flow states in the work place. The organisational climate was one in which the workers could work in harmony with one another. They would even find time to socialise during breaks and on

their free time. Similarly previous research on the JD-R model has consistently classified supervisor support (i.e. leadership), social support, and workplace climate as job resources (Crawford et al., 2010). Participant eight added, *“The other drivers and people that work on the bus rank are like family we have time to socialize and interact even when we don’t agree we always have a way to resolve the conflict in harmony. This has been a key to my work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction on my career”*. In Crawford et al., (2010), social support structures and the organisational climate were good and acted as job resources that led to job satisfaction. This is consistent with the JD–R model which suggests that demands and resources determine how much strain is experienced by employees (Demerouti et al., 2001).

In the current study, in spite of the stressors, bus drivers engaged and performed their work, because they knew that at the end of the month they would still earn their pay. This shows that job resources are assumed to play an extrinsic motivational role, because resourceful work environments foster the willingness to dedicate one’s efforts and abilities to the work task. Ali, and Ahmed, (2009) said that money acts as an extrinsic motivator which is the external forces that drive the bus drivers to engage in their work. Results show that job resources become salient and gain their motivational potential when employees are confronted with high job demands.

Results of the present study show that drivers are pressured to be engaged most of the time. In relation to the JD-R model, pressure to meet the required target amount of money by the employers was a job demand which contained environment stimuli that led the bus drivers to

be engaged most of the time. This is consistent with Bakker, Veldhoven and Xanthopoulou (2010) who proposed job demands operate via cognitive – energetic effort-based processes. For example the second participant said, *“Since I have to meet a required amount of money by my employer this gives me pressure to meet the target required amount of money by the employees and hence I am always pressurized to be engaged most of the time. I feel that even though this is somehow a demanding challenge on the other hand it was a positive motivator that keeps me busy with their work.”* The comments by the bus drivers show that what initially seemed to be a stressor resulted in the commuter omnibus drivers increasing in their work engagement. This concurs with the finding that stress at low levels can enhance work engagement (Bakker, Veldhoven & Xanthopoulou, 2010). Employees therefore tend to perceive these demands as opportunities to learn, achieve and demonstrate the type of competence that tends to get rewarded (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009). The results of the present study results imply that the job demands experienced were in the form of challenge demands and hence they acted as motivators and not inhibitors of work engagement.

The bus drivers felt that even though targets by employers were a demanding challenge, it was also a positive motivator that kept them busy. The bus drivers felt that having challenge demands was an interesting aspect since they found purpose in their work each day. One driver was afraid to lose his job because of the target money he had to meet. Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw and Rich (2010) give examples of job demands which include high work pressure, an unfavourable physical environment and emotionally demanding interactions. In addition to this Crawford, LePine and Rich (2010) suggested that an employee who receives support, inspiration and quality coaching from the supervisor is likely to experience work as

more challenging, involving, and satisfying and, consequently, to become highly engaged with the job tasks. This study indicates that although job demands are sometimes negative in some cases they enhance work engagement rather than decrease it.

Research has shown that perceiving opportunity and meaning in the face of stressful demands predicts individuals deriving benefits from coping with those demands (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). In the current study the demands of the workload the bus drivers experienced made the bus drivers to be more responsible and also improve in terms of time management. The fourth participant said, *“Even though sometimes the workload is demanding, definitely the workload I had to be more responsible also in terms of time management also you get to realize that you are kind of a role model. So that is not what you are supposed to do cause you have to realise your responsibility of arriving on time and being prompt and I think that is quite an important thing of taking on that responsibility.”*

#### **6.6. Concluding remarks on the quantitative and qualitative phase of the study**

Results of the current study in both the quantitative and qualitative part of the study, job resources particularly influence work engagement. The effect of high job demands may have been reduced by job resources such as incentives, providing feedback, social support and leader/manager guidance and support. Even though burnout existed among the bus drivers, it was a motivator and not a hindrance of work engagement. In terms of practical implications, results in the two phases emphasise the importance of providing good job resources to employees, to enhance work engagement happiness and job satisfaction. Results of the current study in the two phases show that, the bus drivers were engaged, happy and satisfied

with their jobs. An explanation to this was the work environment the bus drivers had, where organisational culture and climate enhanced work engagement and positive employee well-being, buffering the effect of job demands and burnout. Thus, even though job demands were there this was all overcome by the job resources the commuter omnibus drivers had. Results show that there are tangible benefits of having job resources in that they result in positive individual employee outcomes, such as increased job satisfaction and more affective commitment. Positive attitudes enabled bus drivers to be engaged, happy and satisfied with their jobs when interacting with passengers.

## **6.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY**

It can be concluded that it is important for bus drivers to have sufficient job resources available in their work in order to increase positive aspects of employee well-being in the workplace, such as work happiness, job satisfaction and work engagement. Incentives such as pay, autonomy, social support from colleagues, supervisory coaching and performance feedback are examples of such resources, but one could also consider skill variety, possibilities for self-growth, participation in decision-making, and high-quality communication. Since job demands and resources were found to predict work engagement, job satisfaction, work happiness/flow states and burnout, these findings illustrate the importance of our study for organisations. This is because the results show that in order to increase engagement, happiness and job satisfaction reducing the exposure to job demands is not the best option; instead, the motivating potential of job resources should be exploited. Resources are not only necessary to deal with job demands, but they are important in their own right, because they increase work engagement, job satisfaction and work happiness when exposed at certain levels. In contrast, the lack of organisational resources has a detrimental

effect, not only on employee burnout, but also on employee motivation to engage and perform, since it precludes actual goal accomplishment. In addition, providing job resources would set in motion a gain cycle that is not only likely to result in higher levels of engagement, but also to increase job resources.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **CONCLUSION**

#### **7.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the conclusions drawn from the results of the study. The chapter is divided into six sections, excluding the introduction and the conclusion. The first section is an overview of the synopsis followed by a section on the theoretical objectives. The third section is on the empirical objectives. The fourth section covers the limitations of the study. The fifth section is on the contribution made by this study to existing knowledge. This is followed by a section on the recommendations made in this study in terms of future research and organisational policies. Lastly is the summary of this concluding chapter.

#### **7.2. SYNOPSIS**

The dissertation is comprised of seven chapters. The first chapter discusses the research context, background and rationale for the study. Chapter two presents an overview of the literature relevant to the research question and topic. Discussion of positive and negative aspects of employee well-being is done in this chapter. Previous research on bus drivers is highlighted as well. Research gaps are identified in the literature review, as evidenced by the few available studies that consist of both negative and positive aspects of employee wellbeing. The job demands and resources model has been adopted as the theoretical framework (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). Job demands were not necessarily negative, since research showed that when they are exposed at certain levels they actually yield some positive results such as increased job engagement and productivity in the workplace.

However, in cases where job demands existed, the possible coping skills of the workers resulted in burnout.

Research showed that the negative impact of the job demands was overcome by the presence of job resources in the workplace (Kord, 2012). Job resources such as pay, organisational and social support in the workplace contribute to workers' display of positive aspects of employee well-being such as happiness, job satisfaction and work engagement, in spite of the challenges the employee experiences. Chapter three consists of a brief description and defence of the research paradigm for the study. The study adopts the positivist research paradigm (Leech, Dellinger, Brayan & Tanaka, 2010). This study entailed a mixed method approach to research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The advantage of using the mixed method is that the limitations of the quantitative research design are overcome by the use of qualitative research. This allows better understanding of the perceptions, views and lived experiences of the bus drivers as well as the organisational and wider contexts in which they work, notwithstanding the disadvantages of using qualitative research (Cameron, 2011). The quantitative method was a cross sectional studies carried out at one time over a short period of time (Levin, 2006, p.24). An explanation of how the research participants were selected was presented, followed by a discussion on the data gathering tools and the data analysis. Lastly the ethical implications of the study were highlighted also noting the issues of generalisation, credibility, reliability and validity of the study.

Chapter four consists of the research findings of the quantitative phase of the study. The quantitative phase of the research is presented in this chapter. Some of the findings are illustrated using tables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). On the quantitative phase of the research



the results show that the bus drivers are highly engaged, highly satisfied and very happy. However, the job burnout and job demands are moderate. There are significant differences on the variables of employee wellbeing with regard to the demographic variables. The results between the employee well-being variables show correlations which are practically significant with a range between medium effect when  $r \geq 0.30$  and large effect, when  $r \geq 0.50$  (Pallant, 2010, p.134).

Chapter five highlighted the research findings in the qualitative phase of the study. The results from the interviews showed that even though the bus drivers say that they are happy it does not mean that they do not experience negative events in the workplace.

Chapter six is a discussion of the research findings, mostly in relation to the literature review and the theoretical framework. There are some similarities and a few differences of the results of the current study and those of the previous studies. This concluding chapter is a summary of the research project, a reflection on the study and process as a whole, a record of the strength and limitations of the research project, research implications, recommendation and the concluding remarks of the research project.

### **7.3. CONCLUSIONS REGARDING SPECIFIC THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES**

In terms of specific theoretical objectives the following conclusions were made:

**Work engagement** is conceptualised from the literature as a set of motivating resources, in terms of commitment and as a positive, fulfilling affective motivational state of work-related well-being (Rich, Le-Pine & Crawford, 2010). For the purpose of this study work engagement is viewed as a positive fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized

by vigour, dedication and absorption. Work engagement is shown as a positive aspect of positive psychology. Consequences of work engagement lead to extra role behaviour and motivation in the work place. This gives the organisation a competitive advantage in terms of performance and commitment by the workers (Ching-Fu Chen & Shu-Chuan Chen, 2012).

**Happiness** is conceptualised in two categories namely the hedonic and the eudemonic views of happiness. In the hedonic view of happiness, happiness involves pleasant feelings and favourable judgments. The eudemonic view of happiness involves doing what is virtuous, morally right, true to one's self, meaningful and/or growth producing (Ryff & Singer, 2008). For the purpose of this study happiness is viewed as pleasant judgments (positive attitudes) or pleasant experiences at work. Happiness in the workplace was shown to result from environmental contributors, personal contributors and effort made by the workers (Fisher, 2010).

**Job satisfaction** is conceptualised as an individual's perceptions and evaluations of a job, and this perception is influenced by their circumstances, including needs, values and expectations (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005). Employees experience job satisfaction if they feel that their individual capabilities and values are utilised in their work environment. Furthermore, work environments that offer opportunities and rewards result in increased job satisfaction. This study has shown that job satisfaction has two dimensions, namely the intrinsic versus the extrinsic job satisfaction (Kord, 2012). Intrinsic satisfaction refers to the job tasks themselves (e.g. variety and autonomy), while extrinsic satisfaction refers to the work itself, such as pay, working conditions and co-workers, compensation, remuneration and continuous education (Randolph, 2005).

**Burnout** is conceptualised as a special type of prolonged occupational stress that is linked with numerous psychosomatic, psychological and negative job consequences (Cunradi, Greiner, Ragland & Fisher, 2003). For the purpose of this study burnout is viewed as a special type of prolonged occupational stress that results from interpersonal demands at work that exceed the worker's resources. It is not always the case that stress results in reduction in work engagement. Research also shows that a certain amount of stress can result in the increase of work engagement and performance (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). However, at high levels of stress, performance and work engagement deteriorate dramatically (Ching-Fu Chen & Shu-Chuan Chen, 2012).

**Job demands** are conceptualised as 'those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills' (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & Hetland, 2012). This study shows that although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into job stressors. This is the case when trying to meet those demands requires high effort and is therefore associated with high costs that elicit negative responses such as depression, anxiety, or burnout (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012).

**Job resources** are conceptualised as physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that help employees achieve work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and stimulate personal growth and development (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012). For the purpose of this research, job resources are viewed as those aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, stimulating personal growth and development and reducing job demands and their associated physiological and psychological costs. This study has shown that there is evidence for the

buffer effect of job resources, showing strong support for the proposed interaction between job demands and job resources in their relationship with employee well-being (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich, 2010).

#### **7.4. CONCLUSIONS REGARDING SPECIFIC EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES**

In terms of specific empirical objectives the following conclusions are made:

The first empirical objective of this study is to assess the relationship between work engagement and various dimensions of work related employee well-being namely, (job satisfaction, happiness and stress/burnout), job demands and resources among bus drivers in Harare (Zimbabwe). Practically and statistically significant positive relationships between variables of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and job resources results are similar to studies by (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). However, burnout had negative relationships with variables of work engagement, work happiness and job satisfaction. A possible explanation for this is that when employees withdraw mentally as a result of burnout, their work engagement levels will decrease (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). Results establishing the relationship between job demands in this study reveal that on the JD-R scale job demands had no practically and statistically significant correlation coefficients that were obtained between work engagement, work happiness and job satisfaction. Results are similar to those of Xanthopoulou et al., (2007) study. However, results on this part of the study contrast those of Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). A possible explanation for the results on the relationships is the work environment, organisational culture, climate and possible influences of the variables on one another.

The second empirical objective of this study is to determine whether or not job demands and job resources are a strong predictor for the relationship between work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction. The present study is consistent with previous research where job demands and job resources are a strong predictor of work engagement, work happiness, job satisfaction and burnout (Clausen, Nielsen, Carneiro & Borg, 2012; Judge & Picolo, et.al 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et. al., 2003). A possible explanation for the results is the organisational citizenship and commitment among the employees. Results of this study imply that job resources gain their motivational potential, particularly when employees are confronted with high job demands.

The third empirical objective of this study is to investigate the significant differences of the demographic variables with regards to overall work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall burnout, overall job resources and resources. Results indicated that all the demographic variables (such as different age groups, education level attained, tenure, bus ranks and marital status) had a significant difference with regards to total work engagement, job satisfaction, overall happiness, overall job resources and overall burnout. Results are consistent with previous research results (Broome, Nalder, Worrall & Boldy, 2010; Teoh, Tan, Chong & Wool, 2011; Schell, Theorell & Saraste, 2012; Sandberg, Yorgason, Miller & Hill, 2012). In the context of this research the differences in work and family roles and demands affect the employee well-being of the drivers differently. The significant differences could be reflecting the different exposure the bus drivers have on their different work environments, personalities, organisational cultures and climate. There are no significant differences with regards to gender, as there are no females in the study sample as all the participants were male. Even though the other studies had female bus drivers their numbers

were significantly low, which highlights a trend in the career that tend to attract few female bus drivers (Hwang, Choi, Choi, Lee, Kim, Cho & Yoon, 2012).

The fourth empirical objective of this study is to investigate the level of work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and burnout, together with job demands and resources, among public transport drivers in Harare. Results showed that the bus drivers were engaged, happy and satisfied with their jobs, in spite of the stressors. Even though job demands were present they did not result in burnout. Instead job demands were challenging and in turn acted as motivators of work engagement. A possible explanation of the results could be the buffering effect job resources had on job demands. Results confirm previous studies, such as those by (Bakker, Wilmar & Schaufeli, 2008; Roche & Rolley, 2011; Broad, 2007).

The fifth empirical objective of this study is to explore the factors that contribute to the bus drivers' work engagement, happiness, job satisfaction and what stresses them. Some of the themes that emerged, resulting in work engagement, include: incentives such as money, commitment by the bus drivers, obligation to work, challenge demands and intrinsic satisfaction from helping other people. The tickets from the police, peak hours and bad weather were some of the stressors leading to burnout. However, positive attitudes and stress coping strategies led the bus drivers to be happy, in spite of the stressors. Themes such as good working environment, socialising at work and supportive co-workers emerged as job resources. Even though job demands existed, they acted as motivators and not hindrances of work engagement. Results are consistent to studies done by (Biggs, Dingsdag & Stenson, 2009; Crawford et.al., 2010; Cunradi, Chen & Lipton, 2009).

## **7.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

A limitation of the present study is its cross-sectional character. Thus, the current findings, although framed in terms of cause and effect, did not demonstrate causality, but merely relationships (Bryman, 2011). Using existing theories, certain cause-effect relationships were assumed, but the existence of reversed causal effects cannot be excluded. In order to avoid these limitations, future research should be longitudinal (Hakanen, Schaufeli & Ahola, 2008). A second limitation is that all data collection methods are self-report questionnaires, meaning that the magnitudes of the correlation coefficients may have been inflated by common method variance (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Here the problem of common method variance may have played a role. Schaufeli, Taris and Van Rhenen (2008) suggests that, the exclusive use of self-report measures causes a problem in validation studies. However, a strong point of this study is that two sources of information were used, namely questionnaires and interviews, thus common method variance is a non-issue for the contagion hypothesis in this study (Bakker, 2009). A further limitation of the study is that the research was conducted in a homogeneous sample, consisting of employees in one industry. It might be argued that specific organisations have distinctive characteristics in terms of organisational culture, climate and work environment. It might be difficult to generalise the results to other work contexts. However, despite these limitations, the present findings have important implications for future research and practice.

## **7.6. CONTRIBUTION TO EXISTING KNOWLEDGE**

Most studies done previously focused on negative aspects of employee well-being, excluding the role of positive aspects of employee well-being (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011).

Recent studies started to focus on positive psychology, overlooking the role of negative aspects of employee well-being (Fineman, 2006). Thus, since criticism had started to be raised in terms of limitations of separating both negative and positive aspects of employee well-being, a gap still existed in terms of separating positive and negative aspects of employee well-being (Coon & Mitter, 2010). This study is of great value since it managed to highlight the positive and negative aspects of employee well-being. Hence a better understanding of the state of employee well-being among workers is presented. Results using the mixed method design are able to explain the underlying causes of the state of employee well-being among the bus drivers.

If the research had been done using the questionnaires alone this would have raised many questions why the commuter omnibus drivers were happy, engaged and satisfied in their jobs in the midst of the social and economic crises. A unique contribution about the mixed method was that the interviews were able to show the role of psychological states on employee well-being irrespective of the situations and work environment in which the bus drivers worked in (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010). These psychological states included positive attitudes, emotional intelligence and the positive perceptions the drivers had on their jobs. Furthermore the social and organisational support structures were other explanations on the states of employee well-being of the drivers. Hence, as a result of using mixed method research many explanations were given (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The current research demonstrates the crucial role that job demands and resources play in the occurrence of extra-role behaviours in organisations. These extra-role behaviours include positive employee well-being, that is work engagement, job satisfaction and happiness in the workplace, as well as stress burnout.



## **7.7. RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.7.1. Recommendations for future research**

Future research is warranted, given the paucity of literature and empirical studies involving privately owned organisations. Thus future research efforts should focus on the different aspects of job demands and resources, inclusive of rewards, work overload, growth opportunities, social support, organisational support, job security and job advancement. This will result in increased understanding of the role of job demands and resources on employee well-being. There are many job demands and resources present in the working environment and it is important through research to understand which job demands deplete mental and physical resources the most and which job resources are the most motivating (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2011). This information is useful because it will allow managers and organizations to adjust jobs, training and the work environment, based on the factors that contribute the most to workplace happiness, job satisfaction and work engagement.

Future research could also focus on issues to do with the use of Facebook in the workplace and the attitudes that different people have to the use of Facebook. This is because some interesting comments are made by participants in the current study. The young drivers in the study mentioned that they mainly focused on chatting with friends on Facebook during free times at work. Some of the older drivers them had a negative attitude towards Facebook. Contrasting views of participants, for example, raises debates about the good and evil brought about by Facebook. Thus the use of Facebook in the work place is a potential research area that could highlight the diversity in perceptions about using it in the workplace.

Some participants in the study gave contrasting views on the use of alcohol in the workplace. The drivers had different perceptions on the number of bus drivers who took drugs since one of the bus drivers gave a random comment that about 80% of the drivers were on drugs while another commuter omnibus driver said that 20% of the bus drivers were on drugs. The driver who said 80% of the drivers were on drugs had only been employed for less than a month which could have suggested a bias, since he did not yet know much about the organisational culture. Thus future research could focus on alcohol consumption among bus drivers, since the bus drivers themselves had no idea of the population of drivers that were on drugs.

A strength of this study is that, all the participants in the study could read and write English. However, this could be a potential problem in some cases if the participants are unable to read and write in English. Future research could consider the use of languages other than English. Further future research needs to use larger samples in order to fully assess the impact of job demands and resources on employee well-being. The use of larger samples might also provide increased confidence that study findings would be consistent across other similar groups. More research regarding the positive and negative aspects of psychological employee well-being is required in a variety of occupational settings in Zimbabwe, Africa and globally. This is a research gap that has been seen by other researchers but has not yet been met, as the literature review revealed. Happiness flow states and job satisfaction are likely to increase when employees with positive attitudes perceive their goals as important and worthwhile (Rodriguez-Munoz, Sanz-vergel, Demerouti & Bakker, 2012).

The use of the mixed method research approach in this study was quite fruitful, hence future research can adopt this research design since it has many advantages than using either qualitative or that quantitative research design only (Feilzer, 2010). This study has shown

unique results, since better explanations of employee well-being of the bus drivers have been achieved through the use of the multi-method design. Thus future research might need to focus more on mixed method research, since this is a gap as far as the literature review is concerned (Cameron, 2011). Longitudinal studies are also needed in order to increase understanding of the relationship between work engagement, happiness, organisational commitment and job satisfaction as experienced by employees and of the consequences of these concepts for other outcome variables (such as performance and well-being).

### **7.7.2. Organisational recommendation**

From a practical point of view, employers may increase the probability of eliminating employee burnout by reducing job demands and enhancing job resources. According to the findings from this current research, workload appears as a crucial factor contributing to burnout. Results in this study suggest that recovery from burnout help individuals to cope with job demands and to create new resources. These findings suggest that organisations should provide employees with facilities to recover and promote the development of leisure activities to help them disengage from the daily strains of work.

The results of the present study show that in Zimbabwe there is a need to design a policy that will ensure that every commuter omnibus in order to operate should meet certain minimum requirements. The owners should maintain their commuter omnibuses so that they are roadworthy. There is a need to make sure that the commuter omnibuses meet requirements for licencing and employ bus drivers who have valid driving licences. Owners need to constantly train their drivers and even do test retest on driver efficiency. This might lead to a reduction of the drivers playing cat and mouse with the police. Bailing out the impounded

defective vehicles is not good enough there is a need to tighten the laws with respect to roadworthy vehicles to reduce accidents and to avoid bad and reckless driving that result mostly from avoiding the police.

Employees should be taught how to monitor their moods and to become sensitive to their internal rhythms, which will enable them to maximise feelings of efficacy, job satisfaction and happiness. Learning how to deal with one's feelings will minimise stress, burnout and frustration in the workplace (Ay & Avaro Lu, 2010). Companies need to find new creative ways of making work challenging and participative, which can lead to a sense of loyalty, which translates into a new kind of security.

## **7.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY CONCLUSION**

This concluding chapter has presented an overview of the synopsis of this study, conclusions on the theoretical objectives and empirical objectives. The limitations of this study are highlighted. This study is of great value, since results of the present study have contributed to more knowledge on employee well-being. Furthermore research gaps have been identified, opening up possibilities for future research. The recommendations made in this study in terms of future research and organisational policies were based on the research findings.

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## **APPENDIX**

### **Appendix 1: Copy of Informed Consent form**

#### **CONSENT FORM FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

My name is Rutendo Muzvidziwa. I am currently completing my Masters' degree at the University of KwaZulu Natal. The purpose of this research is to investigate on the factors that drive work engagement among bus drivers in Harare. This study is being done for the partial fulfilment of the requirement the degree of Masters in Psychology at University of KwaZulu Natal.

Please understand that your participation is voluntary and you are not being forced to take part in the research study. The choice of whether to participate or not is yours alone. You are welcome to withdraw participating in the study at any given time when the interviews have started. There will be no penalties and you will not be prejudiced in any way. There is no direct benefit if you participate in this research however information obtained will generate a better understanding of bus driver's work engagement in relation to other factors. Confidentiality will be ensured. The questionnaires will only be available to the researcher and the student only. Your identity will remain confidential and anonymous in the report this will be ensured omitting any identifying characteristic such as your name.

You can contact me on the following number if you have any queries [0728031060] /Zimbabwe cell number \_\_\_\_\_ or [211560463@ukzn.ac.za] or my supervisor (Professor Joey Buitendach: on [Buitendach@ukzn.ac.za] and + 27- 0312602407).

If you wish to obtain information on your rights as a participant, please contact Ms Phumelele Ximba, Research Office, UKZN, on +27- 031 260 3587.

Thank you

## Appendix 2: Copy of the agreement form

### AGREEMENT FORM

This is an agreement form that I am asking you to fill in. This is to provide evidence to the department and everyone concerned that you have volunteered to participate in the study and that you are aware of the nature of the study. This will have your **name on it or a tick**. However for the purposes of analysis this will be separated.

I \_\_\_\_\_ have read/ been told verbally about this study and understand the explanations of it given to me. I have had my questions concerning the study answered and understand what is required of me if I participate in this study.

Signature (or tick/mark) \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_



### Appendix 3: Copies of Instruments for the Questionnaire

#### SECTION ONE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

##### INSTRUCTIONS

Answer the following Questions by marking the Appropriate boxes

Gender

Male  Female

Age

24 years and younger  24-35  36-45   
45-55  56 and above

Name of bus rank \_\_\_\_\_

Education level attained

Never went to school  Up to grade seven until form four   
Until form six  Diploma level   
University level

Marital status

Married  Single   
Divorces  Widowed   
Living with a spouse  Female

Tenure (number of years working in the organisation) -----

## SECTION TWO SURVEY

### 1. Work and Well-Being Survey (UWES) Engagement

**Instructions:** (Abbreviated UWES-9 / Work engagement). The following statements are about how you experience your work en how you feel about this. Please report how many times a statement appears by filling in a number from 0 to 6.

0 = never                      1 = a few times a year or less      2 = once a month or less  
 3 = a few times a month      4 = once a week                      5 = a few times a week      6 = everyday

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I am energetic on the workplace						
2. When I am working I feel fit and strong						
3. I am enthusiastic about my job						
4. My work inspires me						
5 I feel like working when I get up in the morning						
6 When I am working very intensively, I feel happy						
7 I am proud of the work do						
8 I am fully committed to my job						
9 I am dedicated to my job						

## 2. Oldenburg Burnout Inventory

**Instructions:** Using the scale, please indicate the degree of your agreement by selecting the number that corresponds with each statement.

1-Strongly agree

2 -Agree Disagree

3 -Strongly

4- disagree

	1	2	3	4
1. I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.				
2. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work				
3. It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.				
4. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.				
5. I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well				
6. Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically				
7. I find my work to be a positive challenge.				
8. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.				
9. Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work				
10. After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities				
11. Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks				
12. After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary				
13. This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing				
14. Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well				
15. I feel more and more engaged in my work.				
16. When I work, I usually feel energized.				

### 3. Job Demands and Resources Scale

#### INSTRUCTIONS

Please rate the extent to which you agree the following statements by circling the appropriate number on the 1 to 4 point scale supplied.

	1	2	3	4
1. Do you have much work to do?				
2. Do you work under time pressure?				
3. Do you have to be attentive to many things at the same time?				
4. Do you have to give continuous attention to your work?				
5. Do you have to remember many things in your work?				
6. Are you confronted with things in your work that affect your personality?				
7. Do you have contact with difficult people in your work?				
8. Does your work put you into put you into emotionally upsetting situations?				
9. Do you have enough variety in your work?				
10. Does your job offer opportunities for personal growth and development?				
11 Does your work give you a feeling that you can achieve something?				
12. Does your job offer the possibility of independent thought and action?				
13. Do you have freedom in carrying out your work activities?				
14. Do you have the freedom in carrying your work activities?				
15. Can you participate in the decision about when a piece of work must be completed?				
16 Can you count on your colleges when you come across difficulties in your work?				

17 If necessary can you ask your colleges for help?				
18. Do you get on well with your colleges?				
19. Can you count on your supervisor when you come across difficulties in your work?				
20. Do you get on well with your supervisor?				
21. In your work do you feel appreciated by your supervisor?				
22. Do you know exactly what other people expect of you in your work?				
23. Do you know exactly what you are responsible for?				
24. Do you know exactly what your direct supervisor thinks of your performance?				
25. Do you receive sufficient information on the purpose of your work?				
26. Do you receive sufficient information about the results of your work?				
27. Does your direct supervisor inform you about important issues within your department /organization?				
28. Are you kept adequately up- to- date about important issues within the organization?				
29. Is the decision making process clear to you?				
30. Is it clear to you whom you should address within the organization for specific problems?				
31. Can you discuss work problems with your direct supervisor?				
32. Can you participate in decisions about the nature of your work?				
33. Do you have a direct influence on your organisations decisions?				
34. Do you need to be more secure that you will still be working in one year's time?				

35. Do you need to be more secure that you will keep the current job in the next year?				
36. Do you need to be more secure that next year you will keep the same function level as currently?				
37. Do you think that your organization pays good salaries?				
38. Can you live comfortably on your pay?				
39. Do you think you are paid enough for the work you do?				
40. Does your job offer the possibility to progress financially?				
41. Does your organization give you opportunities to follow training courses?				
42. Does your job give you the opportunity to be promoted?				

#### 4. Measuring Happiness using the Work-Related Flow Inventory (WOLF)

**Instructions:** Indicate how often you experience one of the following statements at work.

1 = never

2 = almost never

3 = a few times

4 = most of the time    5 = always

	1	2	3	4	5
1. My work gives me a good feeling					
2. I do my work with a lot of enjoyment					
3. I feel happy during my work					
4. I feel cheerful when I am working					
5. I would still do this work, even if I received less pay					
6. I find that I also want to work in my free time					
7. I work because I enjoy it					
8. When I am working on something, I am doing it for myself					

9. I get my motivation from the work itself, and not from the reward for it					
10 When I am working, I think about nothing else					
11 I get carried away by my work					
12 When I am working, I forget everything else around me					
13 I am totally immersed in my work					

### 5. Job Satisfaction Questionnaire Items in the MSQ - Short Form

#### Instructions

Indicate how often you experience one of the following statements at work. Please rate the extent to which you feel satisfied or dissatisfied at work.

1 = never                      1 = almost never              3 = a few times              4 = most of the  
time      5 = always

1. The chance to work alone on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The chance to do different things from time to time.					
3. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.					
4. The chance to do things for other people.					
5. The chance to tell people what to do.					
6. The chance to try my own methods to do a job.					
7. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.					
8. The chances for advancement in this job.					
9. Being able to keep busy all the time.					
10. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.					
11. Being able to do things that do not go against my conscience.					
12. The way my job provides for steady employment.					

13. The way the company policies are put into practice.						
14. The way my boss handles his/her workers.						
15. The way my coworkers get along with each other.						
16. My pay and the amount of work I do.						
17. The freedom to use my own judgment.						
18. The working conditions and environment.						
19. The praise I get for doing a good job.						
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.						

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND VOLUNTEERING TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY.**



**APPENDIX 4:**

**SEMI STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE**

**This is a guide however more questions will be asked when probing with the participants in relation to how they answer so that more detail and better understanding can be found.**

**DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES**

Gender

Male  Female

Age

24 years and younger  24-35    
45-55  56 and above

Name of bus rank \_\_\_\_\_

Education level attained

Never went to school  Up to grade seven until form four   
Until form six  Diploma level   
University level

Marital status

Married  Single   
Divorces  Widowed

Living with a spouse

Female

Tenure (number of years working in the organization) -----

1. Are you happy to be a bus driver
2. What do you enjoy about being a bus driver
3. do you enjoy working when you are tired
4. What activities do you engage in order to be happy
5. How do you maintain your happiness at work
6. Are you satisfied with your pay
7. Are you satisfied with the working conditions on your job
8. Do you get a feeling of accomplishment on your job
9. Do you have any intentions of leaving your job soon
10. Are you committed to your job
11. What are the challenges you experience as a bus driver
12. Do you find your job demanding
13. What are some of the job demands you experience at your work
14. Are your routine schedules demanding
15. What stresses you as a bus driver
16. What makes you tired and worn out as a bus driver
17. Do you get stressed when you work while you tired
18. What are some of the challenges you experience when you are tired
19. Does your work environment stress you
  - If yes what makes you stressed
  - If no what makes adapt to your work environment without being stressed

20. Do you have any job resources available in your work
21. Which of the job resources facilitate you to be engaged and committed in your work
22. Why do you engage in your work
23. Do you engage in your work all the time
24. Is your work engagement the same throughout the day
25. Do you engage in work in the same manner during peak hour and when its' not

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND VOLUNTEERING TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY.**

**APPEDIX 5: NATURAL MEANING UNITS FOR THE INTERVIEWS**

<b>Particip ants pseudo name</b>	<b>Natural meaning units</b>	<b>Explications</b>	<b>Themes</b>
First participa nt	<p>- <i>“personally I think happiness is when I am at peace with what will be happening around me in the work place it is when I am not worrying about anything concerning my job.”</i></p> <p>-<i>“My positive attitude towards life and towards good and bad events makes me happy and enjoy my work.”</i></p> <p>-<i>As I have said earlier on, chat with my colleagues just to occupy myself. At times I start to talk to ladies who will be passing by in</i></p>	<p>-The drivers however went on to say that though they said that they were happy it did not mean that they did not experience negative events but rather the majority of the time at the workplace that would be happy or experiencing the positive moods.</p> <p>-What made the drivers happy were the positive attitudes they had towards their jobs</p> <p>- The bus drivers’ value laughing with colleagues because it makes them to be relaxed and release some stress if they have it.</p>	<p><i>-happiness as a positive state of mind</i></p> <p><i>-happiness through positive attitudes</i></p> <p><i>-Happiness though laughter</i></p>

<p><i>order to be happy.”</i></p> <p><i>-“I know that I said I am happy at work and have energy to do so I however at times I also get tired. In such cases I rather opt to sleep and not chat with core workers I am tired.</i></p> <p><i>Taking a nap during the day is a way of saving my energy to work during the peak hours and by the time my commuter omnibus is loaded I would have found some time to recover and be able to do my work in a peaceful manner”.</i></p> <p><i>“When I wake up I have energy to engage in my work”.</i></p> <p><i>-“I am satisfied with my job even though at times some people despise us through the comments they make</i></p>	<p>- Even though the drivers highlighted how they were happy at their work. They indicated that it was a result also of the stress and fatigue coping strategies they had on their work.</p> <p>For these drivers, what made them able to manage fatigue was that they would also take some time to sleep.</p> <p>Sleep recovery enhanced work engagement.</p> <p>The drivers said that they were satisfied with their jobs even though some people made sarcastic comments about their job they did not bother because they knew that they had other sources of income</p>	<p><i>-stress coping strategies increasing happiness</i></p> <p><i>-sleep recovery reducing fatigue</i></p> <p><i>-energy to engage in work was a result of sleep recovery</i></p>
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	<p><i>such as you are not educated, you act foolishly and many other negative comments. However I have learnt to focus on the positive aspects of my job such as my salary and the extra sources of income I have on my job”.</i></p> <p><i>- The working under which we work in are good the environment allows us to balance and work life. The good thing is that my core workers are good and polite. This in turn gives me the energy to engage on my work ”</i></p> <p><i>-“Another good thing about my colleges is that we support one another whenever there is a need for example we lend each other money if we are in a crises such as illness or death. Whenever I think of the supportive structures on my job this makes me to be happy, satisfied and</i></p>	<p>- Furthermore the commuter omnibus drivers appreciated how their co-workers were very friendly to them. Such a good working environment gave the bus drivers the energy to engage on their work.</p> <p>-The drivers were also happy with their working environment for example they had social support structures were they would lend or give each other money in the event of death or illness. This enhanced the work engagement, happiness and job satisfaction of the drivers.</p> <p>- The commuter omnibus drivers indicated that the police were the only source of stress on their jobs</p>	<p><i>focus on other sources of income to job satisfaction and not worry about what people say</i></p> <p><i>- good work environment and friendly co-workers gave the drivers the energy to engage in work</i></p> <p><i>-Supportive work mates acted as job resources that enhanced work engagement job</i></p>
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<p><i>engaged on my work.</i></p> <p><i>-“Personally I feel that the police stress us drivers at our work. Even if we are on the right side of the law they always try to find a fault in how we are working. The way they are giving tickets these days is just not fair.</i></p> <p><i>-“I engage in my work because I am committed to being a bus driver. I enjoy being responsible since I will be dealing with human life.</i></p> <p><i>The thought of work make me to be enthusiastic and passionate in everything that I do. I am passionate about my job so that is why I have all the energy to go to work each and every morning”.</i></p> <p><i>“the salaries that we earn are a job</i></p>	<p>because of the way the patrolled in the towns.</p> <p>- Furthermore the bus drivers were engaged because of the commitment they had on their jobs which in turn made them to be passionate about their work.</p> <p>- Passion made the bus drivers to be engaged on their work.</p> <p>Salaries are a form of job resources that lead the bus drivers to engage on their work.</p>	<p><i>satisfaction and work happiness.</i></p> <p><i>-police a source of stress burnout</i></p> <p><i>-Drivers are committed to their job.</i></p> <p><i>-Work engagement was a result of the passion</i></p>
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	<p><i>resources that makes me to be satisfied with my job. Each time I think of my potential salary I engage on my work”</i></p>		<p><i>-Money is a job resource salaries motivate drivers to engage on their work</i></p>
<p>Second participant</p>	<p><i>“I have learned to view both negative and positive experiences in a positive manner. For instance when the passengers are rude I take as an opportunity to be polite, not to say that I am super human who does not get hurt. It’s just I have learnt to view passengers as people passing by on my job of which I have learned to appreciate that without them I have no income. In life in general events don’t always happen in the manner in which I want however I focus more on what I will benefit from working rather than experiences.”</i></p>	<p>What made the drivers happy were the positive attitudes they had towards their jobs</p>	<p><i>-happiness through positive attitudes</i></p>



	<p>-“At times I then I suppose I will talk about it to my friends and say something funny and laugh it out so that it does not stress me. This will be when we will be sitting outside and I will, be like by the way how are you going about it doing it. But I mean it”s not frequent and everyone has their own style that works for them and for me as alone as I am comfortable.</p> <p>-“Even though some people mock us what they don”t know is that I earn more money in addition to my salary which is a key motivation to do my job”.</p> <p>- “money is thus an extrinsic motivator for me to engage in my work. The wages I get are a positive job resource on my work”</p>	<p>- The drivers said that they rarely get stressed because they engaged in a lot of activities as colleagues to keep themselves occupied with positive thoughts through laughter.</p> <p>- The drivers said that even though some people made sarcastic comments about their job they did not bother because they knew that they had other sources of income which was a source of motivation for them to work.</p> <p>-money is a motivator of work engagement.</p>	<p><i>-Happiness though laughter</i></p> <p><i>- focus on other sources of income to be happy and not worry about what people say</i></p> <p><i>-Money is a job resource a motivator of work</i></p>
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	<p>-“At times we sit during the day as if we are aimless and yet that is the time we take to advance in our educated I and a few other guys have written and passed our O’levels by taking advantage of the free time on our work. Who knows maybe we might end up having some diplomas as bus drivers.”</p> <p>-“My boss requires me to give him a target profit ranging from \$80-\$100. Depending on whether it’s a peak season such as holidays, weekends and month ends. All the extra money I get after meeting the target I then take it as my own. I know that some people might think that we are stealing money from the employers but I feel that since I give them the agreed target money that they want then the rest is for them to enjoy.”</p>	<p>-Money also acts as a job resources</p> <p>- On another note the bus drivers felt that working in the City was far much better than driving long distances since they could have some time to take breaks during the day. Yet still the younger drivers felt that driving in the town gave them an opportunity to advance themselves in education.</p> <p>- For others their employers required to give them a target profit ranging from \$80-\$100. All the extra money these workers then got after meeting the target they would take it as their own. They justified their actions saying that they knew that some people might think that were stealing money from their employers but they felt that since</p>	<p><i>engagement is the money gained</i></p> <p><i>-Opportunity to advance in ones education</i></p> <p><i>-targets set at work increased work engagement</i></p>
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	<p>-“The way the police are just patrolling is stressing me they are having what they call an operation to impound un road worthy vehicles. I always run away whenever possible. This Christmas season they are stressing me because any saw thing they are giving a ticket.”</p> <p>- “Since I have to meet a required amount of target by my employer this gives me pressure to meet the target required amount of money by the employees and hence I am always pressurized to be engaged most of the time. I feel that even though this is somehow a demanding challenge on the other hand it was a positive motivator that keeps me busy with their work.”</p> <p>-“What makes me satisfied with my work is when I manage to meet the target money of the day. Such day</p>	<p>they gave them the required signed and agreed target money that they want then the rest was for them to enjoy.</p> <p>- The police in this during the Christmas season were reported to be a major source of stress among the bus drivers to the extent that sometimes they did all they could to run away from them.</p> <p>-The drivers felt that they were on pressure to meet the target required amount of money by the employees and were pressured to be engaged most of the time. They felt that even though this was somehow a demanding challenge on the other hand it was a positive motivator that kept them busy with their work.</p>	<p>-police a source of stress burnout</p> <p>-targets set at work increased work engagement</p>
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	<p><i>today accomplishments make me to be satisfied with my job”.</i></p> <p><i>-“At first when I started my job I was afraid that I would not meet the required \$US80-\$US100. However I now appreciate this because the first thing I am for is to reach the target money. After reaching the target money I keep on being engaged so that I will have all the money to myself.”</i></p>	<p>-job satisfaction of the bus drivers comes from the accomplishment of the day to day tasks</p> <p>- Interestingly even though the other driver had to meet the required amount of target meet this was an advantage for them since they would only have to give the owner of the commuter omnibus only the required amount of money. The rest of the profits they would keep to themselves.</p>	<p><i>Job demands when met lead to the bus drivers to be satisfied with their work.</i></p> <p><i>-Money as a motivator to engage in work</i></p>
<p>Third participant</p>	<p><i>I have more than ten trips a day to town from the suburbs, hence in order for me to enjoy my job I listen to the radio while I am driving. Different types of music make my day, in fact it I then tend to focus on</i></p>	<p>The thing is that the drivers had learned to find interesting aspects and activities to occupy them during work.</p>	<p><i>-happiness through positive attitudes</i></p>

<p><i>my driving in a peaceful manner.”</i></p> <p><i>- Boora Ngoma is a very sarcastic name that people give us. I understand that they think that we are acting foolishly which is true to some extent. Anyway as workmates on the rank we will only be trying to have some fun.”</i></p> <p><i>- “All I need is to myself and enjoy it and try to be myself at work and be friendly you know not to be like stern and e.t.c..... That"s sound instead of wanting people to take my place and to approve of me like then I will like not spend enough time on the actual work.”</i></p> <p><i>-“I am happy with my salary because I have other sources of income.</i></p> <p><i>-“After all I have come to realise that I will be carrying human life</i></p>	<p><i>- Even though behaviours such as randomly calling girls who were passing by led to the bus drivers having name callings such as „Boora Ngoma” this did not bother them at all because all they wanted was to have fun.</i></p> <p><i>A fun work environment is viewed as a job resources that led to happiness of the bus drivers</i></p> <p><i>- The drivers said that they had other sources of income which in turn mad them to be happy.</i></p> <p><i>The bus drivers even said that though they were paid for the job it’s being responsible and careful</i></p>	<p><i>-Happiness though laughter and fun</i></p> <p><i>Good and fun work environment is a job resource that led to happiness</i></p> <p><i>-focus on other sources of income to be happy and not worry about what people say</i></p>
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	<p><i>which is precious so I just cannot afford to be reckless. Oh ... yes I think it has. I am always surprised about how much I know that I didn't know. Like over the years you pick up more than you would. I guess as far as I am concerned I have more understanding and that is probably come along with age."</i></p> <p><i>--at times four people come with ten rand which is the fair for two people and negotiate to be driven. Even though I tack the people at my own expense it makes me happy because I would have helped someone. The theme of helping other people was indicated by many of the bus drivers as a source of happiness on their work place. helping people among the bus drivers included telling people directions of where to go helping old people and giving people discounts or even free rides to people</i></p>	<p>on the job was a good thing.</p> <p>- The young bus drivers indicated how they were happy each time they got an opportunity to help someone.</p> <p>The thought of helping people led to job satisfaction</p>	<p>-Drivers are committed and responsible with their job</p> <p>-happy to help</p>
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<p><i>in need like when it was raining.”</i></p> <p><i>“Each time I manage to help someone, this makes me satisfied with my job”</i></p> <p><i>- “ the police stress me I feel that the police not patrolling in order to maintain peace but rather they just enjoy taking money from us. Anyway I always run away from them. If it means that I pass the red robots I even do that.</i></p> <p><i>-“I hate pick hours because I tend to do my job in a slow manner. This is because there will be a lot of traffic. It bothers me more when I see a police road broke during such times. This is because any delay by 30minutes at such times could mean a potential trip that is lot meaning that I get less money for the day. It pains me even more when I am given a ticket either early in the morning</i></p>	<p><i>- The drivers felt that the police were not patrolling in order to maintain peace and safety to the people but rather they just enjoyed taking money from the bus drivers.</i></p> <p><i>- Pick hours are a major source of fatigue frustration and stress among the commuter omnibus drivers.</i></p> <p><i>-A key motivator that led bus drivers to engage on their work is</i></p>	<p><i>-Helping people is a job source that led to intrinsic satisfaction</i></p> <p><i>-police a source of stress and burnout</i></p> <p><i>-pick hours a source of stress and burnout</i></p>
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	<p><i>or towards the end of the day.”</i></p> <p><i>—A lot of the motivation that drives me to engage in my works comes down to the money. I think really that is what made me to start thinking about becoming a bus driver”.</i></p>	<p>the money they earned</p>	<p><i>-Money as a motivator to engage in work</i></p>
<p>Fourth participant</p>	<p><i>“However sometimes I also get to meet people who are hard headed. Yah but I still enjoy my work in spite of all the situations and different people I get to meet I have learned that as a bus driver I will always get to meet stubborn and good people all at once. For example on this other day a passenger told me that I was too slow since they were late for work. When I started increasing the speed for the vehicle the other passengers started to yell at me saying comments like: You want to kill us!”</i></p>	<p>-The happiness of the drivers also depended on the passengers would be carrying but still the drivers tried by all means to enjoy the work and all the work than the other ones.</p> <p>- The other bus drivers who did not engage in activities such as</p>	<p><i>-stress coping strategies increasing happiness</i></p>



	<p>- <i>What I hate about the name boora ngoma is that some people tend to look down upon us but personally I don't engage in some of the behaviours my colleges do.</i>"</p> <p>- <i>When challenges come I have learned to address them and not to worry about a challenge before I face it.</i>"</p> <p>- <i>Even though sometimes the workload is demanding, definitely the work load I had to be more responsible also in terms of time management also you get to realise that you are kind of a role model. So that is not what you are supposed to do cause you have to realize your responsibility of arriving on time and</i></p>	<p>whistling to girls passing by felt that it was unfortunate for them since people generalised the behaviour of all bus rank workers as a felt of a few core workers</p> <p>- Furthermore the drivers said that they had learned to live one Day at a time.</p> <p>- The demands of the work load the bus drivers experienced made the bus drivers to be more responsible and also improve in terms of time management</p> <p>- The driver felt satisfied with his job because before he was employed he had certain</p>	<p>-generalizations of negative behaviours a burden</p> <p>-happiness through positive attitudes</p> <p>-benefit in terms of responsibility and time management</p>
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<p><i>being prompt and I think that is quiet an important thing of taking on that responsibility.”</i></p> <p><i>- “Before I was employed as a driver I had certain expectations about the job such as the salaries and the work environment which were met. Since my boss kept the promise it makes me more satisfied with my pay since my commission stated of as 10% and is now 15%”.</i></p> <p><i>-“I have learnt not to bother about what people say when they despise and mock my career. Instead I have learnt to focus on the positive aspects of my job such as my income and the extra sources of income that I have. As a result of forcing on the positive aspects of my job I am happily engaging on my work”</i></p> <p><i>-“The good thing about this bus rank</i></p>	<p>expectations about the job which were met.</p> <p>- The drivers said that even though some people made sarcastic comments about their job they did not bother because they knew that they had other sources of income. Positive attitudes made them to be happy and engaged on their work</p> <p>-The drivers had another support structure which included that of lending each other money. They supported each other financially and even had a structure in which the drivers would have to return back the money. Such support structures were seen as another</p>	<p><i>-good work environment led to job satisfaction among the bus drivers</i></p> <p><i>-focus on other sources of income to be happy and engaged at work</i></p> <p><i>-Supportive work</i></p>
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<p><i>is that people support one another whenever a colleague encounters a problem. People try by all means to support in terms of emotional and even monetary needs. When we encounter crises we even lend each other money and return later. This is a social support resources that makes life easy in the midst of challenges.</i></p> <p><i>-“the burden of running away from the police is a major stressor for me. This is because I end up behaving in contrast to my values. What I mean is that I want to drive safely but the moment I see the police I find myself breaking the road rules because I can’t afford to get my money taken by the police</i></p> <p><i>-“Whenever I think of the potential money that I can get in a day I find myself engaging in activities such as</i></p>	<p>form of job resources.</p> <p>- These drivers felt that if only I did not have to run away from the police, the bus drivers, work would be a perfectly peaceful job.</p> <p>- For those commuter omnibus drivers who went the <i>Mushikashika</i> they felt that engaging in such acts gave both them and their employees a competitive advantage.</p> <p>-The bus drivers highlighted how organizational support structures enhanced their job satisfaction.</p>	<p><i>mates are a form of job resources</i></p> <p><i>-police a source of stress burnout</i></p> <p><i>-Money as a motivator to engage in extra</i></p>
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	<p><i>that mushikashika. Since this will give an advantage in terms of the money I earn in a day</i></p> <p><i>-“I know from friends who have been bus drivers that they went through vigorous training on how to work professionally and so did I. The training that we get as drivers such as test retest is good sometimes it revives me on the purpose of my job.”</i></p>		<p><i>role behaviours at work</i></p> <p><i>-organizational support structures such as training at work increased work engagement</i></p>
Fifth participant	<p><i>–Um not so much of communication skills as I have said my self-esteem probably to some extent I do see that it has helped me to communicate more effectively.</i></p> <p><i>“And just having that experience to me is good because I am going to be working with diverse groups of people. I feel that my personality has played a big positive role on how I relate to the passengers. I feel that my public relations skills have</i></p>	<p>The commuter omnibus drivers felt that being a bus driver had made them to deal with different sorts of people since their communication skills have improved.</p> <p>The bus drivers’ personalities influenced how they related with the passengers. The drivers’ personalities had enhanced their public relations skills.</p>	<p><i>-Happiness through gains on the job</i></p> <p><i>Personality influenced how the bus drivers related and engaged on their work.</i></p>

	<p>increased”</p> <p><i>--I really enjoy my job. It's funny because some people think that being a bus driver is monotonous. However I think that it is because of the outside perception they have since they are not directly involved in the job.”</i></p> <p><i>--Before I became a bus driver I was disorganized and always late however being a bus driver has made me to be time continuous and I have even improved in terms of how I manage my time”.</i></p> <p><i>-“I am really satisfied with my job I don't think the money is too bad compared to other jobs in Zimbabwe. At the current moment we actually get paid better salaries that some well educated people. This is quite good! In fact the</i></p>	<p>- Some bus drivers found it funny that some passengers thought that being a bus driver was monotonous. However for them it was because of the outside perception they had since they are not directly involved in the job. In fact they said that their work gave them a good with a lot of enjoyment.</p> <p>- The bus drivers to enhance their personalities with regards to time management.</p> <p>- The bus drivers felt that a much of their work satisfaction came down to the money. Some of the drivers felt that the salaries in the driving industry had made them to start thinking about becoming a bus driver.</p>	<p><i>-happiness through positive attitudes</i></p> <p><i>-Drivers are now more responsible with their job</i></p> <p><i>- income gains on the job increased job satisfaction</i></p>
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	<p>wages that we get is part of what made me want to be a bus driver”</p> <p>-“I don’t care when people mock and despise us because at the end of the day I get a good salary. I have other sources of income which makes me to be happy and satisfied with my job”.</p> <p>-“I like engaging on my work especially the part when I get the opportunity to help people. It makes me feel like a good person. My job has made me realize that being a bus driver is actually a way of serving the community.</p> <p>Some people respect us for helping them when we can because they know that bus drivers carry human life hence they even encourage us to drive safely.”</p>	<p>- The drivers said that even though some people made sarcastic comments about their job they did not bother because they knew that they had other sources of income.</p> <p>- The bus drivers had learned to take their work more seriously. Making use of opportunities to help someone was a source of intrinsic satisfaction among the bus drivers which made them to engage on their work.</p> <p>Furthermore the respect the bus drivers got from helping passengers motivated them to continue engaging on their work.</p> <p>- At the time of research a significant number of commuter</p>	<p>-focus on other sources of income to be happy and satisfied with their work</p> <p>-helping was a source of job satisfaction</p> <p>The respect earned by helping enhanced work engagement of the</p>
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	<p>-“Even though I am aware of the commuter omnibus accidents that have happened so far I still feel that I am under pressure to run away from the police. Anyway I try my best to be careful when I run away I make sure that I am in full control of the car so that I don’t get involved in a car accident. It’s unfortunate that people don’t understand that any cent taken by the police will affect our commission that is why we cannot afford to be given a ticket by the police.”</p> <p>-“On another note like I mean..... there is no kind of like structured way to check that we have done everything. But I guess you could decide in the end it’s up to you. However I always engage on my work because I get paid on commission. In my case I view money</p>	<p>omnibus accidents happened of which the drivers were aware of them. They felt that when they ran away from the police they were always careful that is why they were not involved in the car accidents. Instead of viewing the accidents by other fellow drivers as a warning not to value money over people, the bus drivers still felt that everyone else around them did not understand why they behaved the way they did.</p> <p>-The drivers felt that since they were employed they just couldn’t opt not to go to work. This was because they needed the money they earned from their jobs. Furthermore since the drivers were paid in the form of commission if they decided not to work hard it will backfire on them on their pay.</p> <p>- A supportive work environment</p>	<p>bus drivers</p> <p>-police a source of stress burnout</p> <p>-blame given to police for cause of accidents</p> <p>-Money as a motivator to engage in work</p>
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	<p><i>as a job resource that makes me to engage on my work ”</i></p> <p><i>-“My boss is very understanding at times when he sees that I have overworked he even gives me some days of to recover. This in turn makes me to engage in my work because I will be having energy</i></p> <p><i>I also appreciate my colleges the way we socialise makes me have joy. The happiness I have despite the challenges I experience make me to be satisfied with work</i></p>	<p>increased work engagement among the drivers since they would have the energy to work.</p> <p>A supportive work environment increased happiness among the drivers</p>	<p><i>Money is a job resources</i></p> <p><i>-A good work environment and friendly core workers enhanced work engagement</i></p> <p><i>The good work environment is a job resource that led to happiness of the workers</i></p>
Sixth participant	<p><i>-“At times I find passengers a bit irritating because at times people ask questions that are not that good. I go a bit out of the hand-out because it"s a bit frustrating to be told how to drive/ do ones work. However in order to get over it I have learned</i></p>	<p>-Positive attitudes enhanced the bus drivers in that they would focus more on the positive aspects of their work and not dwell on the negative.</p>	<p><i>-happiness through positive attitudes</i></p>



	<p><i>not to take matters at hand seriously.”</i></p> <p><i>-“the interesting thing about my job is that I get to meet people with different personalities all the time which makes me not to have a routine way of doing things , the how and when to say or do things.”</i></p> <p><i>-If only the passengers knew they would thank us more. I love it when passengers, core workers and my boss appreciate any good work that I do. I feel sorry for the other workers who told me this other day that most of the time their bosses complain about how they work. For me I value the few times I am appreciated.”</i></p> <p><i>-“I have other sources of income which makes me to be happy and satisfied with my job”.</i></p> <p><i>-“I know that what we do is bad</i></p>	<p>-interacting and meeting different people made the driver enjoy work</p> <p>-the commuter omnibus drivers were happy that the people in their work places appreciated them</p> <p>-The drivers said they were happy and satisfied with their job since they had other sources of income.</p> <p>- The driver loved his job when there was bad whether such as rain. This is because most of the drivers would charge double the amount of the commuter omnibus fairs.</p> <p>- The driver loved his job when there was bad whether such as rain.</p>	<p><i>-Happiness though socializing</i></p> <p><i>-happy about good work environment and friendly core workers</i></p> <p><i>-focus on other sources of income to be happy</i></p> <p><i>-bad weather an advantage in terms of increasing monetary rewards</i></p>
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	<p><i>because we take advantage of desperate people wanting to go home. It's only that we want the money."</i></p> <p><i>- "It's good for us because we get profit. During the weekends we at times charge double the amount to compensate our time we could be resting. After all the will be a few commuter omnibus patrolling so we in turn get more profit."</i></p> <p><i>- "whenever I get an opportunity to help someone it makes me feel happy and satisfied with my job .It really makes me feel good".</i></p> <p><i>- "I know that when we run away</i></p>	<p>This is because most of the drivers would charge double the amount of the commuter omnibus fairs. This in turn enabled them to take the extra money after the target money had been met.</p> <p>- The bus drivers felt that they always loved to help people so that is why they had nice experiences to help passengers. In turn the drivers were happy and satisfied with their jobs</p> <p>- The bus drivers admitted that their reckless behavior when they were driving was not a good thing. Even though they continued to engage in such acts especially when they saw the police they justified the acts saying that all they wanted was not</p>	<p><i>-bad weather an advantage in terms of increasing monetary rewards</i></p> <p><i>-helping increased happiness and job satisfaction</i></p>
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<p><i>from the police we drive dangerously which is not a good thing. However as drivers we can't afford to get a ticket that is why we behave the way we do".</i></p> <p><i>-“I am engaged at my work because I feel that the targets I have been given by my boss motivate me to work”</i></p> <p><i>“Furthermore what makes me to be engaged at my work is that I find purpose in what I do for example when I first got employed on this job I was afraid that I would lose my job because of the target money that I had to meet. However now I find it to</i></p>	<p>to be given a ticket by the police.</p> <p>- The drivers felt that they were on pressure to meet the target required amount of money by the employees and were pressured to be engaged most of the time. They felt that even though this was somehow a demanding challenge on the other hand it was a positive motivator that kept them busy with their work.</p> <p>Finding purpose on their work led the bus drivers to be engaged on their work. Targets set by the employers enhance purpose on their work in the drivers</p> <p>- Training for the job and on the job training programs‘ was reported to</p>	<p><i>-police a source of stress and reckless behavior among the drivers</i></p> <p><i>-challenge demands a sources of motivation to engage on work</i></p> <p><i>Purpose on ones” job led to work engagement</i></p>
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	<p><i>be an interesting aspect since I find purpose on my job each day”.</i></p> <p><i>-“even though I get trained to enhance my driving I now I find my own way of doing things which makes my driving/ job interesting. You can do it in your own way that makes it more natural and more. And this is really helpful in enhancing the person in me that I can become.”</i></p>	<p>help enhance engagement on the work. However other drivers sometimes had their own ways to further enhance their jobs.</p>	<p><i>-supportive organization structure enhanced engagement</i></p>
Seventh participant	<p><i>“..... you know when communicating with passengers I am used to joking around and being like enthusiastic and like friendly. So I kind of brought that on my job which is good in some respects and not good in others. In summary I really enjoy my job.”</i></p> <p><i>-“it pains me when people label every bus driver as a drug addict personally I don’t take drugs at all. Personally I think that only about</i></p>	<p>Personality is another contributor towards the attitudes of the bus drivers. Furthermore some commuter omnibus drivers felt that their individual communication skills and personality as it stood had more effect on their public relations skills as a driver.</p> <p>- Interestingly in contrast to this other drivers who did not take drugs at work felt that it was unfair that people had stereotypes about them in relation to most drivers</p>	<p><i>-personality enhanced happiness in the drivers</i></p> <p><i>-some drivers don’t take drugs</i></p>

	<p>20% percent of us the drivers take drugs”.</p> <p>- “What I like about being a commuter omnibus driver is that being a driver has help me to have leadership qualities. What is rewarding about being a driver is probably the confidence I have gained from interacting with core workers and passengers and from leading a group of people and the confidence of knowing that I can do it”.</p> <p>- “I failed my O’levels and became a bus driver but now I am earning more than educated people. At least I am better than them”.</p> <p>“I feel sorry for people who see us as poor useless and struggling people I laugh because I know that I am better than them. After all sometimes we get a lot of money</p>	<p>taking drugs.</p> <p>- The commuter omnibus drivers felt that being a driver helped them to have leadership qualities. What is rewarding about being a driver is probably the confidence gained from interacting with core workers and passengers</p> <p>- The attitude of comparing their salaries with that of others made these drivers to be satisfied with their jobs.</p> <p>- The drivers said that even though some people made sarcastic comments about their job they did not bother because they knew that they had other sources of income. The bus drivers were happy and engaged on their work because they did not dwell on the sarcastic</p>	<p>-Happiness through the gains from being a bus driver</p> <p>-attitude of comparing increased job satisfaction</p> <p>-focus on other sources of income to be happy and engaged on the work</p>
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<p><i>depending with the time of the month and seasons of the year. Like now, it's Christmas season so a lot of people travel that's why we get more money during times as these. These are factors that make me to be happy and engaged on my work"</i></p> <p><i>- "I think that the passengers do not understand us when we are trying to run away from the police what they don't understand is that if we go to the route were they will be having a road broke we will have to pay R300 for example and yet for one trip I might have made R120. That frustrates me because at times and I don't know how to make the passengers understand. I think there has been one bit of a clash but it wasn't that much of a clash it was just one person talking too much. For some people they will be saying get us to our work places early and</i></p>	<p>comments made by other people.am happy a</p> <p>-As a result of the challenge of police taking the bus drivers' money the bus drivers felt the passengers failed to understand their sudden change of driving behaviour to becoming a bit reckless.</p> <p>- Another misunderstanding the bus drivers had was the issue of change. A significant number of fights between the bus drivers, conductors</p>	<p><i>-police a source of stress</i></p>
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	<p><i>others what ever..... The good thing is that this happens once in a while.”</i></p> <p><i>—if only the passengers were cooperative and understood, they would not buy the tickets from the crooks. We have no choice now but to take their dollar if we do not have change. I hate to quarrel over change but there is nothing I can do about it.”</i></p> <p><i>-“At times when it is not busy to the extent that I will have to wait in the cue for even four hours for my turn to come, I tend to go to the Mushikashika to find customers. There is risk in doing that but I have devised a way of operating without being caught by the police. So at least even though at times the legal ranks are not busy I always find a way of making as much profit as possible as if though it were busy. Money in my case is a job resources</i></p>	<p>and passengers always emerged over the five rand change</p> <p>- Interestingly once in a while the bus drivers operating in these Mushikashika ranks are caught by the police and made to pay fines. The drivers who engaged in such acts did not mind this potential risk since they focused rather on the potential gain of doing such illegal acts. Money is a job resource that led the bus drivers to engage in extra role behaviours and even unlawful actions.</p>	<p><i>misunderstanding s such as change are a stressor</i></p> <p><i>-Money as a motivator to engage in work</i></p> <p><i>-money is also viewed as a job resource.</i></p>
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	<i>that enhances my happiness and work engagement”</i>		
Eight participa nt	<p><i>–There are many benefits that come with age. I now find fulfilment with the respect I have earned on my career. Even though some of these young drivers have trouble with their employees, I don’t. I think that my boss now trusts me since I have worked for him for more than 10years.”</i></p> <p><i>- If a married man has girl friends on Facebook they are cheating on their wives because they spend time with these girls on face book. In actual fact I have not joint face book because I don’t understand it.”</i></p> <p><i>–Even though some people make sarcastic comment about my job I do not bother myself because I know that I have a lot of money and other sources of income”</i></p>	<p>the older bus drivers were happy that they were respected almost by everyone</p> <p>-Interestingly it is the young drivers who mentioned that they mainly focused on chatting with friends on face book during free times at work. For the older drivers some of them had a negative attitude toward face book.</p> <p>- The drivers said that even though some people made sarcastic comments about their job they did not bother because they knew that they had other sources of income.</p> <p>-Other than the official incomes</p>	<p><i>-happy about good work environment and friendly and respectful core workers</i></p> <p><i>-Socializing with Supportive work mates</i></p> <p><i>-focus on other sources of income increased happiness.</i></p>



	<p>-“A significant number of people hire me to work for them during weddings and funerals. This automatically increases the amount of money I get during the weekends. Even though this does not happen every weekend I really appreciate such times when I am hired. This makes me to be satisfied with my job”</p> <p>-“I don’t know how I would have managed to cope when my mother died. Since I am the bread winner in my family it was my responsibility to pay most of the funeral expenses. I thank god for my core workers who helped me with approximately \$200for the funeral it made a difference.”</p> <p>“this culture of helping one another is an important job resource on our job. As a drivers I know that if I am to face a challenge I have colleges to</p>	<p>they earned, the bus drivers had other possibilities of earning more money on their jobs. As a result the drivers were satisfied with their jobs.</p> <p>- The drivers had social support structures in which every driver would contribute a dollar to assist the driver in need at a particular point in time such as supporting one another for a funeral.</p> <p>The bus drivers the culture of helping and supping one another as a job resource</p> <p>- The bus drivers highlighted that in their work place challenges did occur of which they had learned not</p>	<p>-incentives increased job satisfaction</p> <p>-happiness about social support structures</p> <p>A supportive work environment is a job resource</p>
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<p><i>support and encourage me”</i></p> <p><i>-“In life and in the work place events always happen in the manner that I always wish but I have learned to be happy most of the time. Living each moment at a time makes me to enjoy my work.”</i></p> <p><i>“Interestingly I rarely get tired on my work this is because during the day I have time to rest each time I will be on the cue waiting for my vehicle to be loaded with people. During peak hours it”s about thirty minutes before loading my vehicles however if its” not a peak hour at times it takes about three to four hours before loading my vehicle.”</i></p> <p><i>-“Each time I think about the potential money that I can earn in a day even if I was about to be lazy I find all the energy to do my work. At</i></p>	<p>to allow the happenings around them to determine their joy and happiness.</p> <p>- In contrast to this the other bus drivers found peak hours to be interesting because they focus on a different aspect of peak hour. This is because they made use of the times it was not busy to rest so that they would be full of energy during the peak hours.</p> <p>- The bus drivers felt that each time they thought about the potential money they would get if they were engaged they would find all the energy to do work.</p>	<p><i>among the bus drivers</i></p> <p><i>-Happiness through positive attitudes</i></p> <p><i>--sleep recovery reducing fatigue</i></p> <p><i>-Money as a motivator to engage in work</i></p>
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	<p><i>times I even go to the extent of working in illegal places”.</i></p>		
<p>Ninth participant</p>	<p><i>–So far I haven’t made many friends at my work place. So even if I talk to my colleges I always find time to chat with my friends on Facebook. I like my job because I have face book to keep me cheered up at work.”</i></p> <p><i>-“In addition to Facebook at times I drink alcohol to enjoy my elf at work”</i></p> <p><i>-“I am happy to be a bus driver now because I am getting a better salary than when I was working as an administrator. This is because I earned two hundred dollars and yet now I earn up to \$US500 or more</i></p>	<p>Some drivers did not just socialise with core workers but they would also spend their free time socialising with other people on Facebook.</p> <p>- Another social activity engaged by the bus drivers in order to be happy included taking drugs.</p> <p>- This is because the drivers did not compare themselves with other drivers rather they compared themselves with other professionals in the country.</p>	<p><i>-Happiness though socialising</i></p> <p><i>-stress coping strategies increasing happiness</i></p> <p><i>-happiness through positive attitudes</i></p>

	<p><i>per month.”</i></p> <p><i>-“I am committed to my job even though some people make comments to despise my job because I earn more money in addition to the weekly wages. Money is a job resource that makes me to be committed to my job”.</i></p> <p><i>-“Even though at the current moment I am happy about my working situation I still desire to do a better job than this. I am only working as a bus driver because I want the money but in the event that I would find a job that pays better salaries I will quite being a bus driver”.</i></p> <p><i>-“As for me I am required to work from six to six that very same day. So at times I start working at four in the morning using the companies” vehicle up to eight in the evening. So the extra money I get during the resting times I take it as my own. I know that this is not good however</i></p>	<p>- The drivers said that even though some people made sarcastic comments about their job they did not bother because they knew that they had other sources of income. Money was the job resource that made them to be committed to their work</p> <p>-For the younger commuter omnibus drivers especially the educated ones even though they were satisfied about their current jobs and salaries they still had ambitions to do better and work in places they could get more salaries.</p> <p>- Any extra money earned after the target money was raised was taken by the bus drivers their own extra income. They acknowledged that this was not good however that was the only option they saw as a way of increasing their salaries.</p>	<p><i>-Money is a job resource that makes the drivers to be committed at work</i></p> <p><i>job satisfaction overrides the challenges experienced</i></p> <p><i>-money a source of motivation to engage in the work place</i></p>
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	<p><i>this is the only option I see as a way of increasing my salary.”</i></p> <p><i>-“Sometimes four people come with ten rand which is the bus fare for two people and they negotiate to pay half the price sometimes it will be raining and they will be stranded hence I just help them if I can. There are many ways in which I get to help people as a driver. Sometimes even when parking my vehicle during the day I get opportunities to help even people who do not know directions this makes me feel happy and satisfied.”</i></p> <p><i>-“I get 15 % commission for all the work I do. So sometimes I only feel tired when I arrive home. This is because if I get tired early and try to rest it means less pay at the end of the week. So that is why I just can’t afford to follow my feelings because I am tired.”</i></p>	<p>- They did not view helping people as an obligation instead they just felt that it was not good waste any opportunity be nice. Hence the bus driver felt that driving is wonderful because it made them meet different people from different walks of life and gave them opportunities to help other people.</p> <p>- At times the drivers highlighted that they had to work even though they would be tired. What gave them the vigor to continue working was the motivation of knowing that they would get money by working.</p>	<p><i>-helping a source of job satisfaction and happiness</i></p> <p><i>-Money as a motivator to engage in work</i></p>
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<p>-“At times I even go to the extent of working in illegal places for me to get as much money as I can. We call these places “Mushikashika”. The advantage of the Mushikashika illegal bus ranks is that bus drivers look for passengers randomly in the streets of which there is no need of pay any tax for patrolling.”</p> <p>-“let me admit that once in a while I feel negative feeling, stress and burnout. However I always find a way to replace this with joy by occupying myself with some activities at work</p> <p>“A major problem during peak hours arises when there is load shading and the traffic lights will not be working. I am lucking most of the time not be in an accident this is because I always experience some near misses.”</p>	<p>- Some of the drivers also mentioned that working in illegal places for them to get as much money as they could. The name the drivers gave to such practices is <del>“Mushikashika”</del>. Mushikashika are illegal bus ranks that bus drivers start in the streets of which they need not pay any tax for patrolling.</p> <p>- For the commuter omnibus drivers the few times they were stressed or experienced the rare negative feelings they did not matter to them at all.</p> <p>- Another challenge during peak hours was that during load shading hours the traffic light would not be working. In turn this affected the manner in which the bus drivers worked.</p>	<p>-the drivers engage in any activity even illegal ones to earn money</p> <p>-Some times fatigue and stress happened even though happiness is prevalent</p> <p>- peak hours stressful</p>
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	<p><i>An interesting aspect of my work is the wonderful work mates I have. The assistance we give each other in times of need is an additional job resource other than the money I earn.</i></p>	<p>Supportive work mates are a job resource among the bus drivers</p>	<p><i>-A supportive work environment is a job resource</i></p>
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