MARANGE DIAMOND MINING INDUSTRY

Socio-political environment and its role on psychological well-being and organisational citizenship of diamond miners in Marange, Zimbabwe

POLITE MASVAURE
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A doctoral thesis submitted to the School of Applied Human Sciences in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

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DECLARATION

I, Polite Masvaure, hereby declare that the study ‘Marange diamond mining industry: Socio-political environment and its role on psychological well-being and organisational citizenship of diamond miners in Marange, Zimbabwe’ reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated;

1. Is my original research and unaided work;

2. Has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfilment of the requirements for an equivalent of higher qualification at any recognised educational institution;

3. All sources used or referred to have been documented and recognised;

4. It is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of completing a Doctoral Degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of KwaZulu Natal.

Signature

Date _________ / _________ / _________
For my parents

Josephine and Marshal Masvaure
ABSTRACT

This thesis aimed at finding comprehensive ways through which managers can foster psychological well-being and improve employees’ functionality in a turbulent business environment. The political dynamics and troubling trajectory of diamond mining in Marange are widely acknowledged (Saunders & Nyamunda, 2016). Based on perceptions of selected miners in one diamond mining company in Zimbabwe, the thesis suggests an employee well-being framework that adopts a holistic approach towards understanding the functionality of an individual working in such an environment. The approach avers that the functionality of an employee rests on a company system where managerial practises, organisational culture and values, combined with personal resources such as material resources and respect for employees’ personal values are embedded into the company’s socio-political environment. The study elucidates conditions both within and outside an individual that organisations can leverage on towards the enhancement of employee well-being.

A pragmatic approach that utilised both quantitative and qualitative research methods was used in this study as a way of augmenting the inadequacy of the quantitative approaches usually used in psychology to provide a basis from which to infer the direction of the relationship between workplace features and employee well-being. This renders a fresh perspective into the study of employees’ psychological well-being that scholars have established mainly through quantitative means.

The study provides a further nuanced rendering by providing, from a local perspective, a comprehensive focus to the global understanding of employee well-being response that the clinical tradition has predominantly studied looking at such factors as depression, distress, anxiety or substance abuse; and how these affect employee wellbeing. The study therefore challenges this arguably limited view of wellbeing that has often resulted in business
approaches benchmarking organisational success on cost consciousness, viewing employees as machines fuelled by money, and understanding employees’ behaviours and attitude to work from negative work outcomes, processes and attributes. As with the globalised business economy that has rendered, in today’s world of work, employees as an important instrument in determining the success of an organisation, this study emphasises employees’ involvement in organisational policy formulation and the adoption of managerial practices that are informed by philosophies such as Ubuntu that can account for the local conceptions of wellness.

Quantitative findings of this study revealed a positive and practically significant relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship. Results further revealed that psychological empowerment does not predict organisational citizenship behaviours. Interestingly, quantitative results further revealed that participants were averagely satisfied, engaged and averagely exhibited citizenship behaviours but are highly empowered psychologically. These quantitative findings sharply differed with the qualitative findings that suggest both management and employees felt that the working environment failed to provide for those conditions that foster engagement, satisfaction, psychological empowerment and citizenship behaviours.

Although the study tried to give insight into how organisations can improve effectiveness through cultivating working environments favourable to its employees’ well-being, a lot can be achieved through investigations on the governing laws and agreed business models to understand issues of power relations between government representatives and investor representatives involved.

While the study is centred in the industrial psychology, its emphasis on the need for a holistic approach towards the understanding of employee well-being can be useful to other disciplines such as Industrial Relations, Human Resources Management and Talent Management. That the
current study was located in the Zimbabwean diamond mining industry brings the Zimbabwean context into the limited business and or psychological understanding of miners’ literature on Zimbabwe. In light of global interests towards diamond mining and processing, employees’ well-being is becoming a major aspect. This study therefore provides areas for consideration for a comprehensive achievement of employees’ well-being. It advances a view that a company’s system that harmoniously interacts with a socio-political environment which incorporates employees’ interests and values provides for business viability. The implication of this to the already established instruments that measure employees’ well-being is the need for inquiry on those aspects that determine the extent to which the socio-political environment affects one’s functionality at work.

However, this study is not immune to some limitations. By focusing on one company, the results cannot be generalised. This is not least because what is happening in the studied company may not be the same with what happens in other companies. While the study combined both qualitative and quantitative methods for the purposes of triangulation, the qualitative method relied only on interviews. The use of focus groups could have generated more information and discussion from the participants. This would have helped to address the problem or fear that workers will not be exhaustive and rather be selective with the information they provided for the study.

Key Words: Employee well-being, Marange, diamond mining, Ubuntu, socio-political environment.
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REMARKS

The Researcher wishes to bring the following to the attention of the reader that this thesis followed the Referencing and Editorial style prescribed by the Publication Manual (6th Edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA). This is the style stipulated for academic documents in the School of Applied Human Sciences at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

1 Introduction

Change in the global economic activity from developed to developing markets has seen Africa becoming the focus of the world. However, the existence of unpredictable socioeconomic conditions has presented many challenges around skills development, well-functioning organisations, talent supply, to the people management discipline(s) such as Human Resources Management (HRM) and Industrial psychology (Bloom & Reenen, 2010).

Labour unrest as well as industry crippling protests characterises the mining industry, thus affecting not just organisational effectiveness but the national as well as international economic performances (Hawken, Lovins & Lovins, 2013). Such a state has attracted different forms of research not only in business management but also across academic fields such as social sciences, organisational behaviour to mention but a few. In order to add knowledge on humane approaches towards organisational effectiveness, research has taken direction towards employees as well as employers’ centred approaches. One reason for getting to understand employees’ psychological states and well-being is the value placed on positive workforce in providing competitive advantage for the 21st century (Achor, 2010).

In this regard, organisational citizenship behaviour has become one-way managers use to observe if their employees’ capacity is effectively maximised (Stampe & Masterson, 2002). Organisations strive to ensure organisational citizenship behaviour through catering for their employees’ well-being. Despite efforts by organisations to reward employees with high salaries and wages as well as providing them with different
welfare services, some employees continue to exhibit below average organisational citizenship behaviours.

The researcher’s concentration as an industrial psychology scholar with greater interest in positive psychology is on employees’ experiences and their perceptions of the best practises and or ethos towards organisational effectiveness. A previous study on employees’ levels of work engagement, job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation in one on the diamond mining companies in Marange (Masvaure, Ruggunun & Maharaj, 2014) revealed that miners were averagely intrinsically motivated and engaged but highly satisfied in their work.

It is clear from the findings that there was a problem with the psychological well-being of the employees regardless of the fact that the employees were well remunerated and resourced to perform their duties. A pertinent question that remained unanswered is why employees had low levels of motivation and engagement. A conjectured consideration of this question attributed the findings to the fact that the scope of the study was limited to internal organisational factors without a consideration of the broader social context within which Marange diamond-mining industry operates.

This study seeks to find ways in which employees can meaningfully contribute towards organisational effectiveness. The study brings forth employees’ and management’s perceptions on work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship, with the intention of developing a human-centred and geo-culturally positioned model for organisational effectiveness that provides for the working conditions, values, beliefs and practises of employees within Africa.

To accomplish this task, the study sought to establish from the perspective of employees of one diamond mine in Marange diamond fields in eastern Zimbabwe factors that
account for their organisational citizenship behaviours and possible ways through which their work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment can be improved. From a perspective that humans are social relational beings, the study seeks a comprehensive understanding of the likely role on employees’ psychological well-being of the social context of the organisation in terms of the major issues that are currently, or are likely to affect them.

In this introductory chapter to the study, an overview of the Zimbabwean diamond mining industry is provided. Insight is given into how delicate the well-being of employees operating in a turbulent environment can become. The chapter particularly highlights the acknowledged social, political and economic factors linked to the controversy characterising diamond extraction in Marange, Zimbabwe (Saunders & Nyamunda, 2016). Also previewed is the intervention that the Zimbabwean government has put in place to overcome the challenges.

It is the same intervention, viewed in the context of the larger social context and its relationship to employee psychological well-being and organisational citizenship that this entire thesis questions. This fundamentally ties into the objectives of the study: to establish what the employees think is the best way to improve their psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviours.

1.1 Background to Marange business environment

Economic development has become a major focus for many nations. The ability of a nation to fully utilise its manpower especially in the transformation of earth’s resources into wealth has been pointed as one major factor towards the realisation of economic growth (Dumphy, Griffiths, & Ben, 2003).
The transformation of earth’s resources into wealth through diamond mining and export is one way Zimbabwean government hopes to recover from economic depression. However, the emergence into spotlight of diamond mining in Zimbabwe came into focus in 2008 upon the formalization of the extraction of the gem in Marange diamond fields where mining had started as an illegal activity by artisanal miners in 2006 (Chimonyo, Mungure, & Scott, 2013). The illegal diamond mining was banned as it postured threat not only to the international law regulating marketing of diamonds but to the physical environment and local community (Madewe & Madewe, 2016; Ruguwa, 2016).

In 2008, the Government involved the police and the army to remove the illegal diamond miners and resisting community members (Chiponda, 2016). This resulted in the death of many artisanal miners (Nyamunda, 2016), with then prompted the International regulatory authorities in the diamond mining industry such as the Kimberley Processing Certification (KPC) to advocate for Marange diamonds to be classified as bloody or conflict diamonds (Chimonyo et al., 2013; Saunders & Nyamunda, 2016). Indeed, there was an international ban on trading of Marange diamonds.

Meanwhile Zimbabwe had been suffering severe economic depression emanating from a polarised political environment between major opponent political parties the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) and the governing Zimbabwe African National Union - Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) government which had influenced placement of most employees in different companies to maintain its popularity in the constituency (Chimonyo et al., 2013; Saunders, 2016).
This controversy and instability characterised organisational environment of companies that were engaged when regularisation of diamond mining started in 2009. However, after some protracted monitoring through KPCS, the first permissible export of diamonds by companies operating in Marange was in 2010 (Chimonyo et al., 2013). Despite this, transparency issues in the export of diamonds persist and the government continues seeking ways of strengthening its capacity to guarantee transparency and accountability in the diamond industry.

Between 2009 and January 2016, there were seven mining companies extracting diamonds in Marange namely, Anjin, Jinan, Mbada, Marange Resources, DMC, Kusena and Gynyame. Currently, operations at all these mines have been halted since February 2016 when government took over diamond extraction in Chiadzwa and consolidated the mines into one government vehicle, the Zimbabwe Consolidated Diamond Company (ZCDC) as part of its continued efforts to curb corruption and revenue leakages. At the time of compilation of this thesis, the consolidated mine was not yet fully operational. Many employees of former companies were yet to be re-engaged.

Government takeovers as well as business mergers among many other organisational dynamics affect relationships within organisations. Changing workforce demographics and management also affect values and business ethics. The default responses to these challenges are layoffs, job transfers, reduced working hours and contract employment (Perrewe, Halbesleben, & Rosen, 2012). These changes in business trends exert psychological pressure on employees and affect their well-being. The net effect is plain: negative impact on organisational effectiveness.
Having been exposed as an employee of the then Jinan Mining Company (then joint venture between the government of Zimbabwe and the Chinese government) as well as Marange Resources (Pvt) Ltd Company as a researcher, different approaches to business were noted. Coupled with the turbulence in the socio-political environment in the Marange diamond mining industry, it became interesting to have an understanding of how employees’ psychological well-being and their citizenship behaviours were being influenced in the industry.

Establishing whether employees behave the same when faced with different company systems and unstable socio-political environment help in validating the already established instruments on measuring the psychological well-being of employees especially when understanding aspects of work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviours specifically in the mining industry.

The juxtaposition of the social environment and organisational dynamics and their role on the psychological well-being of employees is a new practice in industrial psychology as a discipline whose focus is mainly on the cognitive aspects of work. The objective of the present study is to examine how the socio political environment affects employee psychological well-being and organisational citizenship.

The study assessed Zimbabwean employees of a one diamond mining company that operated in Marange diamond fields in Eastern Zimbabwe between October 2012 and January 2016. It examined employees’ well-being through exploring aspects of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship within the socio-political environment prevailing in Zimbabwe diamond mining industry.
The study aimed at finding ways in which the Zimbabwean social and political environment affects, and can be integrated in organisational activities to enhance employees’ well-being when at work, and ultimately organisational efficiency.

The approach adopted for the current study facilitates the understanding of an employee not just from an individual cognitive but from an ecological approach that takes into consideration that human behaviour is affected by a host of internal and external factors characterising the immediate and broader environment.

This approach is premised on the assumption that their social, cultural and political environment can affect organisational interventions and practices aimed at enhancing employees’ well-being. An appreciation of their environment is thus important in any attempt aimed at finding effective ways of enhancing work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship which are all important in achieving organisational effectiveness.

It is in this context that this thesis attempts to mobilise Zimbabwean miners’ perceptions to develop a model that can be utilized for the enhancement of their organisational effectiveness through an approach that accounts for their working conditions, values, cultural beliefs, as well as the socio-political environment.

1.2 General objective

In light of the foregoing, the general objective of the current study is to determine the likely role that the business’ social context may have on the psychological well-being and organisational citizenship among employees of Marange diamond mining company employees. The ultimate aim is to find comprehensive ways through which managers can foster psychological well-being of miners operating in a turbulent business
environment such as that prevailing in Marange diamond mining industry as captured in Saunders & Nyamunda’s (2016) collection of essays.

1.2.1 Specific objectives

In order to achieve the above main objectives, the study comprised both quantitative and qualitative objectives.

The following are specific objectives for the quantitative part of the study.

1. To determine the psychometric properties of the research instruments;
2. To determine the relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship;
3. To determine the extent to which work engagement predict organisational citizenship;
4. To determine the extent to which psychological empowerment predict organisational citizenship;
5. To investigate the extent to which job satisfaction predict organisational citizenship

The qualitative specific objectives for the study involve the following;

1. To determine managers’ perceptions of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship among low level employees
2. To determine workers’ representatives’ perceptions of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship among low level employees
3. To elicit views of managers and worker representatives on the possible role of the socio-political environment on workers’ engagement and psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship.

1.3 Research questions

In order to fulfil the stated quantitative objectives for the current study, the following questions are considered:

1. What is the relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship?

2. To what extent does work engagement predict organisational citizenship?

3. To what extent does psychological empowerment predict organisational citizenship?

4. To what extent does job satisfaction predict organisational citizenship?

The following questions fulfilled the qualitative objectives for the study:

5. What are the managers’ and workers’ representatives’ perceptions on the levels of, and factors contributing to work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship of their employees?

6. What do managers’ and worker representatives’ perceive as the role of the socio-political environment on the workers’ engagement and psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship?

7. In what ways can organisations design effective employment interventions for promoting psychological well-being and organisational citizenship of mining employees?
A consideration of the above questions provides an understanding on how employee psychological well-being and organisational citizenship can be ensured. Improving the psychological well-being of employees is an important aspect that contributes to organisational competitiveness, and will undoubtedly be beneficial not only to organisations extracting diamonds in Marange but also other within and beyond Zimbabwean borders. This brings to bear the importance of this study outlined below.

1.4 Rationale of the study

A number of reasons impelled this study, the major one being the need to enhance employee well-being and ultimately organisational effectiveness. Many institutions and organisations face challenges in scheming suitable wellness curricula and culturally appropriate interventions that are situational and targeted for specific groups (Birt, Wallis, & Winternitz, 2004). For most organisations operating in South Africa and Zimbabwe where organisations are market driven and there is emerging growth in education rates on their population(s), employee retention has become a major challenge. This has resulted in serious considerations on issues to do with employee well-being especially with policy makers (Chazuza, Negwaiya, & Mapira, 2013; OECD, 2008).

The other reason for carrying out this research is due to the perceived benefits of employee involvement and well-being, practices which have been side lined in business operations especially in the mining sector (Baptiste, 2008). Salary deductions for absenteeism and increased work stresses are compelling organisations to devise solutions on matters that affect employees’ well-being. As such, employee well-being and involvement have gained influence on the global response to organisational ineffectiveness where previously silent employees can now be part in finding solutions to organisational problems (Robinson & Gifford, 2014).
Despite it being a major concern since colonisation, employee well-being in Zimbabwe focus mainly on HIV and AIDS, to the extent of coming up with some guiding policies at workplaces (National AIDS Council Zimbabwe, 2010). Participation of employees in the response of organisational ineffectiveness has been of greater importance in developing policies and programs towards organisational effectiveness (Medal, 2008). Despite the value placed on them, employees have been having a feeling of disappointment concerning their participation in organisational matters (Kiefer & Muller, 2003).

Another reason for conducting the current study relates to the relevance of employee well-being in light of the broader concept of positive psychology, which focuses on promoting the best in human behaviour through going beyond the disease model in enhancing understanding of healthy human functioning (Baumgardner & Crothers, 2010). Although there has been a shift from negative psychology, most studies on employee well-being have focused more on hope, forgiveness and particularly on HIV AIDS especially in Zimbabwe (Parsons, Reeler, Fisher, & Mpande, 2011).

However, the physical and emotional benefits of positive emotions are not merely a product of one’s discretion or choice as both the social and psychological environments play a greater role (CRITEOS, 2009). In line with Seligman’s well-being framework, aspects of positive emotion, engagement, positive relationships and positive accomplishments are very pertinent for the understanding of ways in which employees can meaningfully contribute to organisational goals.

In this context, culture is one major factor influencing individual behaviour since it provides the perspective of life that nurtures knowledge creation, perceptions, sharing of meanings and behaviour changes (Dutta, 2011). By taking the above into
consideration, it is unarguable that to be effective, interventions towards organisational effectiveness through employee well-being must be sensitive to a people’s culture to an extent that transformation is meaningful to the concerned employees.

As such, the current study elicits perceptions or views of management and shop floor employees of a diamond mining company in Marange, Zimbabwe on what they think can be done to improve employees’ well-being in light of work engagement, psychological empowerment, organisational citizenship and job satisfaction.

1.5 Potential value of the study
This study has potential to refine and expand literature on well-being and involvement through an inter-disciplinary approach to understand employee psychological well-being. The study appeals to theories of different disciplines such as industrial psychology, management and social studies in addressing employees concerns, which organisations can use to improve well-being and involvement at work. These are psychological empowerment theory (Velthouse, 1960); Systems theory (Von Bertalanffy, 1968); Ubuntu management theory (Broodryk, 2005); and the Social ecology model (Kincaid et al., 2007) respectively.

The study further seeks to develop appropriate interventions towards effectiveness in the mining industry, especially in the Zimbabwean context, where political instability characterises the industry. This is triggered by the need to accept the existence of diversity and its influence on generalizability of findings especially on the four constructs under study.

The study also explores, define and conceptualise management and employees’ perceptions on the aspects of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship and their influence on well-being. Thus, a
culture-centred ecological well-being model towards organisational effectiveness is suggested. Researches around organisational citizenship behaviour (Eisele & D’Amato, 2011; Rego, Ribeiro, & Cunha, 2010), job involvement (Biswa, 2011) and work attitudes (O’Neill & Arendt, 2008) among others, have been conducted to determine the extent to which the work environment enable positive psychological well-being for employees.

Analysis of this research reveals a scant attention on a culture centred model of the employee involvement with the mediating effect of the psychological empowerment, organisational citizenship, job satisfaction, work engagement and the resultant impact on employees’ well-being. This study is thus important to the extent that it aims at improving in a culturally appropriate way employee effectiveness as well as organisational effectiveness in turbulent environment characterising the mining industry especially in Southern Africa.

1.6 Structure of thesis

In order to accomplish the task that the study set out to undertake, this thesis comprises the following seven chapters:

**Chapter One: ‘Introduction’** This is the introductory chapter that spells out the research problem, objectives and research questions.

**Chapter Two: ‘Literature Review and Conceptual Framework’** comprises of three broader sections that review literature on key dimensional areas and concepts that underlie this study. The first section locates the global diamond mining industry in its socio-political environment, examining the political economy of diamond mining in Southern Africa and the environment within which the Zimbabwean diamond mining industry operates. The second section interrogates the nexus between employee well-
being and organisational effectiveness. Employees are viewed here as the lifeblood of an organisation but are also part of a broader social context of the industry. The chapter ends by reviewing four key concepts guiding the study namely Work Engagement (WE), Psychological Empowerment (PE) Job Satisfaction (JS) and Organisational Citizenship (OC).

**Chapter Three:** “Theoretical Framework” examines two theories used as an overarching theoretical lens through which the psychological well-being and organisational citizenship in this study must be viewed. The two are Systems theory and Ubuntu management philosophy. The theories provide tools for a philosophical engagement with questions on how human resources management practitioners, industrial psychologists and managers can ensure employees’ psychological well-being and organisational citizenship in ways that cater for both the organisations’ interests as well as employees’ needs.

**Chapter Four:** “Research Methodology” outlines the mixed methods research approach employed for this study. The study area, population, sampling method as well as data analysis methods are discussed.

**Chapter Five:** “Quantitative Results” presents the quantitative results of the study. Results of all the tests run to determine and predict relationships between variables such inferential statistics and regression analysis among others are presented.

**Chapter Six:** “Qualitative findings” presents qualitative findings on participants’ perceptions on key factors that they think affect their well-being and organisational citizenship behaviours.

**Chapter Seven:** “Discussion”, Conclusions & Recommendations” is the final chapter that draws conclusions and suggests ways for diamond mining companies in Zimbabwe
to ensure improvement of their employees’ psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviours. The chapter suggests an ecological model for achieving this. The model is informed by miners’ perceptions, their experiences as well as theory. Limitations and problems of the model are identified and recommendations for future research endeavors are suggested.

1.7 Definition of terms

The thesis structure outlined above attempts to ensure a coherent unfolding of the narrative about the socio-political environment of Marange diamond mining industry and the role it may have on psychological well-being and organisational citizenship of diamond miners in Zimbabwe. In this narrative, different key terms have been used that require to be defined at the outset in order to enable the reader to understand the study in its appropriate context. The following terms and concepts require clarification.

**Employees:** Any individual working for the diamond mining company and has signed a fixed term contract with the company where a relationship of boss subordinate exists and there is exchange of labour with remuneration.

**Management:** Any individual, who occupies a senior position in the diamond mining company, has subordinates who report to him/her and is involved in policy formulation and strategy implementation.

**Job satisfaction:** A positive assessment by an employee(s) on their psychological, environmental and physical circumstances combined together, resulting in them being content with their job.

**Marange diamond mining industry:** A group of diamond mining companies operating in the eastern part of Zimbabwe where vast diamond fields were discovered in 2006. It is important to note that Marange diamond mining is also referred to as Chiadzwa
diamond mining because the diamonds were discovered in the Chiadzwa area under Marange district.

**Organisational citizenship behaviour:** Individual employee’s behaviour that is voluntary, not directly or openly acknowledged by the formal reward system and that in totality, promotes the effective running of the mine.

**Psychological well-being:** A process of augmenting feelings of self-confidence of employees through detecting those conditions that foster powerlessness.

**Employees’ well-being:** The ability of an employee to have an active state of pursuing health and life skills aimed at achieving physical and emotional health, as provided by the company’s system and environment. Thus, resulting to enhanced psychological well-being and citizenship behaviours.

**Turbulent socio-political environment:** The power dynamics understood from social values that emanate from the turbulence in the political economy of the diamond industry, individual interactions and cultural beliefs of the company’s stakeholders particularly its work force. Saunders and Nyamunda’s (2016) collection of essays *Facets of Power: Politics, Profits and People in the Making of Zimbabwe’s blood diamonds* effectively capture the troubling trajectory of diamond mining in Marange.

**Work engagement:** A positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind comprising vigour, absorption and dedication.

**1.8 Conclusion**

The chapter comprised of the introduction and background to the study that provided a detailed background to Marange business environment. It outlined both the general objective and specific objectives to the study. Furthermore, the chapter spelt out the key research questions and argumentation for conducting the study. The chapter also gave
a summary of the potential value of the study and structure of the thesis. It concluded by an outline of definition of major terms used in the study.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter comprises three major sections that review literature on key dimensional areas and concepts that underlie this study. The first section provides an overview of the global diamond mining industry, locating the industry in its socio-political environment. The second section interrogates the nexus between employee well-being and organisational effectiveness. The ultimate aim is to highlight the socio-political environment within which the Zimbabwean diamond mining industry operates. The chapter ends by reviewing the conceptual framework guiding this study.

2.2 The political economy of diamond mining in Southern Africa

This section examines the political economy in respect of ownership and control struggles of diamond mining, which play out at global, national and local levels. The section examines how the economic and political state of a nation determines industrial relations in its diamond mining industry.

The current political economy of diamonds in Africa is defined by the recent history of conflict arising from the trade of the precious gem by rebel groups in diamond producing countries such as Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Sierra Leon and Angola and (see Global Witness; 1998; Wright, 2004). Until the late 19th century, few countries such as India and Brazil produced diamonds and their annual production in the entire world was very limited (Chimonyo et al., 2013). Meanwhile, the diamond price largely contingent on the scarceness of the mineral.

However, the discovery in 1870 of huge diamond fields in South Africa changed the political economy of diamonds that had begun to flood the market. To control the
production and trade of diamonds on the world market, key investors in South Africa combined their interests into one company, De Beers Consolidated Mines, Ltd which owned and controlled all the diamond mines in Southern Africa and backed the biggest diamond trading companies in Europe and Israel (Chimonyo, Mungure, & Scott, 2011). Through its campaign, ‘Diamonds are forever’ De Beers promoted the gem as a must-have on every engagement ring (Epstein, 1982; Andrews, 2006).

However, in the 1990s through a campaign by the world’s natural resource watchdog Global Witness that exposed how Africa’s resources, especially diamonds fuelled civil wars in countries like the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Sierra Leone and Angola (Perry, 2010; Tull, 2009), African diamonds became associated with conflict and human suffering. Global Witness’ report “A Rough Trade – The Role of Companies and Governments in the Angolan Conflict” (Global Witness, 1988) explains how armed conflicts in Angola and in Sierra Leone were extended due to the unlawful trade of rough diamonds by dissidents in exchange with weapons.

In the light of civil wars in the DRC, Sierra Leone and Angola owing to the illegal trade of diamonds, government officials, NGO workers and activists urged the international community and diamond brokers to establish ways to monitor the trade of these precious minerals. This again another player in the control of diamonds: the international community.

2.2.1 The Kimberley Process

The first attempt by the international community to monitor and control diamonds trade was in 1997 when the United Nations originated a mechanism to sanction diamond trade by Angola’s rebel group, the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) (Wright, 2004). The targeted sanctions were later imposed on Sierra
Leone and other countries and companies including De Beers that had been very active in the UNITA controlled Angolan diamond (Global Witness, 1998).

At the dawn of the millennium, the then three largest diamond producing countries, Botswana, South Africa and Namibia initiated informal talks with the United States, Belgium and the United Kingdom to develop a system of regulations and protections to prevent the trade in conflict diamonds (Grant, & Taylor, 2004; Wright, 2004). The voluntary negotiation process started in early 2000 with a meeting in Kimberley, South Africa. This process led to the birth of the now commonly known “Kimberley Process Certification Scheme” (KPCS) that was adopted in November 2002 by the worldwide diamond industry converging in Interlaken Switzerland (Grant & Taylor, 2004; Wright, 2004) and later endorsed by the UN Security Council.

Among many other minimum requirements that parties must meet, members of the KPCS agreed to two principles aimed at prohibiting participants from:

a. Importing packages of rough diamonds into their own terrain unless a Kimberley Process certificate is given out by the exporting government; and

b. Trading in rough diamonds with non-participants (Global Witness, 2004; Perry, 2010; Wright, 2004).

c. Wright, 2004; In light of the foregoing, there are three different categories of players in the diamond mining industry. These are the international community, the state, and illegal dealers. What this suggests is the existence of the formal and informal sectors.

The formal sector comprises governments, local and foreign companies that are regulated by the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiatives (EITI) which stipulate
specific industrial mining methods and standards. The informal sector comprises artisanal miners in which illicit dealers extract minerals independently.

The mining companies are faced with joining global forces, such as ever-tightening regulation, unprecedented commodity price volatility, unrelenting cost inflation and mounting labour shortages disturbing mining companies (Report to Society, 2010). The industry has also been faced with a challenge of demand for heightened corporate social responsibility. Lack of transparency in the management of diamonds was reported to have not only failed to allow for a fair and efficient distribution of profits for the benefit of local people but also to artisanal mining as well as community resistance and clashes with regulatory authorities (Chiponda, 2016).

To improve the contributions by diamond companies to their employees’ well-being and other different stakeholders, the South African Mining Charter crafted empowerment objectives that all mines including diamond mines must adhere to. These include increased procurement from HDSA communities, employment equity, human resources development, mine community and rural development, non-discrimination of migrant labourers, improvement of housing and living conditions, increase in beneficiation and change in ownership / management and joint ventures (Morris & Mintek, 2010).

Most diamond producing countries are also faced with, deteriorating grades, declining access to deposits, lofty commodity prices and spiking global demand (Leff, 2008). This has forced countries such as Zimbabwe, DRC and Angola to think that consolidation of local diamond firms will bring sanity to the industry since the prevailing situation intensified mining companies’ desire for geographic and economic risk.
2.2.2 The Zimbabwean diamond mining industry

The emergence into spotlight of diamond mining in Zimbabwe came into focus in 2008 upon the discovery of diamond fields in Marange. This is regardless of the presence of other already existing private diamond miners around the country such as Murowa Diamonds in Zvishavane, Midlands Province and Rivers Ranch in Beitbridge, Matabeleland South Province.

Diamond mining in Marange started as an illegal activity carried out by community members who found out that there were diamonds in the area by observing visits by De Beers’ staff who had been granted a prospecting licence by the government (Chimonyo et al., 2013; Saunders & Nyamunda, 2016). Diamond companies like De Beers and Africa Consolidated Resources (ACR) had been conducting explorations since 2006, but the companies are reported to have never disclosed the existence of large diamond deposits in the area (The Zimbabwe Independent, October 3, 2006; Le Billion & Levin, 2009).

Initially, locals were not aware of the exact value but as soon as they turn out to be aware that the mineral was very valuable, a ‘diamond rush’ into the area, which enticed the attention of the international buyers and miners who determinedly established themselves in the diamond mining and trading activity (Martin, 2016). Meanwhile it the government had been losing between US $40 million and US $50 million a week through illicit diamond marketing (Sachikonye, 2007). There was also reported exploitation and use of involuntary labour of adults and children as well as ruthless killings (Mawowa, 2013).

In order to give transparency to diamond mining, the government intervened around 2008 by involving the army and police in the removal of those involved in informal
diamond mining and trading (Maguwu, 2016; Saunders, 2016). This intervention by government led into a conflict that reportedly saw many people being killed during clean-up exercise (Ciponda, 2016; Madewe & Madewe, 2016). However, this marked the beginning of formal diamond extraction in Marange under the control of government. Upon the discovery of Marange diamonds, Zimbabwe believed to have found the richest diamond field ever seen in the world (Partnership Africa Canada, 2009).

Unfortunately, at this time an international ban of Zimbabwe diamonds had been imposed owing to the above conflict and other reported human rights abuses that were associated with diamond discovery and mining in Marange (Saunders, 2016). A KPCS fact-finding mission in 2009 suggested an urgent demilitarisation of the fields and the country was placed under a Joint Work Plan to ensure that Zimbabwe’s diamond industry met the KPCS requirements (Saunders, 2016). By September 2010, some companies in Marange had obtained KPCS certification, which meant that Marange diamonds from these companies could be traded on the open international market (Chimonyo et al., 2013).

2.2.3 Ownership and control of the Marange diamond industry

During the time this study was conducted, there were seven diamond mining companies operating in Marange namely Anjin, Jinan, Mbada, Marange Resources, DMC, Kusena and Gynyame. Some of these companies were co-owned by the Zimbabwean government through its mining vehicle Zimbabwe Minerals Development Company (ZMDC) and different investors from other countries in a 50-50 ownership arrangement. The Zimbabwe government wholly owned Marange Resources and had a 50% stake in Mbada Diamonds, which it co-owned with South African investors. Other miners, Anjin Zimbabwe and Jinan (Pvt) Ltd were both 50-50 joint ventures between
the Zimbabwean and Chinese governments. The government also had a 50-50 share arrangement with DMC.

However, the government had during this time made known to all stakeholders its intentions to consolidate all diamond mining activities in Marange into a single entity of De Beers’ proportions; the Zimbabwe Consolidated Diamond Company (ZCDC) under which all diamond companies would merge their interests. This was aimed at ensuring transparency in the diamond mining industry as well as curbing corruption and revenue leakages.

Revenue estimates were that Marange diamonds should provide over US$1 billion per month in revenue’ (Makochekanwa, 2009). The Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, (2009) estimated that due to lack of proper institutional, orderly and legal framework for diamond mining, the country was losing at least US$1, 2 billion per month. The annual income from diamonds was estimated to be at minimum around US$12 billion (Mukochekanwa, 2009).

But in a delayed interview to commemorate his 92nd birthday celebrations on the national broadcaster Zimbabwe Broadcasting Corporation (ZBC) on March 3 2016, President Robert Mugabe revealed that since 2008, Treasury received not more than US$2 billion in diamond revenues in spite of earning over US$ 15 billion.

*We have not received much from the diamond industry at all. I don’t think we have exceeded $2 billion, yet we think more than $15 billion has been earned ... Lots of smuggling and swindling has taken place and the companies that have been mining, I want to say, robbed us of our wealth (The Standard, March 14, 2016)*
It was amidst the above controversial and unstable socio-political environment characterised by takeover threats and mergers of the Marange diamond mining industry that this study was conducted.

Despite some milestones achieved in addressing the situation, transparency issues in the export of diamonds persisted and the government continued seeking ways of strengthening its capacity to warrant transparency and answerability in the diamond industry. During the time this study was unfolding, the government was not happy with diamond operations at Chiadzwa, citing on top of other reasons that the companies did not make an effort to renew their operating licenses and as such, companies have to cease operations. A call had been made for consolidation of all mining companies to form a new entity under the name Zimbabwe Consolidation Diamond Mining Company (ZCDC), with the investors retaining their 50% ownership and government also owning 50%.

However, the mining companies did not comply forcing government through its agents, to down tools all miners at Marange on the 22nd of February 2016. Companies were given up to the 22nd of May 2016 to vacate their premises so as to pave way for the new company ZCDC. An agreement to absorb all the employees from the diamond mining companies was made by the government; with some employees already working under the new company (ZCDC). The continued practice of alluvial mining adopted by the newly formed consolidated company is not bringing the expected changes needed by the government of Zimbabwe. With few successful case studies on state participation in diamond mining (Debswana in Botswana and Namdeb in Namibia) what remains to be seen is whether Zimbabwe’s case will help resolve government’s effort to raise revenue and create more employment from the diamond sector.
In the foregoing, the researcher attempted to show how the company under study is structured. In this context, it is important to appreciate industrial relations within the diamond mining sector especially in one of the companies that operates within such an industry. This is important in understanding the background of labour issues in the diamond industry.

2.3 Diamond mining industry and its industrial relations

Place, economic and political state of a nation determines its industrial relations. With the presence of diverse perspectives or approaches to labour relations: societal corporatism, state corporatism and unitarism, pluralism (Moolina & Rhodes, 2002), autocratic unitarism is the most implemented approach to labour relations by most employer organisations globally (Finnermore, 2010). With today’s globalised world such an approach can be a threat to the success of business operations. Liberal pluralism, where the welfares of all groups are considered (Reddy, 1987), can be the best approach given the prevailing business environment and the call for consideration of employees needs towards the achievement of business’ goals.

With pluralism dominant in countries like the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, France and Italy, in most parts of Africa, power resides in employers, with corporations entering into individual contracts with employees in a bid to avoid union representation. With unions trying to make the voice of employees heard by employers, the process is hampered by employers’ organisational restructuring plans to meet global challenges for enhanced productivity (Finnermore, 2008). Other causes such as outsourcing and the use of part-time and contract employees led to loss of trade union membership in many companies, resulting in continued manipulation of employees.
For South Africa, a number of challenges have seen affecting the mining industry with large-scale retrenchment disturbing both the employees and the unions’ financial resources. Persisting fights between unions in South Africa are good examples of the debates surrounding industrial relations within the mining sector. Providing this rendering is the South African Police Service shooting and killing of miners at Lonmin Platinum mine in Marikana during an unprotected industrial action demanding wage increment (Twala, 2012). An understanding of industrial relations in South Africa’s mining industry is important for the current study considering the contribution the sector has made to the South African economy, yet the negative commentary on industrial relations issues. This understanding creates a dais for appreciating industrial relations on a broader scale, with South Africa being the contiguous case for the current study.

2.3.1 Industrial relations in South Africa mining industry

To have a thorough appreciation and the reasons to the prevailing employees’ behaviours, systems and overally labour relations in the mining industry, current trends in labour relations should be understood in the context of labour relations during apartheid. The development of a new labour act in post-apartheid era was a way to redress the social and economic imbalances caused by apartheid. With its roots on some of the institutions of the past, the new act mirrored a totally new path for labour relations in South Africa, reflected by the change from an adversarial pluralist form to a societal corporatism form. These amendments were followed by other legislations such as the Employment Equity Act, Basic Conditions of Employment Act and the Skills Development Act.

Appreciating work relations between an employer and an employee is not just important for organisational effectiveness, but also to the entire nation in terms of economic
growth. With the above mentioned legislations in place, confusion continues to be evidenced in South Africa’s mining sector with most of the problems surrounding industrial relations. This becomes interesting given the perceived status of South Africa of being the most civilized and economically powerful nation. The inadequacy of the standing regulations in resolving concerns between employers and employees resulted in strikes, for instances at AngloGold Ashanti mine, and Atlatscha Resources. The image of the industry and of the country has been tarnished and investor confidence in this industry and South Africa has been negatively affected (DMR, Framework for Peace and Stability in the Mining Industry, 2013). The resultants of these challenges are disagreements, negative emotions, pessimism and lack of trust in organisations; this can be summarised as dissatisfaction and unhappiness.

Although the context of operations within the diamond sector could be different, industrial relations in Africa have similar characteristics despite being governed by different regulations. Below is an account of industrial relations in Zimbabwe.

2.3.2 Industrial relations in Zimbabwe

With the controversial land reform program in place, it has been fascinating to study Zimbabwe in areas around politics and economic viability. A number of studies have been conducted on Zimbabwe especially on the Zimbabwean economy (Ncube, 2000). Job creation in Zimbabwe has been difficult due to socio-political factors characterising the country especially the imposition of sanctions, which lead to high unemployment rate in the country (Masvaure, Ruggunun & Maharaj, 2014). Labour market’s role in economic development as well as in transmission of both internal and external policy shocks (Ncube, 2000), pose the importance to understand Zimbabwe’s labour market, especially from the Industrial Relations perspective, since it will provide a response to the majority of research questions guiding the current study.
For Zimbabwe, the colonial labour market behaved far different from the post-Independence labour market. Like during apartheid in South Africa, colonial labour market in Zimbabwe was characterised by racial discrimination. During the colonisation era, labour policies were guided by the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 (Ncube, 2000). During this era, black African employees’ welfare and interests were not recognised to an extent that they could not systematise any forum that determined employment conditions. This situation derived benefits to the employer in the form of cheap labour with the ordinary Zimbabweans, who were Rhodesians by then, continue experiencing the unfair treatment leaving them stuck in the same jobs for years (Ncube, 2000).

As time passed, employers recognised the advantage of having a steady and enduring labour force compared with casual labour (Schultz, 1997), subsequent to formations of African labour unions. However, these unions were not real as they were used as a medium to control and not to protect workers’ rights. This saw African unions being unable to control employee related matters especially on wage adjustments and their right to strike.

Change in labour policies were however noted in the Post-independence era. Africans continue to resist the ban of unions for Africans and the presence of a white, unionised workforce push for a well encompassing structure to deal with labour management. This impelled the nomination of industrial councils by the government for the once unionised workforce. In addition was the establishment of Industrial boards for the non-unionised workers, whose role was to recommend wage adjustments to government. Here, government’s involvement in labour issues resulted in the formation of trade unions such as the Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions (ZCTU) (Mwamadzingo & Saleshando, 2003).
The government of Zimbabwe showed its commitment in advancing workers’ interests through ZCTU by launching an advice-giving forum in 1996, resulting in the formation of a consultative body with diverse representation to address socio-economic issues at national level (Torres, 1997). Like most trade unions, the politicisation of ZCTU (Onslow, 2011) made it incapable to meet its responsibilities of signifying workers’ interests, resulting in its failure. Moreover, the economic crisis in Zimbabwe is one possible contributor to the catastrophe of ZCTU.

However, the need for efficiency and effectiveness among labour unions continue to exist especially with the continued discovery of minerals like diamonds in Zimbabwe where more labour issues are experienced and high expectations from the sector towards economic growth. This denotes a greater need for a worthwhile board, which will control operations, especially those that are associated with associations among relevant stakeholders.

In most countries, the issue of wages has been the major cry for most workers and Zimbabwe is not an exception. With research pointing to the fact that incomes in rural and urban markets are different, the basis of income in the rural was found to be wage employment followed by remittances. Another study found employment to be a major source of income for urban dwellers (Ncube, 2000). The location of diamond mines in Zimbabwe’s rural, posed a possibility of exploitation of labour given the scarcity of jobs in Zimbabwe. Moreso, is the idea that most employees are employed for the first time and will not be well versed with labour laws.

Demographic factors such as gender, race and occupation among others, has also been a major issue in the mining industry of Zimbabwe. Even after gaining its independence in 1980, major disparities continued to exist in Zimbabwe. Similar trends such as
females earning lower wages than males as well as females getting inferior positions continue to be experienced, although government report to be solving such issues. As research pointed, a wide wage gap between professionals and management Europeans was noted as Asians earn about six and three time the wage of Africans (Ncube, 2000).

Compared to South Africa where labour relations are characterised by a lot of noise, uncertainty and dispute, by placing its labour relations system in a more localised governing framework, Zimbabwe upheld peace, especially within the mining sector. Union membership in Zimbabwe became unpopular especially after the ‘fall’ of the Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Union (ZCTU). Although some unions like AMMUZ tried to gain membership from diamond miners, its representation did not bear fruits to its members, resulting in most of its members withdrawing from the union.

The discovery of diamonds saw the emergence of a union called ZIDAMU representing diamond employees. Although it is new in the industry, the union managed to attract a number of members especially during the year 2015 where things were not well in the industry. During the period 2014 and 2015, the diamond industry faced a number of challenges triggered by mismanagement. Almost all the diamond mining companies in Chiadzwa had challenges in paying wages during this period, with the company under study ranked the best in terms of ‘employees’ welfare’. As a result, a number of issues between employers and employees rose, with a number of court cases recorded and a lot of strikes as well.

ZIDAMU became so popular in the diamond industry with its members hoping to get assistance in their problems. The union could have done well but it never got support from management of the surrounding companies who lacked confidence in the union and rather saw it as a tool to be used to fight companies’ interests. For instance, the
union’s entry and access to mines and its members respectively, was so restricted to an extent that its membership died. Divisions among employees were noted, exacerbated by the fear to lose their jobs because of their affiliation to ZIDAMU. Ultimately, union representation for diamond miners in Zimbabwe became limited, leaving industrial relations being managed largely at company level largely by management only.

2.4 Nexus between employee well-being and organisational effectiveness

This section provides an overview of employee well-being, its importance and that of employees’ values to an organisation. The section interrogates the location of employees’ values from a societal perspective in the well-being discourse where employees’ contribution is vital for organisational success. In addition, a further examination of the meaningfulness of the prevailing frameworks in allowing employees’ voices, values and practices in shaping well-being at work is provided.

2.4.1 Conceptualisation of employee well-being

The growing importance of employees’ health and well-being has seen employers giving more attention to strategies that enhance well-being at work (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Chenoweth, 2011). Employee well-being has also been pointed as a crucial element in the determination of a relationship between employer and employee (Shapiro & Shore, 2007). A general conception that well-being represent bio-psycho-social constructs can be drawn from the literature (Gallagher, Lopez, & Preacher, 2009; Seligman, 2011).

The current study appreciates the general conception but further argue that employee well-being also exists within a social context as supported by Canadian Centre for Management Development. The distinctive factors of well-being such as hedoinic, eudaimonic and social well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001) have seen gaps in the form of
psychometric limitations, methodological inconsistencies being identified (Seligman, 2011). Such gaps resulted in researchers such as Seligman, 2002 to embark on the positive psychology discourse towards the enhancement of well-being among employees. Thus, resulting to five (5) elements characterising well-being; positive emotion, relationships, engagement, meaning and accomplishment (Seligman, 2010).

While it is not the aim of the current study to measure Seligman’s five elements, the thesis notes some of its patterns on the elements within the four constructs under study (work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship). The study therefore seeks to contribute to the scientific world on how interventions work by identifying underlying principles. Doing so will not only provide principles, but also mediators and moderators of intervention effects that are appropriate for miners and situations in mining organisations. Thus, reducing difficulties in retaining employees, absenteeism and enhancement of employee well-being.

2.4.2 Elements of well-being

Well-being has been understood as the combination of love for what one does on a daily basis, the quality of relationships, financial security, and vibrancy of one’s physical health as well as the pride taken on what would have been contributed towards communities (Harter, Schmidt & Keyes, 2003). Five major elements characterise well-being and these include positive emotions, relationships, engagement, meaning and accomplishment (Biggio & Cortese, 2013). The current study operationalised the five elements of well-being. Below is a discussion of the five elements.

2.4.2.1 Positive emotions

Emotions in general, have been conceptualised as multicomponent reaction inclinations that develop over short time (Fredrickson, 2010). Positive emotions entail raising
positive emotions and reducing negative emotions (Seligman, 2011). A positive emotion comes after a mindful or insentient individual evaluation of personal meaning of an antecedent event (Fredrickson, 2004). Thus, positive emotions function as internal signals to approach or continue and they trigger motivation among individuals (Bickhard, 2003).

Research has further revealed that although positive emotions can occur in opposing circumstances, the distinctive context of positive emotions is not a life-threatening situation (Lewis, 2011). Therefore, “positive emotions of joy, interest, contentment, pride and love have a complementary effect” (Fredrickson, 2004, p. 1370). Positive emotions have unplanned and long-term adaptive benefits that come through durable personal resources which operates as investments to be drawn on later to manage future pressures or threats (Whitehead & Whitehead, 2012). Research has further pointed that positive emotions help loosen lingering undesirable emotions, fuel psychological resiliency and prompt upward spirals towards improved emotional well-being (Snaebjornsdottir, 2010).

2.4.2.2 Relationships
Relationships, also known as social well-being, relationships have been found to play a major role in defining who we are and what one can become (Umberson & Montez, 2010). An individual’s well-being has been found to be affected by the surrounding people, friends’ independent network of relationships (Gallup, 2010). Thus, social well-being so far, can be summarised as strong relationships and love in one’s life. This explains why most organisations are now focusing on strategies that cultivate the best out of employees. Failure to give attention to employees’ social well-being can result in them deliberately spend more time investing in networks than work.
This clearly points to a correlation between social well-being and engagement since high social well-being on individuals gives them positive energy to perform their work (Gallup, 2010). Low social well-being has also been reported to result in employees lacking confidence to utilize their strengths and ending up disliking the things or duties they perform on a daily basis (Thompson, 1998). This can result in negative effects towards work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship.

2.4.2.3 Engagement
One other element on well-being is engagement. In a bid to derive meaningfulness from work, employees in the 21st century seek to do tasks that encourage flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999; Hertel, 2008). One way to foster engagement among employees is to allow them an opportunity to share their own ideas and or stories (Helgesen, 2012). This calls for the need for organisations to develop effective strategies towards job design, working condition, corporate culture and resource support (Kanengoni, 2015). In support of this, studies found positive relationships between engagement, perceived health, social relationships and well-being (Yalabik, Popaitoon, Chowne, & Rayton, 2013).

2.4.2.4 Meaningfulness of work
People’s ability to understand whom and what their capabilities are, and the ability to see beyond their capabilities are major steps towards giving purpose and meaning to life. However, purpose and meaning to life are said to manifest through goals and clear objectives for living, thus resulting in positive self-evaluation. Meaningfulness can also be achieved through social interactions (Gallup, 2010). Research has further indicated that for people to experience meaningfulness in their lives, they would have identified
their areas of strength, passion and would have informed others of their interests, in a bid to connect with the right groups and causes (CIPD, 2010; Hayase, 2009).

2.4.3 Theories on well-being at work

The value of employees in an organisation has made employers to place emphasis on employees’ well-being (Airila, 2015). Within the psychology literature, employee well-being has been understood from happiness and positive behaviours perspectives. However, dominant in these well-being frameworks, is the end result not the process of achieving a positive state of well-being at work (Burton, 2010). For instance, the dominant theory; The Broaden and Build Theory of Positive Emotions, whose focus is mainly on how positive emotions help shape physical, psychological and social resources (Fredrickson, 2004).

According to the theory, “positive emotions are more psychological in nature and depend on the appraisal and meaning of events in people’s lives rather than just physical stimulation of the body” (Fredrickson, 2001, p. 218). This can be related to the eudaimonic conceptions of happiness, where happiness is viewed as self-realization, implying the expression and fulfilment of inner potentials (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Levit, 2014). What this implies is that pleasure detached from reality does not uphold or express our identity as individuals (Hannig, 2011). In line with this, is Waterman’s conception that “experiences of personal expressiveness occur when one fully engages in life activities that fit and express their deeply held values and sense of who they are (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 155). A good life therefore, is a product of living in harmony with one’s true self.

Although it has been in the literature that organisations and their members have an essential stake in how well characteristics of the person and environment of the
organisation apt one another, achieving coherence between employees’ needs and those of the organisation continue to be a challenge for most organisations (Burma, 2014). An operational need for assessing characteristics of the person and that of the environment along appropriate dimensions is essential (Marko & Sridevi, 2010). Giving attention to employees’ well-being does not only help individuals but it is also an influence in defining the relationship between employer and employee (Bickford, 2005).

Interestingly, researches revealed that most if not all organisations have an approach to employee well-being, either formal or informal, with few of the companies having a strategic and coherent approach in place (Pruyne, Powell, & Parson, 2012). The implication of this is less focus by organisations on well-being especially in bad times of business operations (Markos, 2010). In Africa for example, reported numbers of strikes and uprisings at workplaces especially in the mining sectors (for example the Marikana incident), points to the restriction of resources by employers towards employee well-being.

2.4.4 Towards effective frameworks of employee well-being

Employee well-being has become popular in the world of business (Luthans, 2002). A reflection on these researches shows that most frameworks on well-being, share common factors. Put together, Pruyn, Powell and Parson (Nuffield Health, 2012), identified the following as factors that enhance effective well-being.

The above factors do point to the need for involvement on both the organisation and individual employees. However, organisations face numerous challenges on well-being. For instance, it appears difficult for organisations to inspire and back employees in achieving long-lasting behavioural change (Heckelman, Unger & Garofaro, 2013).
Although there are several reasons, one reason for such challenges is the belief that employees maybe at different stages in the change process, thus requiring different forms of support (Prochasky, 1998). Another explanation to this, is the idea that employee self-efficacy for own behavioural change as well as involvement in determining forms of organisational motivation and support often result in effective well-being programmes (Griffiths, Maggs, & George, 2007; Sturman & Ford, 2011).

![Well-being Framework](image)

**Figure 1**: Well-being Framework (Adapted from Thompson & Marks & the Centre for well-being: Nuffield Health 2012, p12).

The successful implementation of most well-being programs has to a certain extent been hindered by lack of understanding of how to define and measure success (Gichoya, 2005). Figure 1 illustrates a concise seven-step framework to guide the development
and implementation of an employee wellbeing strategy used by the Nuffield Health Centre for Well-being.

Although most organisations are willing to understand the effect of well-being interventions, measuring these interventions remains a challenge (Nuffield Health, 2012). This creates further challenges especially on evaluating the effectiveness of employee well-being programmes (Bajorek, Shreeve, Bevan, & Taskila, 2014).

2.5 Conceptual framework

This section is a discussion of work engagement and psychological empowerment, the two independent variables of the study. Since the two aspects falls within positive psychology, the chapter give a brief summary of positive psychology. This is followed by a discussion on Positive Organisational Scholarship (POS) and Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB). Furthermore, a discussion and conceptualisation of work engagement is outlined. In defining work engagement, psychological aspects of work engagement are discussed by looking at psychological availability, psychological meaningfulness and psychological safety. The section then goes on looking at the importance and prospective contribution of work engagement to the business world. Furthermore, drivers of work engagement, job resources and personal resources are reconnoitred so as to gain an understanding of how engagement can be achieved.

A discussion on the second construct, psychological empowerment then follows where the aspect is first conceptualised. An articulation of antecedents and consequences of psychological empowerment then follows.

2.5.1 Positive psychology

Positive psychology focus on three main areas namely: positive experiences that include pleasure, happiness, joy and fulfilment; positive individual traits that include
character, talents and interests; as well as positive institutions such as schools, families, communities and society and business. Engagement and meaning in work can be achieved when recrafting a job to position your strengths and qualities everyday not only marks work more enjoyable, but also transforms a repetitive job or a stalled career into a calling (Seligman, 2002).

Two connected movements that apply positivity and strengths based management to the workplace have been fostered by positive psychology. These movements include Positive Organisational Scholarship (POS) which accentuates positive organisational characteristics that can augment organisational survival and effectiveness (Lopes, 2013). The second movement, which is Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB), put emphasis on positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and managed for performance enrichment in the workplace (Luthans, 2004).

Positive psychology has gained popularity in the discipline of psychology (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Cameron, Dutton and Quinn (2003), identified four procreant insights on POS. First, institutional virtuousness provides benefits to individuals, organisations, and societies. Thus, pointing to the existence of a connection between virtuousness and organisational functioning. Second, positive attributes such as strengths of individuals, past successes and organisations assist as more effective targets of change and advancement than problem, weaknesses, and infantile qualities (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). Third, positive energy, positive emotions and positive human connections are self-reinforcing in nature and lead to reciprocally fortifying upward spirals of meaningful experience and performance (Cameron, 2003). Fourth, organisations can facilitate or immobilise positive dynamics, principally through a sense of consequences. All these insights to POS, contribute to employees’
as well as managers’ perceptions towards the achievement of organisational effectiveness.

2.5.1.1 Positive organisational scholarship
POS focuses mainly on positive outcomes, processes and attributes of organisations and their members (Cameroon, 2006). In POS, more emphasis is on goodness and positive human potential, hence the use of words such as thriving, excellence, flourishing, abundance, resilience and virtuousness. Compared to traditional organisational studies, POS search for an understanding of what signifies and methodologies the best of human condition.

Although POS does not throwaway the investigation of dysfunctions, or underlying forces that disable or produce harm, it tends to accentuate the scrutiny of factors that enable positive consequences for groups, individuals and organisations (Bagozzi, 2008). Drawing from a range of organisational theories, POS seeks to understand as well as forecast the causes, occurrence as well as consequences of positivity. Thus, allowing visibility of positive states, positive relationships and processes which are not shown within organisational studies. For instance, “through examining how organisational practices allows individuals to expertise meaningful work through fostering individual callings, in contrast to a more typical focus on employee productivity or morale” (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003), a new or different mechanism “through which positive organisational dynamics and positive organisational processes produce extraordinarily positive or unexpected outcomes” (Bagozzi, 2008, p. 260).

One advantage of POS is its ability to engender value creation through universal continuous improvement in human condition and the capacity to do is dormant in most systems (Caza, 2006). Thus, “by unlocking capacities for elements such as meaning
creation, relationship transformation, positive emotion cultivation and high quality relationships, organisations can produce sustained sources of collective capability that help organisations thrive” (Dannhauser, 2007, p. 75). Through POS, a conceptual foundation for appreciating how and why organisational strategies have their impact on human behaviour when at work as well as why some strategies and dynamic competences may be multiplicative than others, will be established.

Since all the constructs in the current study fall within positive psychology, they are a pointer to positive outcomes, processes and attributes of organisations. The researcher therefore seeks to establish the value and contributions brought by positive organisational dynamics and positive organisational processes, ‘if they exist’ employees within the mining sector, given the prevailing socio-political environment prevailing in Zimbabwe. In exploring this, below is a discussion of Positive Organisational Scholarship (POS).

2.5.1.2 Positive organisational behaviour
POB has been defined as “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace” (Luthans, 2002, p. 671). By associating POB with performance improvement, deviates from viewing it as the simple personal development notion (Luthans, 2002).

POB is linked with states, subjecting it to change, learning, development and management in the workplace (Vaughan, 2008). This then implies that POB states can be enhanced through training or can be self-developed. In one study, hope, optimism, emotional intelligence, subjective well-being and confidence were definitional criteria for POB (Mansfield, 2007). From the study, self-efficacy or confidence was found not only open to development but also enhances choice of taking a task and its challenges,
greater effort and motivation as well as persistence in the presence of obstacles and failure (Luthans, 2002).

Other studies reported a stronger relationship between efficacy and work related performance compared to other Organisational Behaviour (OB) concepts such as goal setting (Locke & Latham, 1990). Interestingly, studies have indicated that efficacy can be trained and this can be over mastery practices vicarious learning or modelling or performance attainments, positively oriented persuasion or feedback on progress as well as physiological and psychological arousal (Bandura, 1977).

Although thoroughly researched, hope has been found not having a strong positive relationship with work related performance (Luthans, 2007). From the theoretical frameworks of hope and efficacy, the hope theory views agency and the pathways as equally important. Further to this, studies have also revealed that hope has discriminant strength amongst positive psychological constructs (Welsh, 2009). However, indications have been made for further research on the aspect.

With its roots in clinical work, resiliency has been recognised in the positive psychology movement although not included in POB. Resiliency has been defined as “the capacity of individuals to cope successfully in the face of significant change, adversity or risk” (Cicchetti, 2010, p. 148). It has been pointed that resiliency goes beyond simple adaptation but also involves resources established in basic human adaptational systems such as caring support, self-regulation and motivation to be operative in the environment (Masten, 2001). According to Luthans (2002), resiliency is the positive psychological ability to rebound, to spring back from adversity, uncertainty, failure, conflict, or even constructive change, advancement and increased responsibility.
Since it is the thrust of the current study to examine the extent of application of positively oriented human resource strength as well as psychological capacities, below is a discussion on work engagement and psychological empowerment.

2.5.2 Work engagement

Work engagement falls under positive psychology (Judge, 2007; Schaufeli, 2007). To date, a huge amount of research has been done on this topic with the bulk of studies being conducted in Europe and recently, slowly spreading to Africa (Rothmann, 2010). Literature has revealed that in Southern Africa, studies on work engagement have predominantly been conducted in South Africa and Namibia, particularly in the services sector (Labuschagne, Mostert, & Rothman, 2012). For Zimbabwe, there is very few published research on work engagement.

The most popular one is the national survey, which was conducted in 2011, where it was concluded that the bulk (almost three quarters) of Zimbabwe’s economically active populace are lowly engaged in their work (Nguwi, 2011). However, from her unpublished work, Muzvidziwa (2012) assessed work engagement among bus drivers in Zimbabwe, where results revealed that the drivers were engaged in their work (Muzvidziwa, 2012). Thus, the few studies on work engagement in Africa created a big gap in the work engagement literature given abundant researches on the aspect in Europe and other parts of the world.

In order to have knowledge on the aspect, as well as establishing an understanding of the psychometric properties through development of instruments for work engagement in the mining sector, this thesis examines work engagement together with psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship in an African context.
However, the current chapter examines the independent variables of the study which, are work engagement and psychological empowerment.

The above account is a brief outline on the background on research trends as well as some gaps in the study of work engagement particularly in Zimbabwe. In order to fully understand the concept of work engagement, a discussion of the definition(s) as well as conceptualisation of the aspect shall first be done. This will help in understanding how work engagement shall be understood in the current study.

2.5.2.1 Defining work engagement
The aspect of engagement has been defined in numerous ways in the literature. Engagement can refer to a psychological state (mood, involvement, attachment commitment), a performance construct (both observable behaviour or effort, including organisational citizenship behaviour and pro-social), a disposition (positive affect), or some blending thereof (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 9). More so, engagement has been defined as “an amalgamation of commitment, loyalty, productivity and ownership” (Macey & Scheider, 2008). A distinction between employee engagement and work engagement has been done in the literature, although the two are in some cases used interchangeably. However, employee engagement includes one’s relationship with the organisation whereas work engagement refers to the connection between an employee and his or her work (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Saks, 2006; Salanova & Pero, 2005). For the purpose of the current study, work engagement shall be discussed in detail since it is one of the constructs assessed in the study.

2.5.2.2 Conceptualising work engagement
Four schools of thought exist on engagement. Below is a discussion of these views on engagement, which draws from Baker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris (2008) and Demerouti & Cropanzo (2010).
The first school of thought, whose proponents are Maslach and Lieter (1997) posits that “engagement is the direct opposite of burnout and can be assessed by the opposite pattern of score on the three dimensions of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, which are exhaustion, cynicism and ineffectiveness” (Maslach & Lieter, 1997, p. 23). Opposing to those who suffer from burnout, engaged employees have a feeling of energetic and effective connection with their work and as an alternative to stress and work demands.

Engagement has also been found to be characterised by involvement, energy, and efficacy and in the state of burnout, involvement becomes cynicism, energy becomes exhaustion, and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness (Baker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). This clearly shows the direct opposite between engagement and burnout.

A lot of studies have been conducted to test the first school of thought’s understanding of work engagement and these studies confirmed that engagement is a direct opposite of burnout (Schaufeli, Martinez & Pinto, 2002; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli & Bakker, 2006; Maslach & Leter, 2008). In line with this school of thought’s preposition, are studies on the relationship between job demands and resources with burnout and engagement, big five personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience (Demerouti; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Prieto, Soria, Martinez & Schaufeli, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2009).

However, other scholars viewed work engagement as an independent construct, thus leading to the second school of thought. Bakker and Schaufeli (2008), view engagement in terms of commitment and extra role behaviour. Thus, through being engaged, employees develop a bestowed interest in a company’s accomplishment and exceedingly perform to standards above the stated requirements of the job.
Demerouti and Cropanzano (2010) views engagement as a set of motivating resources such as recognition and support from colleagues and supervisors, feedback, prospects for learning and development as well as chances for skill use.

The second school of thought understands work engagement as an independent concept that is negatively related to burnout. This school of thought views work engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption (Salanova, González-Roma, & Bakker, 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Demmerouti, 2008). Thus, this school purports that rather than a momentary, specific emotional state, engagement refers to “a more tenacious and inescapable affective-cognitive state” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p. 473).

The current study conceptualises work engagement in what Schaufeli & Baker (2004) terms a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is described by vigour, dedication and absorption. This is because of the study’s need to establish the influence that vigour, dedication and absorption have on employees’ psychological well-being. As such, a discussion on the three characteristics of work engagement

(i) Dedication

Dedication refers to “being strongly involved in one’s work, and experiencing a sense of significance and enthusiasm” (Bakker et., 2008, p. 190). In order to determine one’s level of dedication in their work, questions such as I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose; I am enthusiastic about my job; my job inspires me, can be asked.

(ii) Vigour

Vigour is measured by six items that refer to high levels of energy and resilience, not being easily fatigued the willingness to invest effort and persistence in the face of
difficulties. In order to assess vigour, the following are some of the questions that can be asked, *I feel bursting with energy*; *At my job, I feel strong and vigorous*; *When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.*

(iii) Absorption

The third dimension of work engagement is absorption and is characterised by “being fully concentrated and happily immersed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work” (Bakker & Demmerouti, 2008, p. 215). To measure absorption, the following questions can be asked; *Time flies when I'm working*; *When I am working, I forget everything else around me*; *I feel happy when I am working intensely*; *I am immersed in my work.*

Thus, the second school of thought views engaged employees as enthusiastic about the work they do, strong and vigorous at work and are very often immersed in their work. For Khan (1990, 1992), the fundamental location of engagement is the work role whereas for those who ponder engagement as the positive opposite of burnout it is the work itself or employees’ work activity.

Having taking into consideration all the definitions of work engagement, the researcher understood work engagement as the application of positive psychological states to work by an individual. In order for one to have an appreciation of the aspect as well as developing a working definition, it is important to explore the psychological aspects of work engagement.

2.5.2.3 The importance of work engagement

The ability of an employer to cultivate engagement among employees safeguard performance and survival of the organisation (Coetzee & Rothman, 2005). Although it
is not the aim of this study to explore on the importance of work engagement in an organisation, a brief outline of the worthiness of the aspect is given.

Employee engagement “predicts positive organisational outcomes, including productivity, job satisfaction, motivation, commitment, low turnover intention, customer satisfaction, return on assets, profits and shareholder value” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 298). Although the mining industry particularly in Africa has been characterised by increased productivity, a number of cases on poor labour relations pointing to unmotivated as well as lowly satisfied workforce has been recorded in this sector (Duncan, 2014). Moreso, given the results of my study on work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship among employees of one of the mining companies in Zimbabwe, where the majority of employees were found to be less engaged in their work, no direct link between production and engagement can be established.

Research on work engagement found a link between work engagement and performance. For instance, one study on Dutch employees from numerous occupations revealed a positive relationship between work engagement and in-role performance (Schaufeli, Taris, & Bakker, 2008). One other study by Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke (2004) indicated engaged employees receiving high rankings from their colleagues in relation to their performance. Another study found work engagement to be positively related with business outcomes (Harter, 2001).

Work engagement is therefore imperative in creating a better in-role fit and extra-role performance thus resulting to organisational effectiveness (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). A positive correlation between work engagement and good health, as supported by the findings in a Dutch service organisation, reflects the significance of
work engagement at an individual level (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). To explain why engaged employees perform better, Bakker and Demerouti (2008) cited four reasons and these are: creation of own job and personal resources; positive emotions which include happiness, joy and enthusiasm; experience of better health and transfer of engagement to others. With the challenges characterising the mining industry, especially those that are employee related, cultivating an environment that emboldens engagement among employees is crucial. The researcher therefore looks at the drivers of work engagement.

2.5.2.4 Drivers of work engagement
With it being centred on the subject of resources, it is important to discuss how two main categories of resources – job resources and personal resources – are associated with and influence work engagement.

2.5.2.4.1 Job resources
Job resources entails the social, physical, or organisational characteristics of the job that lessen job demands and the related psychological and physiological costs that are useful in achieving work goals and encourage personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Literature reveals a positive relationship between job resources and work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

Job resources play two roles and these roles can be intrinsic or extrinsic in nature. Intrinsic motivational role occurs through fostering employees’ growth, learning and development whereas extrinsic motivational role is instrumental in achieving work goals (Barker & Demerouti, 2007). Intrinsic motivation role through job resources takes place through satisfying basic human needs, such as the needs for relatedness, autonomy and competence (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Frederick, 1997). This comes
through proper feedback, which according to Hackman and Oldham’s (1980) job characteristics theory in turn increases job competence, social support to gratify the need for autonomy and belonging.

The extrinsic motivational role by job resources is through nurturing the willingness to dedicate one’s efforts and abilities to the work task (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Such working environment warrants the realisation of set goals resulting in employee engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

Life experiences, particularly control, rewards, recognition and value fit, were found to be significant predictors work engagement (Koyuncu, 2006). Having explored on the contribution of job resources on work engagement, the next section is a discussion of personal resources and its impact one’s functionality at work.

2.5.2.4.2 Personal resources

Personal resources entail positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and signifies individuals’ sense of ability to control and influence their environment magnificently (Hobfoll et al., 2003). A positive mind-set concerning oneself “predicts goal-setting, motivation, performance, job and life satisfaction, career ambition and other desirable outcomes” (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). This proposes a positive relationship between personal resources and work engagement (Judge et al., 2005). At this point, it is important to explore the psychological aspects of work engagement given the thrust of the current research to examine those aspects that drive an employee to want to work.

Gravenkemper (2007), proposed six ideologies of engagement that are crucial for structuring communities in organisations and these are; communicating a compelling message, building a guiding coalition, creating a principle based versus compliance
based guidelines for decisions and behaviours, creating early engagement indicators, generating continuous opportunities for dialog at all levels and planning assimilation strategies for new members and new leaders. Having discussed the drivers of work engagement, the next section examines antecedents and consequences of work engagement since they are critical in the current study to define the contribution that work engagement can have in improving employees’ well-being.

2.5.2.5 Antecedents of work engagement
In his study, Kahn (1990) established three psychological conditions allied with engagement or disengagement at work and they include safety, meaningfulness and availability (Khan, 1990). The presence of psychological meaningfulness, safety and availability resulted in work engagement (Kahn, 1990, 2004). Job engagement was also associated with feelings of choice, supportive work community, sustainable workload and control, fairness and justice, and meaningful, valued work and appropriate recognition and reward (Maslach et al., 2001). The major concern was that the outcomes were unsuccessful in giving reasons why people differ in their responses to the stated conditions. The current study provides part of the answers by examining managers’ perceptions of employees’ varying levels of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship.

However, the understanding of these four aspects cannot be ended in seclusion of the job and personal resources. By taking into consideration “that the amount of cognitive, emotional, and physical resources that an individual is prepared to devote in the performance of one’s work roles is contingent on the economic and socio-emotional resources received from the organisation” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 403). Some possible antecedents of work engagement can be derived from Kahn’s (1990) and Maslach and colleagues (2001) model. It has also been suggested that while a lack of rewards and
recognition can lead to burnout, appropriate recognition and reward is important for engagement (Maslach et al., 2001).

2.5.2.6 Consequences of work engagement

Work engagement continue to be a widely held concept in theory and practise for industrial psychologists and human resources practitioners. This high regard is directly associated to the belief that highly engaged individuals produce positive outcomes for organisations. Although this could be true, it is important to note that “engagement is an individual-level construct and if it does lead to business results, it must first impact individual-level outcomes” (Harter et al., 2002, p. 268). Along these lines, employee engagement can be expected to relate with individuals’ intentions, attitudes and behaviours.

From the discussion above, it has emerged that work engagement is a crucial concept to organisational effectiveness. Although a lot of researches between work engagement and other constructs have been conducted, very few of these researches have focused on psychological empowerment (Stander, 2010). For the few studies that have been conducted, the three psychological conditions of engagement (safety, meaningfulness and availability) exhibited significant positive relations with engagement (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004).

The association of positive workplace insights with higher corporate units, lower rates of turnover, customer loyalty, higher profitability and higher productivity calls for an understanding of the causal relationship between work engagement and psychological empowerment is very crucial. It has been revealed that the interventions that put emphasis employees’ psychological empowerment contribute to engagement (Stander, 2010). Thus, suggesting a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and work engagement. In another finding, engagement has been found to be a
consequence of empowerment (Laschinger, 2008). From the few researches on the relationship between work engagement and psychological empowerment, the current research seeks to find out if there is a relationship between work engagement and psychological empowerment. As such, below is a discussion of psychological empowerment.

2.5.3 Psychological empowerment

Empowerment has been actively practiced in almost all facets of life, resulting in it being an exceptional concept signifying new managerial approach (Lee & Koh, 2001). Empowerment has its origin in cognitive psychology (Bandura, 1977; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). However, the concept has branched into the fields of management, organisational behaviour as well as community psychology (Zimmerman, 1995; Spreitzer & Quinn, 1997). The concept has gained popularity because of the potential benefits that can result from it, which among others comprise of enhanced commitment, improved decisions, enhanced quality, additional innovation and enhanced job satisfaction (Yukl & Becker, 2006).

Organisational perspective in the 1980s saw psychological empowerment being embraced as a means of increasing decision making at lower organisational level, whilst enriching the work lives of employees (Liden, 2000). Conceptualising psychological empowerment has been difficult, given different perceptions to the aspect. Below is an account on conceptualisation of psychological empowerment.

2.5.3.1 Conceptualisation of psychological empowerment

Conger and Kanungo (1998) first introduced psychological perspective on empowerment, where they advocated for individual motivation approach to empowerment. Psychological empowerment entails a practice of improving employees’ feelings of self-efficacy through identifying conditions that nurture
powerlessness (Seibert, 2009). Taking from Conger and Kanungo’s propositions that empowering organisational practices “result in greater employee initiative and motivation only to the extent that these practices provide informational cues that enhance the employees’ effort-performance expectancies” (Lawler, 1973, p. 16) or feelings of self-confidence (Bandura, 1986), Thomas and Velthouse (1990) came up with a more complete theoretical framework for psychological empowerment.

However, the first multidimensional instrument to measure psychological empowerment was developed by Spreitzer in 1995. Basing on Thomas and Velhouse’s approach, Spreitzer then defined psychological empowerment as “intrinsic task motivation reflecting a sense of control in relation to one’s work and an active orientation to one’s work role that is manifest in four cognitions which are meaning, self-determination, competence and impact” (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1448).

It is not always that the presence of empowering organisational practices enhances employees’ effort-performance expectancies. Other factors play a role. Among these, is the psychological state of the employer. It is believed that an employer’s psychological state is pertinent to the success or failure of the empowerment resourcefulness than to the ultimate nature of empowerment as experienced by the employee (Menon, 2001). Thus, from Menon’s view, psychological empowerment involves a cognitive state characterised by a sense of competence, goal internalization and perceived control (Menon, 2001).

Sharing a similar view with Menon, is Zimmerman who understand psychological empowerment as an individual’s belief that they have the capabilities to control an interpersonal component, understanding how the system works in an interaction context and the belief that they can take on behaviours to exert control in a behavioural
component (Zimmerman, 1990). Thus, from an organisational perspective, the conceptualisation of empowerment by Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Boren (1994), Rothstein (1995) and Spreitzer (1995) points to two essential elements needed for empowerment to take place and these include the behaviour of the supervisor as well as the psychological state of the subordinate (Lee & Koh, 2001).

According to Lee and Koh (2001), these two essential elements for empowerment result in four key dimensions and these are competence, meaningfulness, impact and self-determination. These defining factors of psychological empowerment are self-determining and distinct, yet related and equally strengthening (Yukl & Becker, 2006). Below is a discussion of each of these defining factors.

2.5.3.1.1 Meaningfulness
Meaningfulness can be considered as the ‘engine’ of empowerment, since it energises individuals to work (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990) meaningfulness entails “the value of the task goal or purpose, judged in relation to the individual’s own ideals or standards; the individual’s intrinsic caring about a given task” (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p.670). From this perspective, meaningfulness is believed to be similar to Hackman’s and Oldham’s (1980) understanding of psychological state of meaningfulness in their job characteristics model (Yukl & Becker, 2006). However, in psychoanalytic terms, meaningfulness signifies a kind of savings on psychic energy (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Meaningfulness, in the empowerment construct, is defined at the level of explicit tasks or projects (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997).

2.5.3.1.2 Competence
Competence, according to Gist (1987), involves one’s belief in his or her ability to accomplish work activities with skill. Competence is understood as “the degree to
which a person can perform task activities skilfully when he or she tries” (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 672). Competence is reported to be similar to Bandura’s (1986) notion of self-efficacy or personal mastery (Yukl & Becker, 2006). Thus, according to Bandura, competence holds the idea that a person feels proficient to successfully perform a given task or activity (Bandura, 1986).

2.5.3.1.3 Choice
Choice is understood as the causal responsibility for an individual’s actions and whether behaviour is observed as self-determined (Yukl & Becker, 2006). The concept of choice is said to be similar to locus of control (Yukl & Becker, 2006). On one hand, is a conception that “people with a strong internal locus of control orientation believe that events in their lives are determined more by their own actions than by chance, while people with a strong external locus of control orientation believe that events are determined mostly by chance or fate” (Rotter, 1966, p. 1).

On the other hand, deCharms (1968) uses the term ‘locus of causality’. However, Deci, Connell and Ryan (1989) used the term ‘self-determination’ which entails one’s sense of having a choice of instigating and regulating actions and an individual’s own work.

2.5.3.1.4 Impact
Building on the concept of locus of control, and learned helplessness (Rotter, 1966; Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978), impact “is the degree to which behaviour is seen as ‘making a difference’ in terms of accomplishing the purpose of the task, that is, producing intended effects in one’s task environment” (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 675). Impact is similar to the psychological state of knowledge of results in Hackman and Oldham (1980). According to Ashforth (1989), impact entails the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work.
2.5.3.2 Empowerment in the current study

Considering the outlined definitions of psychological empowerment, it can be argued therefore that psychological empowerment entails evidenced self-efficacy triggered by internal and external factors to work outcomes that result in one being able to control their work. Empowerment in the current study is similar to Lee and Koh’s (2001) definition. Thus, in the current study empowerment is defined as an employee’s psychological state as measured by four dimensions of self-determination, meaningfulness, competence and impact which are influenced by empowering behaviours of the supervisor. Thus, according to this definition;

i) A superior (manager or supervisor) and his/her subordinates (miners) need to be closely involved in empowering the miners. Here, there is integration of both motivational and relational aspects.

ii) In this regard, a low mark in any of the four dimensions implies decreased empowerment.

iii) Supervisor(s) behaviour shall also be considered. This is done in order to ensure that the scores in the employees’ perceptions will be having the supervisors’ contributions.

Within the European context, psychological empowerment has become an important phenomenon in the enhancement of employee performance (Avolio, 2004; Seibert, 2004). Given how global today’s business has become, ignoring the importance or contribution of psychological empowerment in the achievement of organisational goals is detriment to the survival of an organisation. The researcher therefore gives a brief outline of the importance of psychological empowerment as has been found in the researches.
2.5.3.3 Importance of psychological empowerment

Empowerment, although it has been difficult to define it, has become an important phenomenon in today’s business environment. This is due to the nature of the today’s workforce, where effectiveness has been found to be driven largely by employees (Haridi, 2014). A lot of advantages have been aligned with having psychologically empowered employees in an organisation. Since it is not the researcher’s aim to identify the importance of psychological empowerment among participants in the current study, a brief look at the importance of psychological empowerment shall be done.

Research has indicated that empowerment ensures continuous improvement initiatives (Zarbo, 2012). Thus, when empowered, employees develop a feeling of ownership of their work such that they would want to perform better and better when at work. This has been supported through the idea that “If you empower employees, they will take care of the improvements” (Buchel & Zintel, 2013, p. 45). This is crucial especially for those organisations where innovativeness is crucial. The mining industry is not an exception given the value placed on diamonds for instance especially on the polishing stage. Although it seems repetitive, employees who are involved in the processing of these diamonds need to be innovative since the value of the final product is determined by its attractiveness to the market.

Through increased sense of ownership, empowered employees are more proactive and willing to embrace change (Stanton, 2002). Change is inevitable, especially given how dynamic today’s business environment has become. As such, organisations are expected to be flexible especially on the part of employees. However, in order to ensure this flexibility and adaptation, an organisation need to create an environment that allows this change to be embraced by employees, and this has been pointed to come through empowerment of employees. Given the controversy that comes with diamond mining,
especially on the political side of nations, it is crucial for organisations to equip employees with a sense of ownership through empowering them such that in the face of change, politically, socially or economically, employees will be ready to embrace the change.

Research has also indicated that empowerment results in low turnover rates, increased profitability as well as improvement in customer services (Peltier, 2009). This is very crucial for every organisation, given the need to survive and be competitive in operations. The mining industry has been characterised by poor labour relations, a state which can have negative multiplier effects to the organisations. With reference to the Marikana incident in South Africa, it can clearly be pointed that there is need for improvement in labour relations in the industry as well as the need to have employees be empowered at work.

The majority of labour unrest in the mining industry has been due to lack of transparency in the way businesses operate such that there is a gap in the knowledge of business state at a particular time, a situation which then results in either more demands from employees or less cooperation from management. Thus, “a higher degree of trust in leadership further leads to proactive behaviours by frontline employees, encouraging them to use the autonomy in their day-to-day jobs to seek out and make systematic improvements to work practices” (Stanton & Danoff-Burg, 2002, p. 38). With empowered employees, as has been revealed above, most work related problems can be minimised.

Although there has been increasing research on the factors that predict psychological empowerment, little has been done on identifying potential antecedents on
psychological empowerment in Africa and particularly within the mining sector. As a result, the following is a discussion on the antecedents of psychological empowerment.

**2.5.3.4 Antecedents of psychological empowerment**

Research has revealed that information accessibility with regards to the mission of the organisation (Spreitzer, 1995); organisation’s reward system and performance are the antecedents to psychological empowerment. In addition, a case study of Taiwan’s hotel companies, in a Chinese culture revealed that leadership, trust and organisational culture function are also the antecedents of empowerment (Chiang & Jang, 2008). In the same study, leadership was found to have a positive, direct effect on trust and organisational culture. The study further revealed that self-determination in psychological empowerment has a major effect on job satisfaction and associates with organisational commitment. Furthermore, trust has been found to be important in improving empowerment (Mills & Ungson, 2003; Gomez & Rosen, 2001; Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian, 2001).

In another study, Seibert and Courtright (2011) classified antecedents to psychological empowerment into contextual and individual characteristics. On one hand, socio-political support, high performance managerial practices, leadership and work designs characteristics are the contextual antecedents to psychological empowerment. On the other hand, positive self-evaluation traits, human capital and gender have been reported to be individual characteristics to psychological empowerment.

Self-esteem and locus of control have been found to be antecedents of empowerment since they nature how an individual understand themselves relative to their work environments. Thus, a study by Spreitzer and Gretchen revealed a positive relationship between self-esteem and psychological empowerment as well as psychological empowerment and locus of control (Spreitzer & Gretchen, 2003). On the work context,
access to information on organisation’s mission, accessing information about a work unit’s performance as well as an individual-performance based reward system were also found to be positively related to empowerment. Thus, suggesting that access to information, accessing information on a work unit’s performance are all antecedents of psychological empowerment.

2.5.3.5 Consequences of psychological empowerment
Research found organisational commitment to be a significant consequence of psychological empowerment (Liden, 2000). Furthermore, empowered employees more can be committed to their organisation (Spreitzer, 1995; Honold, 1997; Liden, 2000). Thus, the more empowered one is, the greater the job autonomy. The more involved one is in their work, the greater the organisational commitment (Bordin & Bartram, 2007). This is supported by Chiang and Jang (2008) who argues that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are consequences of psychological empowerment. Seibert, Wang and Courtright (2011) whose study categorized the consequences to psychological empowerment as attitudinal and behavioural also reported similar results. Thus, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, strain and turnover intentions were found to be attitudinal consequences to psychological empowerment. Behavioural consequences were found to be task performance, organisational citizenship behaviour and innovation. The meaning dimension of empowerment has been reported to end in employees affirming higher levels of energy, concentration and job satisfaction (Spreitzer, 1995; 1997). In addition, the self-determination dimension of empowerment was found to correlate with job satisfaction since self-determination is a psychological need and a key component of intrinsic motivation (Spreitzer, 1997).

On the competence dimension of job satisfaction and empowerment, it was reported feeling of being competent in one’s work is likely to result in a feeling of being more
satisfied with one’s work (Spreitzer, 1997). In a separate study, job security and supervisory social support were found to be the outcomes of psychological empowerment (Liden, 2008). In another study, managerial effectiveness as well as innovative behaviour were found to be consequences of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer & Gretchen, 2003). The next section is a discussion of job satisfaction.

2.5.4 Job satisfaction

Subjective well-being has become critical in today’s world of work. Given the growing importance of employees in an organisation, ignoring their concerns as well as those factors that influence them as individuals at work is detrimental for the organisation’s success. This has seen the growing importance in the understanding of job attitudes, with job satisfaction labelled “the most widely investigated topic in industrial psychology” (Judge & Church, 2000).

However, in the study of organisations, explaining job satisfaction has been found to be an enduring problem (Seo, Ko, & Price, 2004). With the term (job satisfaction) coined by Robert and Hoppock in 1935, the prominence of the concept in organisations saw many studies being centred on creating a link between workers’ job satisfaction and job performance. Such a rich background draws the discussion of job satisfaction to the next section on conceptualisation of the aspect.

2.5.4.1 Conceptualising job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been conceptualised in different ways, with the definitions pointing it to be a multidimensional concept (Locke, 1976; Koustelious, 1991; Koustelious & Tsigilis, 2005). According to Spector (2007), job satisfaction entails “the extent to which people like or dislike their job” (Spector et al., 2007, p. 812). Thus, job satisfaction suggests an effective response towards one’s work. Job satisfaction has also been understood as “an outcome of psychological, environmental and physical
circumstances combined together” (Yew, 2007, p. 96). Another understanding of job satisfaction is derived from an evaluation of an individual’s experience with their job where a comparison is made between one’s expectations from the work and what is actually obtained (Locke, 1969; 1976). A positive emotional attachment to a company is experienced when expected outcomes are met (Yew, 2008).

Job satisfaction was further defined as “a personal evaluation of the job and associated conditions” (Schneider & Snyder, 1975, p. 318). Usually, this is defined by how well outcome expectations are met or exceeded and these perceptions are inclined to an individual’s unique experiences, values, needs and expectations (Buitendach & de Witte, 2005). Employees appraise their job on the basis of factors which they regard as significant (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009).

Most researches conceptualised job satisfaction in Locke’s terms “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the evaluation of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1298). However, an argument that job satisfaction has been inappropriately defined given that when separated, evaluations, beliefs and affective experiences can produce better criterion predictions compared to job satisfaction on its own (Weiss, 2002).

Job satisfaction involves an emotional response to a job situation (Luthans, 1998). This emotional response is determined by the extent to which an individual’s expectations are met. However, one’s unique experiences, needs, values and expectations influence these outcome expectations (Buitendach & de White, 2005). This points to the fact that job satisfaction “is multifaceted construct that comprises both intrinsic and extrinsic job elements” (Mosadeghrad et al., 2008, p. 218).
Most studies on job satisfaction centred the person-environment fit paradigm, where job satisfaction levels are determined by the work environment's need to fulfil employees’ needs and demands (Mottaz, 1985). The main criticism on job satisfaction is on organisations’ focus on discovering ways to maximise productivity by enhancing employee satisfaction (Peltier, 2009; Leblebici, 2012). Doing so will result in lack of knowledge aiming to enhance satisfaction since employees’ values and needs would not have been taken into consideration.

Thus, the need for future research to “create a balance between the needs and values of employers and employees” (Bussing et al., 1999, p. 1012). Furthermore, it has been reported that the instruments used to evaluate job satisfaction tend to assess cognitive more than affective aspects (Eid, Randy, & Larsen, 2008). Further conclusions were made on “the missing affective component which sufficiently impairs extant measures such that new measures of job satisfaction be recommended” (Brief & Weiss, 2002, p. 290).

The above definitions of job satisfaction, therefore draws conclusions that job satisfaction is to a larger extent person centred, implying that it is an individual with power to determine the extent to which satisfaction is derived from a job. However, the working environment plays a pivotal role in the provision of needs, values, expectations, that will provide the most pleasurable job experience.

In this thesis, a comprehensive conceptualisation of job satisfaction that takes into account individual different sources of satisfaction is adopted. Such a conceptualisation that accounts for employees and their working environment is illustrated in Figure 2 below.
From the diagram above, the current study shall define job satisfaction as the extent to which a working environment through psychological, environmental and physical circumstances provides for the needs, values, positive job experience and affective reaction towards a job. This definition therefore implies that job satisfaction has two major sources and these are the individual employee and the working environment. However, it is important to dig deeper into what the literature contains on the sources of job satisfaction.

2.5.4.2 Sources of job satisfaction
Figure 3 below illustrates various sources of job satisfaction as conceptualised in this study. The diagram shows an individual and the working environment as two major areas or components where job satisfaction emanates from. This reflects the general categorisation of job satisfaction sources as intrinsic and extrinsic (see Vallerand, 2000;
Roos, 2005). However, different results have been reported in previous studies conducted on job satisfaction.

![Sources of Job satisfaction](Author)

**Figure 3:** *Sources of Job satisfaction (Author)*

For instance, satisfaction has been found to be high among employees in higher level positions and low on holders of jobs such as work in steel mills and unskilled jobs which are categorised as heavy or dangerous and hot (Robie, 1998). Research has also found that there is frequent correlation on length of service and race with job satisfaction (Scott, 2005). However, evidence of sex differences in job satisfaction have been noted (Hodson, 1989; Oshagbemi, 2000; Bernal, 2005; Kifle, 2012).

On organisational size and job satisfaction, research shows that employees in smaller organisations appear to have more satisfaction than those in larger organisations (Beer, 1964; Stephenson, 1983; Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt, 2002). In one study, policy, administration and salary were found to be major sources of job satisfaction (Heng, 2009). However, there are different sources of dissatisfaction such as interpersonal
relations, supervision, personal achievement, personal growth, the work itself; recognition, responsibility and generally working conditions are (Heng, 2009).

2.5.4.2.1 Intrinsic job satisfaction

Intrinsic sources for job satisfaction are derived from an individual and have psychological value. Intrinsic determinants of job satisfaction pertain to “the nature of and activities inherent to a set of tasks such as appreciation, feeling and intellectual stimulation” (Herzberg & Mausner, 1959, p.58). Intrinsic job satisfaction is subjective and self-administered, thus difficult to quantify. Usually, it is “experienced when employees fulfil the needs which they consider important in their work role. In an organisational set up, satisfaction dimensions such as management and supervision, task requirement, co-workers relations, job security and recognition, were found to have more effect on employee commitment” (Mosadeghad et al., 2008, p. 215).

Six job satisfaction factors are integral in the work itself and these include task specialisation, goal determination, recognition, job variety, autonomy and feedback. Yankeelov and others (2009) highlighted that these six factors are difficult to modify or change without leaving the job. For them, “work itself is the prime factor in job satisfaction for it is difficult, if not impossible, to have job satisfaction if one hates the work one does” (Yankeelov et al., 2009, p. 551). The implication of this to employees is their ability to differentiate between disliking the work and disliking one’s current employer.

Job satisfaction appeared to increase with job variety, autonomy and or freedom (Yankeelov et al., 2009). It is also believed that job satisfaction increases as the amount of knowledge needed to accomplish a task increases (Judge & Church, 2000). This implies that job satisfaction is high among those individuals who thrive for self-actualisation, status, self-esteem and knowledge.
Intrinsic factors such as a work environment, which is congruent with personal values and professional growth, appear to be more important in predicting career satisfaction than are extrinsic factors such as continuing education and pay (Randolph, 2005). Moreso, evaluation of one’s salary and the supervisor appeared to influence overall satisfaction (Decker, Harris-Kojetin & Bercovitz, 2009). In addition, a positive assessment of the supervisor’s behaviour showed strongest association with intrinsic satisfaction (Decker, Harris-Kojetin, & Bercovitz, 2009).

2.5.4.2.2 Goal determination
Goal determination entails “the freedom people have to establish their own work goals and to determine their own criteria for success” (Drake, 2014, p. 9). A positive relationship existed between freedom to determine goals, success criteria and job satisfaction (Drake, 2014). Having freedom to set and establish goals and meeting them, therefore increases job satisfaction.

2.5.4.2.3 Feedback and recognition
Feedback provided frequently, timely and which is accurate can be constructive in one’s work. To be accurate, both good and bad performers must be informed of their performance. Doing so will have a positive impact on both job satisfaction and motivation (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2002). Recognition ranges from a public acknowledgement of one's contribution, to an outstanding service acknowledgement of employee-of-the-month or year award, to a promotion (Donohue & Heywood, 2004).

2.5.4.2.4 Extrinsic job satisfaction
Extrinsic elements emanate from externally-mediated rewards (Mosadeghrad et al., 2008). This implies that, extrinsic sources of satisfaction derive from an individual’s environment (Mottan, 1985; Chuang, 2009). According to Buitendach and de Witte (2005), external rewards entail aspects that have little to do with work roles. Thus,
extrinsic job satisfaction includes pay and working conditions -and the latter refers to factors such as autonomy and skill utilisation (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005). Other sources include achievement, job security and fringe benefits, opportunities to interact with co-workers, role ambiguity and role conflict, opportunity, supervision, compensation, organisational culture, work schedules and seniority (Waskiewicz, 1999; Hegney, 2006; Kehinde, 2011). Extrinsic work aspects and social relations at work reportedly affect not only job satisfaction but also intention to leave the current job (Hegney, Plank, & Parker, 2006).

One study, found that compensation, age and opportunity for advancement have no significant effect on extrinsic, intrinsic or general job satisfaction (Waskiewics, 1999). However, the similar study revealed that supervisor relations and ability utilisation have significant effect on overall job satisfaction. Below is a discussion of individual factors to job satisfaction.

2.5.4.2.5 Individual factors on job satisfaction

Individual factors on job satisfaction, “mainly concern the person and his family and network of friends” (Bott & Spillius, 2014, p. 16). These factors include job involvement, effort or reward ratio, commitment, expectations, influence of co-workers, personal outlook and age, comparisons and opinions of others (Drake, 2009). Thus, both task and organisational rewards positively affect job satisfaction (Yew, 2008).

However, advancement opportunities are crucial if individual satisfaction levels are to be enhanced (Patton & Mcllveen, 2009). Interaction within the group appeared to be a biggest satisfier (Koech, Khamasi, Mbagaya, Kipkoech, & Odwori, 2013). Other factors such as profit-sharing plans and pensions reportedly correlate positively with job satisfaction (Bender & Heywood, 2006).
2.5.4.2.6 Work as a source of job satisfaction

The aspect of work has become crucial in today’s business world. Given that there are expectations from work on individual employees as well as from the organisations, the understanding of formal aspects of work situation such as work assignment, work conditions, work environment and facilities as well as work relations have helped to appreciate the roles played by both employees and organisations in a business set up.

As the major players in the conversion of inputs into outputs, individual employees are subject to external and internal loads (Meijman & Mulder, 2008). External loads include all external factors that stem from the task contents, task organisation and work conditions (Sauter, Hurrell, Murphy, & Levi, 2002).

From the concepts of internal and external loads, both the employer and the employee have contributions or roles to play in order to maintain the balance of the effect of the two. In support of this, Meijman and Mulder (2008) put forth that the effort expended by the organism to main the balance disturbed by a concrete external factor can be inferred from the responses of the physiological systems that are affected by the factor and play a role in the compensation mechanism.

Given the nature of work today, it has become difficult to balance work and life given increasing job demands, resulting in the need to evaluate a range of job demands (Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005). It is indisputable that political, environmental and socio-cultural forces have backed the restructuring of work (Cooper, Dewe, & Driscoll, 2001). These forces are presenting changes in the nature of work in terms of demands for emotional and mental effort rather than physical effort alone (Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005). As a result, it is important for employers to appreciate the contributions of positive psychology towards organisational effectiveness. This explains the vast amounts of research on aspects such
a work engagement, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intrinsic motivation
to mention but few.

2.5.4.3 Antecedents of job satisfaction
A significant association exist between job satisfaction and a number of variables, and
this explains why it has been extensively researched (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005).
Irrespective of the theoretical approach used to study job satisfaction, two general
categories of antecedent variables associated with job satisfaction have been identified
and these include environmental or organisational factors and personal characteristics
(Ellickson, 2002; Nell et al., 2004).

Environmental antecedents such as promotional opportunities, pay, fringe benefits and
investment on opportunities for career development, performance bonuses and salary,
job security, vacation and sick leave, working conditions medical plan and retirement
benefits and opportunities to interact with co-workers have been found to increase job
satisfaction (Ellickson, 2002; House et al., 2002).

Personal determinants of job satisfaction are characterised by gender, race, tenure,
educational level, marital status and age (DeSantis & Durst, 1996). Contradictory
results have been yielded on understanding the correlation between gender and job
satisfaction (Chiu, 1998). One of such studies found that “females attach more
importance to social factors, while males place greater value on pay, advancement and
other extrinsic aspects” (Murray & Atkinson, 1981, p. 44). In support of this, a
significant difference was found between females and males in terms of job dimensions
affecting job satisfaction, with males scoring higher on satisfaction with remuneration
compared to females who had higher satisfaction with core workers than males (Tang
&Talpade, 1999).
Although women’s jobs are perceived to be worse than men’s higher levels of job satisfaction were recorded among women (Clark, 1997). However, it has been difficult for other studies to determine the influence of gender on job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 2000; Donohue & Heywood, 2004). Relating to this, is an inconsistent pattern which was found between educational level and job satisfaction (KhMetle, 2003; Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003). In another study, social integration was found to be predictive of job satisfaction (Kifle & Hailemariam, 2012).

Tenure entails “the number of years spent at work by an employee” (Oshagbemi, 2003, p.1211). A positive relationship between job satisfaction and tenure was noted in one study (Bedeian, Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). However, contradictory findings that “the longer tenure in a job may lead to boredom and lower levels of job satisfaction” (Savery, 1996, p. 19). However, another study found older employees to be generally happier with the jobs than younger employees (Greenberg, 2008).

### 2.5.4.4 Importance of job satisfaction

Human dimensions has increasingly become an important measure of an organisation’s success. This saw a number of researches on those factors and or conditions that enable employees to be efficient in their work being conducted (Babin & Boles, 1996). The perceived importance of job satisfaction attracted researchers’ attention, especially on finding ways to enhance job satisfaction among employees (Bender & Heywood, 2006). For the employer, the way work is structured in today’s world, does not spare them from having a moral obligation towards satisfying employees’ needs and making work interesting and enjoyable. In line with this, is the association of employees’ physical and mental well-being with job satisfaction where highly satisfied workers have better physical and mental health records (Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003). This put an organisation’s survival on its ability to treat its employees well. Failure to do so,
can result in problems such as union-organising activity, turnover, filing of grievances and absenteeism.

It has always been a concern to most business practitioners, managers and even to the employees themselves on the understanding of the reasons why some individuals voluntarily help or assist others when at work and or support excellence of others without formal recognition. Stemming from research findings where positive correlations between individual level performance and OCB are detected (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991, 1993; Walz & Niehoff, 2000; Werner, 2000), it is hypothesized in this study that organisational citizenship behaviours are only exhibited after an individual is satisfied in their job. Thus, pointing to a suggestion that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship. It however, becomes interesting to explore on what literature has found with regards to job satisfaction and organisational citizenship.

2.5.4.5 Organisational citizenship and job satisfaction
A number of researches aimed at determining correlation between OCB and job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Puffer, 1987; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Williams & Anderson, 1991) point to the need of determining the contributions of components of Job satisfaction and Organisational commitment to the performance of OCBs. Moreover, evidence on dispositional, affective and cognitive components of JS revealed that OCB relates more closely to cognitive components of job satisfaction (Judge & Mueller, 2012). A similar study revealed a close relationship between OCB and cognitive appraisal of work outcomes comparative to some referent or criterion. Moreover, the congruence or fit between a person and the organisation has been considered an important predictor of job satisfaction (Hegney, Plank, & Parker, 2006).
Research has further shown that although the majority of studies assessed OCB in relation to organisational performance, job satisfaction correlated significantly with organisational citizenship and participation (Murphy, Athanasou, & King, 2002). Further support on the opinion that satisfaction may not be revealed in productivity but shown in discretionary involvement in the workplace was also found (Murphy, Athanasou, & King, 2002; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denesseri, 2006).

Findings from a Korean national industrial complex revealed that transformational leadership, complexity and procedural justice had a positive effect on employees’ OCB (Lee, 2001). This suggests that “perceived fairness of the decision making process, recognition of less complexity of organisational processes and leadership support can make employees engage in organisational citizenship behaviours” (Coyne & Ong, 2007, p. 1089).

The correlations between OCB and job satisfaction is approximately 0.4 (Organ, 1988). This trend has been maintained and or improved given results from the bulk of researches on OCB and job satisfaction which indicated a strong relationship among the dimensions of the two constructs (Le Pine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). The availability of empirical evidence on the widely-held belief that satisfied workers perform better cannot be wholly relied on since it is correlational and not causal.

**2.5.4.6 Theories of job satisfaction**

The above discussion has shown that job satisfaction is a crucial aspect for the viability of any business. Also coming from the discussion is the idea that an individual is the major player in the determination of job satisfaction levels. However, organisations have been found to be equal contributors towards job satisfaction in any organisation. Researchers employ different theories to understand the aspect of job satisfaction and its influence. These include VIE Model, Locke’s (1969) Discrepancy Theory,

The current study is not dependent on a single theoretical framework but part of the study is a combination of the majority of the above mentioned theories. This is as a result of the fact that most of the above mentioned theories are individualistic and they cannot account for broader context within which employees working under. As such, it is the aim of the current study to highlight aspects favoured by the indigenous employees working in the diamond mines in Zimbabwe and incorporate them in the models designed to describe what makes employees feel satisfied in their work.

2.5.5 Organisational citizenship

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has been a key construct especially in the fields of management and psychology, prompting numerous researches (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Organ (1988), reported that OCB plays an important role in ensuring the survival of an organisation. Coupled with the importance placed on human value in the achievement of competitiveness, studying aspects such as organisational behaviour is crucial for both academia and practitioners (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1983, 1990, 1997; Organ & Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Given that individual behaviour of an employee entail a series of dynamic reactions of the employee, as a member of the organisation, to the internal and the external environmental stimulates (Zhu, 2013), it is indisputable that behaviour is
influenced by values and moderated by situational concern in an organisational setting (Organ, 1988).

Scholars have found OCB to have great contribution to organisational effectiveness. However, most studies have concentrated their focus in Europe than Africa and the result was a generalisation of employees’ behaviours at work, despite differences in beliefs, culture and philosophies that guides individuals (Snape & Redman, 2010). There has been an increasing interest at different levels and institutions on understanding of the indirect contribution of OCB to an organisation through the organisation's social system (Mohammad, Habib, & Alias, 2011).

Regardless of the promise, a number of shortcomings on OCB have been detected and these include the inappropriateness of some behavioural dimensions such as “compliance in the development of organisational capability to address multiple stakeholders’ needs and demands towards economic, social and environmental equity” (Chowdhury, 2013, p.152). Although much has been written about OCB, there is a concern that more focus has been placed on substantive validity at the expense of construct validity (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). However, this study takes another dimension by understanding OCB and its contributions in underpinning the problems faced by miners in the diamond industry in Zimbabwe.

2.5.5.1 Conceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviour
Since its inception in the 1980s, OCB has been popular within the human resources, industrial psychology and management disciplines. This growing importance of employees in organisations has urged for a deeper understanding of individuals’ behaviours and how these can be leveraged efficiency at work. Emphasis has always been made on the need to distinguish in-role behaviours from extra-role behaviours (Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson, 2008). When distinguishing in-role behaviours
from extra-role behaviours, it is important to note that the two kinds of behaviour change over time due to differences of individuals, job requirements and organisational structures (Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004; Zhu, 2013). Literature has revealed that there are two main perspectives around OCB and these include OCB as an extra role behaviour and OCB as civism.

2.5.5.1.1 Organisational citizenship behaviour as extra role behaviour
Early researchers on OCB accentuate the need to view OCB as an integration of the extra-role behaviour and the work functional behaviour. This resulted in OCB being categorized into two. In the first category, is the organisation- oriented organisational citizenship behaviour, where focus is on the organisation (Ariani, 2013). The second category known as individual –oriented organisational citizenship behaviour, emphasis is on the subjective behaviour to benefit the individual, but indirectly contributes to the organisation (Zhu, 2013).

When viewing OCB as extra behaviour, traditional approaches to individual work performance is considered to be separate from OCB (Deaconu & Rasca, 2011). This calls for the need to distinguish extra-role behaviour from intra-role especially with the use of job descriptions in performance evaluation and ultimately in determining specific behaviours. By determining the formal and informal boundaries of behaviours to be exhibited by employees when at work not only make the concept of OCB operational but ensures that a quality approach is possible. However, the problem with this paradigm lies with the consistent applying of principles given that the boundaries of intra-role and extra-role behaviours are not unequivocally established for all employees and are not in fact clearly explained in formal documents like job descriptions where objectives, tasks and responsibilities of a position (Deaconu & Rasca, 2011). However, varying perceptions concerning one’s roles and those of
colleagues may lead to changing of roles. In addition, are informal psychological mechanisms such as psychological contract, which are also believed to impact on one’s role(s) when at work (Wangithi & Muceke, 2012; Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008).

2.5.5.1.2 Organisational citizenship behaviour as civism

The second approach towards understanding OCB stems from the theoretical inheritance of political civism. According to this perspective; civic behaviour entails the sum of all those positive behaviours of individuals which turn out to be relevant to their community (Fields, 2002; Deaconu & Rasca, 2011).

Figure 4: Contributing factors to Organisational Citizenship (Author).

Like the first approach on OCB, importance is put on the situational nature of OCB, with a behaviour only viewed as civic if it is relevant to the organisation and there is total emotional participation to the organisation’s goals and ability to identify with the set moral values. Under this paradigm, both extra-role and ‘some’ intra-role (classic, normal behaviours and legitimately expected of employees) are considered to be civic behaviour. Fields (2002) in understanding OCB under this paradigm came up with three
(3) development levels and these are organisational obedience, organisational loyalty and organisational participation.

2.5.5.2 Overview on conceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviour

Smith (1983) conceptualised OCB with two dimensions, namely generalized compliance (behaviour reflecting compliance with general rules, norms and expectations) and altruism (Darvishi, Nazari, & Emami, 2012). Taking from Smith, Organ (1988) identified five (5) OCB dimensions and these are courtesy, altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. However, these five dimensions were further developed by William and Anderson (1991) who proposed a two dimensional conceptualisation of OCB. The two dimensions are OCB-I and OCB-II. According to William and Anderson, OCB-I refers to behaviour directed towards organisation, comprising conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). OCB-II is associated with behaviour directed towards individuals and it comprises of altruism and courtesy.

From OCB-I and OCB-II, Podsakoff and Mackenzie contemplated helping behaviour, sportsmanship and civic virtue to be substantial in explaining OCB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). This was contested by Hannam and Jimmieson (1999) who considered OCB to be a function of organisation compliance and individual initiative along with three other dimensions namely conscientiousness, altruism and civic virtue (Yaghoubi, Salarzehid, & Moloudi, 2013). Marocky and Xin (2004) put further developments on OCB where interpersonal harmony and protecting organisational resources were viewed the only important concomitants (Lee & Kim, 2010; Martin, Jandaghi, & Ahmadi, 2010). It is important to note that although there have been different views on dimensionality of OCB, the five (5) OCB dimensions by Organ have generally been accepted and will therefore be applied in the current study.
So far, the current study has shown a trend on dimensionality of OCB. It is important at this point to further examine the concept of OCB in detail.

Seven (7) dimensions for OD have been developed and these include civic virtue, sportsmanship, helping, compliance, organisational loyalty, self- and individual initiative (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Early OCB researchers defined citizenship behaviour as distinct to in-role job performance and accentuated that OCB should be viewed as both extra-role and organisationally functional (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983). However, there has been a suggestion for a theoretical legacy approach of civic citizenship research in disciplines such as social history, political science and philosophy (Graham, 1991). This perspective view civic citizenship as including all positive community-relevant behaviours of each citizen. This conceptualisation of organisational citizenship according to Graham encompasses traditional in-role job performance, organisational functional extra role behaviours as well as political behaviour. In support of this, Fields (2002) postulate that as an extra-role behaviour, traditional approaches to individual work performance are separate from OCB, thus calling for the need to distinguish intra-role from extra-role behaviours, although it is not always possible to do so (Fields, 2002).

Furthermore, research revealed that the relevance of a behaviour determines whether it is civic or not and only those behaviours which require total emotional participation to the organisations’ goals as well as one’s ability to identify with the organisation’s set of moral values are regarded as civic (Deaconu & Rasca, 2011). It is from this paradigm that OCB can be understood in three (3) levels of organisational obedience, organisational loyalty and organisational participation (Nezakati, Asgari, Karimi, & Kohzadi, 2010). Of greater interest from research, is its conceptualisation as “a global concept that includes all positive organisationally relevant behaviours of individual
organisation members” (Dash & Pradhan, 2013, p. 18). Pointed as having centralized mostly on Japanese practices (Ueda, 2010), research on OCB has been extended to other countries where results revealed a significant influence of cultural factors on OCB (Coyne & Ong, 2007; George & Jones, 1997; Lam, Hui, & Law, 1999).

However, I question this universal conceptualisation of organisational citizenship given different communities that employees emanate from. Rather, I will call for an understanding of organisational citizenship from a continental perspective, if practical and justified application of the concept is to be done. Hence, the thrust of my study to examine organisational citizenship within the African concept of Ubuntu so as to have an appreciation of African values as well as identifying ways of maximizing organisational effectiveness with the consideration of these values.

2.5.5.3 Antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour
Despite the growing interest in OCB, most researches have focused on a limited range of possible antecedents. Literature has revealed that the majority of studies on determinants of OCB has focused largely on “employees’ relationship with their supervisor or their attitudes toward their job or task” (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006, p. 890). Empirical research on antecedents of OCB focused on four major categories and these include individual or employee characteristics, task characteristics, organisational characteristics and leadership behaviours (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Research further categorized the antecedents into three broad areas of personality/trait, attitudinal, and leadership/group factors.

2.5.5.3.1 Personality
Four of the ‘big five’ personality traits – agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and extraversion – are correlated with OCB. The correlations among these traits have been found to be weak, between 0.15 and 0.22 in one study (Organ & Ryan, 1995).
However, one study revealed a 0.24 correlation for conscientiousness (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001).

2.5.5.3.2 Attitudes
Traditionally, OCB predicted using; employee engagement job satisfaction, level of trust between an employee and his/her co-workers and supervisors, organisational commitment and motivation. The term ‘morale’ has been used to mean job satisfaction, leader consideration, perceived fairness and affective commitment (Organ et al., 2006). A strong correlation (of 0.9) has been found between job satisfaction and OCB, with the other three factors ranging between 0.72 and 0.76.

Studies on OCB, which focused on job attitudes such as organisational commitment fairness, personality variables and leadership consideration revealed that job satisfaction predicts well employee performance. However, literature does not cover much on the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction variables on OCB.

Given that job satisfaction is one of the variables under examination in this study, the two dimensions of OCB (i.e. OCBI and OCBO) shall be measured and determine their relationship to the two facets of job satisfaction (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic). Figure six (6) below shows the antecedents of organisational citizenship that lead into organisational effectiveness.

Despite OCBI and OCBO being coined crucial determinants for an organisation’s effectiveness, there has been reports on the scarcity of research on the exact factors that support OCB under diverse organisational contexts (Erturk, 2007), particularly in the context of mining organisations. Voluntary behaviour of employees is important in the mining sector organisations since extra role is performed alongside official tasks.
Therefore, this study aims to understand the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB within the context of mining organisations.

![Figure 5: Antecedence of Organisational Citizenship (Author).](image)

Although a number of researches reveal that people engage in OCB as a result of them being satisfied with their jobs (Rauf, 2015), it is expected that managers’ and employees’ relationship within the mining sector is different from the services sector like hospitals and schools. Hence, by attempting to address this specific problem at mines, this study contributes to developing OCBs that enhances the effectiveness of mining organisations.

Research has shown that different OCB dimensions can have different antecedents. In their study, Konovsky and Organ (1996) reported that conscientiousness predicted altruism, civic virtue and generalised compliance but not sportsmanship and courtesy. In another study, moral reasoning was found to predict sportsmanship behaviours and
helping behaviours but not civic virtue (Ryan, 2001). Role conflict and role ambiguity negatively correlated with sportsmanship, altruism and courtesy but not with civic virtue and conscientiousness (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The majority of studies reviewed so far in this study, point to the need to distinctively view the five dimensions of OCB though they are all classified into the broad category of OCB.

2.5.5.4 Importance of organisational citizenship behaviour in an organisation
Although OCB is usually not formally rewarded, the aspect has considerable positive impact at organisational level (Walz & Niehoff, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Ehrhart, 2004). For instance, OCB has been found to afford the needed flexibility to combat unanticipated contingencies, and through interdependency, employees will be able to cope with stressful conditions (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Moreover, there is anticipation of higher levels of job motivation and job satisfaction among employees who practice citizenship behaviour compared to those who do not (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Research shows that OCB “can have a positive impact on organisational success through improvements in productivity, resource utilisation, group activity coordination, performance stability, employee recruitment, selection and retention, and the ability to adapt to environmental changes” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p.521).

OCB has been linked to lower rates of absenteeism, employee turnover, efficiency and increased productivity (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Moreso, it has been pointed that OCB operational efficiency as well as organisational effectiveness through reformation, transformation of resources and adaptability can be achieved (Zhu, 2013).

2.6 Conclusion
The chapter gave an overview of the political economy of diamonds and highlighted the environment in which the mining firm under study operates. Key characteristics in
diamond management and employment structures and or environments were noted. These include governing bodies such as KPCS that monitors ethical and procedural mining and marketing of diamonds. It is within this context that advocates for employee well-being try to detect suitable working environments for employees. Within the business field, it is indisputable that employee ineffectiveness owing to whatever reason costs organisations. Given the major contribution of employees in an organisation, organisations failure to provide an enabling environment for positive experiences, positive individual traits as well as institutions forestalls coherence between employees’ as well as organisation’s needs and ultimately organisational effectiveness. A conceptual framework on aspects of work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship provided in the chapter not only amplified this logic but urges for enhanced efforts in taking into consideration the contribution of positive aspects to work as a way of enhancing employees’ contribution and well-being in an organisation. The next chapter provides a theoretical lens through which this phenomenon is viewed.
CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the theoretical framework guiding the current study. Systems theory on management and Ubuntu management philosophy are discussed as the guiding philosophy to understand positivity and strengths based approach in effective work and employment relationship. Through this framework, it is anticipated that Human Resources Management (HRM) practitioners, industrial psychologists and managers in general will be able to design interventions targeting organisational effectiveness whereby coherence between organisations’ needs as well as employees needs are met in a meaningful way.

3.2 Systems theory of management

General systems theory (Von Bertalanffy, 1968) is a way of analysing and thinking about the problem of duplication and fragmentation found across disciplines such as biology (Von Bertalanffy, 1950), technology, (Davis, 1986), and business (Sterman, 2000) among other areas. This study relies on systems theory of management as expounded by (Sterman, 2000). The premise of systems theory is that organisations are perceived as “living organisms made up of numerous component subsystems that must work together in harmony for the larger system to succeed. According to systems theory, organisational success relies on synergy, interrelations and interdependence between different subsystems” (Grobler & Diedericks, p. 19). Within these subsystems, are departments, facilities work groups and business units filled with employees, who are believed to be the lifeblood of an organisation.
Within the systems theory framework, is the aspect of employee relations (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). At a fundamental level, employee relations entail the creation of a combined group dynamic within an organisation rather than an ‘us against them’ mentality that results in feelings of disengagement between managers, employees and the organisations they work for (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999). Employee relations comprises of compensation decisions such as promotions, raises, bonuses, workplace environment, employee development programs such as company culture and college tuition reimbursement (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Through recognition of employees' accomplishments and contributions, is respecting the demands of employees' home and family lives, a major part of employee relations would have been covered. Positive employment relations, thus influences ones’ performance when at work, thereby fulfilling one characteristic of a system where each element has an influence on the functioning of the whole (Laszlo & Krippner, 1998).

Of greater importance in systems theory, is interdependence and interrelationships. Central to the systems theory is the aspect of humanity where the concept of interdependence between groups and employees easily translates into a systems theory framework (Grobler, 2009). This point to the fact that employees among themselves, rely on each other whilst the working environment provide training, guidance and other necessary support on the job (Gifford, Carta, & Cox, 2008). As a result, by putting major focus on positive employee relations, a company culture that allows for openness, reinforces and facilitates the inter-dependence of departments, work groups and individuals. This is also supported by the contingency theory where dynamics of the internal subsystems of a system determines the structure and form of any system. In support of this, according to the person –environment fit, the more a person’s work environment fulfils his or her needs, values or personal characteristics, the greater the
degree of job satisfaction. Thus, through synergic thoughts, creativity and innovation that comes out of harmonious working relations at all organisational levels will be created. Social systems are “related either to the internal environment of other social systems or to external non-social environments such as psychic, biological and cultural environments” (Stichweh, 2007, p. 530) ‘imposing’ an organisational culture that does not take into consideration traditional values, individual’s beliefs, will be a great hindrance on organisational effectiveness.

Values are important in that they encourage repeating behavioural sequence, forming stereotypes and performing rituals (Laszlo & Krippner, 1998). In Parson’s thinking, a system in its formation comprises of four possibilities, which include adaptive systems (for example the economy), goal attainment (i.e. internal orientation, the future), integration of system elements (i.e. the society conceived as a community) and lastly maintenance of long-term patterns (for example cultural institutions in society) (Parsons, 2013). Parsons distinction of cultural institutions and the adaptive economic system is a pointer to the synergy of components within a system, such that one part cannot be ignored if the desired results are to be achieved. Echoed by his further development of the sociological systems theory “systems and subsystems are interrelated through the input output of resources which are either the result or precondition of ongoing system processes” (Parsons, 2013, p. 17). The resources are in the form of motivation, cognitive, rights and values which are attributed to employees (Stichweh, 2008).

Given that people are at the centre of an organisation, the contribution(s) of cultural institutions through values and beliefs embedded in individuals must not be underestimated as doing so may undermine their contributions to the system (Bhengu, 1996). Given the changing nature of human cognitive maps as well as systems theory’s
ability to render the complex dynamics of human bio-psycho-socio-cultural change comprehensible (Laszlo & Krippner, 1998), this study seeks to understand workers’ perceptions on work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship within the cultural institutions as well as the systems they operate under. Systems theory is helpful in this endeavour as through it an appreciation can be derived about how enhancing relationships can be established and sustained between an organisation and its employees who are networked in other influential contexts that may not be in line with both their psychological wellbeing and the organisations interests. With a view that individual cognitive maps are influenced by extant cultural values and beliefs (Laszlo & Krippner, 1998), Ubuntu philosophy and Systems theory provides a major platform for examining the most valued practises for effective business operations. Below, is a discussion of the Ubuntu management philosophy.

3.3 Ubuntu management philosophy

Although emanating from different settings Ubuntu management philosophy and Systems theory have common prepositions in as far as harmonious relationships are concerned. These include interdependence, value on employees, openness as well as the importance of human relations in an organisation. As shown in Table 1 further below, humanness, respect, dignity and care for the other has been found as common elements for POS, POB, and Systems theory and Ubuntu Management philosophy. Through these philosophies, employees’ contribution when at work is therefore cultivated through humane ways which are derived from incorporating people’s traditional ways of living in organisational practices.

The aspect of interdependence as configured in Systems theory is essential for the organisational functions to work in harmony. In other words, it is difficult or close to
impossible for one function to be able to achieve its set objectives without other functions. Moreso, it is believed that it is difficult for an ‘organisation’ to achieve its goals without taking into consideration employees’ values and needs. This phenomenon is also evidenced from the Ubuntu perspective which privileges interdependence, collectivism and sharing for one to be able to live a positively and appreciated life in community. Thus, humanness is a central mechanism for a living. Given the nature of today’s work as well as how dynamic the work environment has become, organisations have become busy to take into consideration people’s traditional ways of living thus, creating a gap between one’s life when at work and when at home.

To fully cultivate the best out of employees with them enjoying their personal benefits as well, the study attempts to investigate the potential role interdependence in an organisation has on the psychological wellbeing of employees.

In the section below, a framework for conceptualising the process of employees’ well-being involving mining employees that captures the notion of employees as relational beings influenced by their human and surrounding working environment is discussed. Table 1 below is an outline of this conceptualisation. An important value that underlines this framework is humanity that privileges positive relations in an organisation. From both Ubuntu management philosophy (Broodryk, 2005) and Systems theory for management (Sterman, 2000) this value is considered a very crucial ingredient for organisational effectiveness. Thus, mutually desirable relationships where parties give and receive a range of benefits including socio-emotional, results in organisations function partially (Schroeder, 2002). According to the norm of reciprocity, people reciprocate when they are fairly treated (Blau, 1964). This points to the importance of respect, trust and involvement where one’s views are valued.
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<tr>
<td>— Organisations are made up of numerous component subsystems</td>
<td>— Interdependence</td>
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<td>— Components need to work in harmony for the larger system to succeed</td>
<td>— It’s a combination of human relations and human resources theories</td>
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<td>— Organisational success relies on synergy, interrelations and interdependence between sub-systems.</td>
<td>— Allows openness but in a responsible manner</td>
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<td>— Value must be placed on employees</td>
<td>— A humanist experience of treating people with respect</td>
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<td>— Humanity is considered to be social</td>
<td>— A philosophy of tolerance and compassion</td>
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<td>— Positive employee relations facilitate culture of openness.</td>
<td>— Accepts that mankind is one integrated whole</td>
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<td>— Aspects such as employee relations, interdependence, interrelationships and synergy are valued most for effective business operations</td>
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<tr>
<td>— Concerned with positive outcomes, processes and attributes of organisations and their members</td>
<td>— Emphasis on positively oriented human resources strengths and psychological capacities which can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement</td>
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<td>— Emphasis on ideas of goodness and positive human potential</td>
<td>— It includes state-like concepts</td>
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<td>— Focuses on positive states (such as resilience, meaningfulness) and outcomes (such as gratitude, positive connections)</td>
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<td>— Examines typical patterns of behaviour and exchange</td>
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<td>— Emphasises realization of potential, patterns of excellence e.g positive deviance</td>
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<td>— Interest is in exceptional, virtuous, life giving and flourishing phenomena</td>
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<td>— It illuminates how contexts and processes, and their interactions are related to positive states in individuals, groups and organisations.</td>
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Situating ‘respect for the other’ in triumphing positive employee well-being and ultimately organisational effectiveness, calls for some essentials of African socialism
which include tolerance of diversity, dialogue, harmonious relationships, reciprocity and interdependence (Broodryk, 2005). Thus, resulting in a community based society where people collaborate to the centre of their being (Senghor, 1963). In this study, focus shall be given to the aspects of systems theory’s need for organisation’s components to work in harmony for the success of the larger system as well as Ubuntu moral philosophy. In doing so, the researcher intends to come up with potential ways through which the two philosophies can pave way to a useful stepping stone in theorizing employees’ well-being in achieving organisational effectiveness through people centred approaches where moral conscience is considered.

Through Tiffany Schroeder’s (2002) observation that although some theories have tried to explain employees’ behaviour through social and economic exchanges, the nature of the exchange (social or economic) is difficult to distinguish without knowledge of the underlying intents, values and history between the two sides (Schroeder, 2002). According to Schroeder, the need to obtain precise measurements requires clear theoretical guidance (Schroeder, 2002).

Although there have been some studies on Ubuntu and people management (Broodryk, 2005; Lutz, 2009), no studies so far has conceptualised the ethos of Ubuntu within positive psychology as interventions in achieving positive employee well-being and ultimately organisational effectiveness. With massive literature on work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship, appealing to moral ethos of Africans especially through Ubuntu is fundamentally important given a lot of strikes, job actions and poor industrial relations charactering the mining sector in Africa. This to some extent is attributed to management philosophies that do not take into consideration indigenous people’s existential realities. It is this gap that the current study seeks to cover.
Emerging from this framework is the argument that fostering positivity and strengths based approach in organisations calls for the need to appreciate the nature or character of values and their judgments as they come out from individuals in the organisation’s system. This can only be achieved if individuals’ behaviour towards work matters is from an established and shared norm. Through an environment of openness, which is facilitated by participation and involvement of employees in work matters that concerns them, in the researcher’s view, not only allows one to be responsible and accountable for decisions taken and executed, but it also provides an essential stepping stone in theorizing positivity and strengths based approach to the work place.

By doing so, this study challenges the morality of insidious forms of control underlying Human Resources Management practice through emphasis on employee compliance to organisational decisions (Burton, 2012). The study deviates from viewing employees as a means to an end. As such, key elements from the policy framework guiding positivity and strengths based approach which instructs both employees and management to value positive organisational characteristics as well as positively oriented human resource strengths will be used to explicate this approach to employees’ well-being. Thus, employees as well as managers’ perceptions to the four (4) constructs of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship, shall then be understood from similar conception.

At this point, it is important to give a brief reflection on two movements that apply positivity and strengths based management to the workplace. Nurtured by positive psychology, Positive Organisational Scholarship (POS) and Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB), the two movements as discussed in chapter 4, are the mechanisms guiding enhancement of organisational survival, effectiveness and performance through creating human well-being as one of the two key indicators of success. Unlike
POB which focuses more on personal development, POS emphasise on ideas of goodness and positive human potential by understanding what represents and approaches the best of the human condition. Thus, whilst POB focuses more on states, POS is on traits pointing to an ethical approach to humans’ beings in organisations.

POS focuses mainly on positive processes, outcomes and attributes of organisations and their members (Bagozzi, 2008). In POS, more emphasis is on goodness and positive human potential, hence the use of words such as flourishing, excellence, resilience, thriving, abundance and virtuousness. Organisational studies differ with POS in that POS thrive to understand approaches and ways that are best for human condition. Although POS does not reject the examination of dysfunctions, or dynamics that disable or produce harm, it tends to emphasize the examination of factors that enable positive consequences for individuals, groups and organisations (Bagozzi, 2008).

Drawing from a range of organisational theories, POS seeks to understand as well as forecast the causes, occurrence as well as consequences of positivity. This allows visibility of positive processes, states and positive relationships which are not shown within organisational studies for instance through examining how organisational practices allows individuals to expertise meaningful work through promoting individual callings, rather than just focusing on employee productivity or morale (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). Thus, presenting a new or different mechanism through which positive organisational dynamics and positive organisational processes produce extraordinarily positive or unexpected outcomes (Bagozzi, 2008).

One advantage of POS is its ability to engender value creation through universal continuous improvement in human condition. However, Caza (2006) observed that in most systems this capacity is dormant. Dannhauser (2007) argues that unlocking such
capacities for elements such as relationship transformation, meaning creation, high quality relationships and positive emotion cultivation organisations can generate sustained sources of collective capability that help organisations thrive. Through POS, a conceptual basis for organisational strategies effects on human behaviour when at work as well as why some strategies and dynamic capabilities may be more generative than others, will be established.

POB has been defined as “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace” (Luthans, 2002, p. 671). Associating POB with performance improvement, deviates from viewing it as being the simple personal development idea (Luthans, 2002). POB is linked with states, subjecting it to learning, development, change and management in the workplace (Nelson & Yeo, 2012). This then implies that POB states can be enhanced through training or can be self-developed. In one study, confidence, hope, optimism, subjective well-being and emotional intelligence were definitional criteria for POB (Mansfield, 2007).

From the study, self-efficacy or confidence was found not only open to development but also enhances choice of taking a task and its challenges, greater effort and motivation as well as persistence in the presence of obstacles and failure (Luthans, 2002). Other studies reported a stronger relationship between efficacy and work related performance compared to other Organisational Behaviour (OB) concepts such as goal setting (Locke & Latham, 1990). Interestingly, studies have indicated that efficacy can be trained and this can be through “mastery experiences or performance attainments, vicarious learning or modelling, positively oriented persuasion or feedback on progress as well as physiological and psychological arousal” (Bandura, 1977, p. 191).
Although thoroughly researched, hope has been found not having a strong positive relationship with work related performance (Luthans, 2007). From the theoretical frameworks of hope and efficacy, the hope theory views agency and the pathways as equally important. Further to this, studies have also revealed that hope has discriminant validity among positive psychological constructs (Welsh, 2009). However, indications have been made for further research on the aspect.

With its roots in clinical work, resiliency has been recognised in the positive psychology movement although not included in POB. Resiliency has been defined as “the capacity of individuals to cope successfully in the face of significant change, adversity or risk” (Cicchetti, 2010, p.147). It has been pointed that resiliency goes beyond simple adaptation but also involves resources established in “basic human adaptational systems such as self-regulation, caring support and motivation to be effective in the environment” (Masten, 2001, p.227). According to Luthans (2002), resiliency is the positive psychological capacity to rebound, to bounce back from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility.

3.4 Conclusion

The above discussion demonstrates that an organisation is made up of functions and from these functions are employees who can thrive only in synergy with these functions. Systems theory and Ubuntu Management philosophy therefore points that greater value need to be placed on employees for the achievement of organisational effectiveness. From an Ubuntu perspective, this value comes through tolerance of diversity, respect for the other from the management as well as fellow employees. The two philosophies points that through valuing people (employees), a culture of openness will be created which then may result in positive multiplier effects for both the
organisation and the employees. The next chapter describes the methodological outline employed for the study.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to discover perceptions of employees and management at a particular diamond mining company in Zimbabwe on factors that account for their organisational citizenship behaviours and possible ways through which their work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment can be improved dictated the methodology employed for the study. The purpose of this chapter is therefore to outline the research methodology employed in the study. An accomplishment of the above aim entailed two tasks associated with different paradigmatic assumptions that legitimate different approaches to research. First was the need to objectively measure levels of work engagement, job satisfaction, and psychological empowerment among the employees. This task was only possible with standardised instruments that, as explained further below, are associated with quantitative research. Second was the need to gain subjective views of the participants on the likely impact of their social contexts on their psychological wellbeing when at work, a task that was possible with qualitative interviews.

4.2 Research methodology

Research methodology specifies the research philosophy, design and methods or procedures for collecting and analysing data as determined by the ontological and epistemological assumptions of a study (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). As explained further below, this study accepts both positivist and relativist philosophies of knowledge. While qualitative research methods are accepted in psychology, the relativist approach (qualitative) is largely viewed as competing with positivism (quantitative) (Todd, Nerlich, McKeown, & Clarke, 2004). However, in this study
quantitative and qualitative research methods are used in a complimentary way. The rationale for employing this methodology is explained further below under mixed methods.

4.2.1 Research design
Research design is the general plan of how the researcher went about answering the research question. Common research designs are experimental, survey, archival research; case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory, and narrative inquiry (Glaser & Straus, 1967; Hakim, 2000; Robson, 2000; Goulding, 2002; Yin, 2003; Saunders, et al., 2009). The current research employed an exploratory case study design that examined employee wellbeing and citizenship behaviours of employees of a particular diamond mining company in Zimbabwe described below.

4.2.1.1 The case study
The studied company was a joint venture between the Zimbabwean government, through Marange Diamonds Company operated by Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation (ZMDC), and the Chinese government through its investment arm, Anhui Foreign Economic Construction Group (AFECC). Figure 6 below illustrates the structure of the company under study. Green boxes represent a head of department while red one represent the deputy.

According to its website (http://www.afecc.com/english.php/profile.html), AFEC is a Chinese construction and mining company that operates diamond mines in Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mozambique and the Democratic Republic of Congo. As shown on the figure, the joint venture board of directors comprises appointees from Marange as well as appointees from AFECC. Chairmanship of the company board was on two (2) year rotational basis, with the managing director position set for AFECC whilst the ZDMC appointee holds the deputy managing director post. All the other positions were co-
occupied with either a Zimbabwean being a manager and a Chinese a deputy or otherwise.

**KEY**

*MR* Marange Resources  
*JV* Joint Venture  
*ZMDC* Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation  
*MD* Managing Director  
*C. Secretary* Company Secretary

**Figure 6:** Organisational structure of the company under study: Adapted from the company’s archives

The total number of employees (including managers) at this company was two hundred and seventy (n = 270) (Company’s archives). While individual employees forming part of the current study were from a local diamond mining company in Chiadzwa, the
majority of participants have had opportunities to work in other surrounding diamond companies including Murowa Diamonds.

One example is an employee who occupied a more senior position in Zimbabwe Diamond Miners Workers Union and senior managers who were once more senior managers at other diamond mining companies.

Two categories of participants, one comprising of shop floor employees, and the other made up of managers participated in the quantitative and qualitative studies respectively. For the purposes of the current study, a shop-floor employee shall be understood as a lower level employee who is under supervision and has a direct impact on production. A manager on the other hand, shall refer to a person with authority and is responsible for planning and organising duties for a group of miners, monitoring their performances and where necessary, take corrective action. The study was motivated to draw participants from different work units of the company to allow for richer perceptions into the four constructs of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship.

It is important to note however that the study’s original idea of investigating all the five diamond-mining companies failed due to lack of access to the other mines. As a result, the researcher ended up studying one company. Since it was not the intention of the current study to generalise about the mining industry or on the company from which participants were drawn from, it is important to highlight that the current research aimed to understand the participants’ perceptions and experiences on the four constructs under study. More so, the failure by the researcher to get access into the other companies did not compromise the achievement of the objectives of the current study.
4.3 Mixed methods approach

According to Hesse-Biber (2010) mixed methods research design and practice place emphasis on the central place of the research problem. In light of the research problem underlying this study, an exploration of subjective verbal and written expressions of meaning by mine workers, and objective measurement of correlations among the four constructs were required. This problem entailed the use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures in a research design employed for this study.

A mixed methods approach accounts for both the etic (objective) and emic (subjective) epistemologies that owe their methodological underpinnings to the realist and relativist ontologies respectively (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009; Zikmund, 2003). Realism presupposes existence of a real world with one predictable and verifiable reality or truth, which researchers set to measure and observe (Cater & Little, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). This ontology is usually associated with, and is discussed below under the quantitative methods. Figure 7 below is a preview of the methodological outline as highlighted in the foregoing.

Contrary to realism that is also known as positivism (O’Leary, 2013), relativism presumes that truth is subjective and accommodates researchers who believe in multiple realities and the ways people experience and describe their world (Creswell, 1994; Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). This paradigm is usually associated with, and is discussed below under qualitative methods. It is important to note here that combining both worldviews in this study allowed for a pragmatic approach that accommodated both an objective and scientific computation of relationships among work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment, and organisational citizenship as well as interactions with participants to understand their subjective views on the same
variables. Thus, by combining miners’ and managers’ perspectives through quantitative and qualitative approaches respectively, a mixed methods approach brought to light relationships between variables through quantitative approach whilst revealing meanings among research participants through qualitative approach. Through a mixed methods approach, the researcher was able to obtain a comprehensive account of the factors that affect psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviours and the ways in which these can be improved.

**Figure 7:** The mixed methods approach employed for this study (Adapted from O’Leary, 2004, p.99)
4.3.1 Quantitative component of the study
Consistent with the relativist paradigmatic assumption that legitimate objective measurement of phenomena in terms of numbers, the quantitative aspect of the study consisted of a survey design whose aim was to assess and predict interrelationships between work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship among a cohort of studied miners. The following questions empirically fulfilled the quantitative objectives for the study.

1. What is the relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship?
2. To what extent does work engagement predict organisational citizenship?
3. To what extent does psychological empowerment predict organisational citizenship?
4. To what extent does job satisfaction predict organisational citizenship?

The above questions seek to obtain quantitative data to determine relationships, employees’ levels of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship. To answer the above questions, the quantitative study was conducted as follows.

4.3.1.1 Population
A total number of 200 (n =155) miners participated in the cross sectional survey of the study. Stratified random sampling was used to draw the sample since there are different work units in the company. The human resources department provided the sampling frame and connected the researcher with departmental heads who allowed researcher access to miners and stratify them according to their work units.

Shop floor employees i.e. miners, provided data for the quantitative part of the study. Table 2 below tabulates the demographic findings from the participants.
## Table 2

*Characteristics of Participants (n = 155)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>85.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>African</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>85.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mixed Race</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age (years)</strong></td>
<td>24 &amp; Younger</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25 to 35</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36 to 45</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46 to 55</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Qualifications</strong></td>
<td>56 and older</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 to GR 7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ZIC</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ordinary Level</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advanced Level</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree</td>
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<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post Graduate</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
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<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tenure (years)</strong></td>
<td>Less than 1 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 - 2 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 &lt; y &lt; 5 years</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Position</strong></td>
<td>Sorting Point</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>70.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Power &amp; Equipment</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Approximately, 253 shop floor employees are employed in this mining company. Most of the respondents (about 70.3%) worked in the sorting plant with a considerable number in exploration (about 7.1%) and Power and equipment (13.5%). Of the 155 respondents, 56.1 % were married with divorcees and widowers recording lowest number of 3.2% and 6.5% respectively, about 56% held an ordinary certificate (secondary school leaving certificate) and the majority of the respondents were between 25 and 35 years. Sixty-nine (69%) of the participants have been working for the organisation for between 2 to 5 years whereas the rest had worked for the organisation for less than 2 years. The majority of the sample comprised males 85% compared to females 0.012%. Such trends prevailed because there were more males employed than females. In the study, the majority of the participants belonged to the age category of 25 to 35 years old, depicting a study population characterised by the younger generation.

4.3.1.2 Sampling
The quantitative part of the study employed stratified random sampling, which entails “the division of a population into smaller groups called strata. These strata are based on members’ shared attributes or characteristics” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2003, p. 86). The researcher randomly selected miners as they are located in their units to fill in the questionnaires. This allowed the understanding of miners’ differences among their levels of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship. To manage challenges that come up with stratified random sampling the researcher ensured availability and completion of the population list by working closely with the human resources department as well as departmental heads who facilitated researcher access to and recruitment of participants by informing them about the investigation, and inviting them to participate. The Human Resources
Executive of the company had originated notices of clearance allowing employees to participate in the research. These were sent to respective work units (departments) and mine sites.

Of the targeted 230 shop-floor workers, 200 participants (n=200) were randomly selected and completed the distributed questionnaires. Of these, 155 questionnaires were returned to the researcher. An acceptable response rate was obtained since 78% of the entire workforce was accessed (Sekaran, 2000). This allowed for statistical procedures, such as standard multiple regression (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The population of functional managers consisted of eight (8) functional managers employed by the mine (Detail shall be provided in the qualitative section far below).

4.3.1.3 Research instruments
The quantitative part of the current study used questionnaires to collect quantitative data. The researcher opted to use questionnaires in order to obtain large amounts of information from a larger group of miners in a short period. Questionnaires also allowed for more scientific and objective analysis, which helped in the achievement of the objectives guiding the study. To overcome the shortfalls presented by the use of questionnaires in research, qualitative data was also collected. Four standardised questionnaires were used. These questionnaires are the Utrecht Work Engagement Survey (UWES), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the Psychological Empowerment Scale and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Checklist. A biographical data sheet was administered to gather information on the participants’ marital status, tenure, age, functional category and qualifications.

In order to measure the effectiveness of the instruments in relation to its length, wording and validity, pre-testing on the four questionnaires was done on ten (10) employees from different functions of the organisation (Treece & Treece, 1986). Ethical
considerations such as confidentiality and informed consent, were applied throughout this process. In addition, lecturers who contributed, especially on the wording and rephrasing of the questions, did thorough scrutiny and analysis of the instruments.

4.3.1.3.1 Utrecht work engagement scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003)
Participants’ engagement levels were measured using UWES. The perceived suitability and conformance of the UWES to the definition of work engagement, constitutes the reason why it was employed in the current study. Engagement is comprised of three concepts, and these include absorption, vigour and dedication (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). One of the questions that maybe asked in order to measure one’s vigour can be; *at my work, I feel like bursting with energy*. To ascertain dedication, one may rank themselves on the question *I find the work that I do meaningful and purposeful*. To measure absorption, one of the questions include; *Time flies when I am at work*.

A number of research on UWES has been conducted with its reliability found to be satisfactory. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) in their two longitudinal studies, found that the test-retest reliability was an indication of stability. The three subscales of the UWES were found to have internal consistency and reliability ranging between 0.68 and 0.91, with internal consistency levels on: dedication: 0.89; vigour: 0.79 and absorption:0.78 (Coetzee & Rothman, 2005: Storm & Rothmann, 2003. The UWES was also found to be valid in the Southern African context, with most studies conducted in South Africa (Storm & Rothmann, 2003: Stander & Rothmann, 2010: Buitendach, 2011).

4.3.1.3.2 Psychological empowerment scale (PES) (Spreitzer, 1995)
To determine employees’ empowerment levels, psychological empowerment scale (Spreitzer, 1995) was used. Within the concept of psychological empowerment are four (4) dimensions, which include meaningfulness, competence, choice and impact. Statements such: *my job activities are personally meaningful to me*, as measure
meaningfulness. To measure one’s competence, statements such as: *I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.* Choice is assessed through questions such as; *I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work.* Finally, to measure impact, statements such as; *I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job* can be asked. In constructing the psychological empowerment instrument, Spreitzer focused on the individual experience of dimension and not on the description of work environment that might result in that experience (Spreitzer & Gretchen, 1996). Meaning items were taken directly from Tymon (1988) whereas competence items were adapted from Jones (1986). On the Other hand, self-determination items were adapted from Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) whilst the scale and impact items were adapted from Ashforth’s (1989) helplessness scale.

4.3.1.3.3 Minnesota job satisfaction questionnaire (MSQ 20)
The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1967) measures twenty different areas that concern a job. Aspects such as job variety, autonomy, opportunity for promotion, the work environment, recognition and nature of work, all influence company policies formulations and implementation. MSQ 20 assesses extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. Respective examples of these two include “chance to be a person of significance in the community and the chance to do things that do not go against one’s conscience” (Labuschagne et al., 2005, p. 376).

The alpha coefficients for the MSQ 20 “range from 0.87 to 0.95, which supports the internal consistency of the scale” (Labuschagne et al., 2005, p. 377). In one study, a reliability coefficient of 0.82 for the extrinsic job satisfaction scale and 0.79 for the intrinsic job satisfaction scale were obtained (Labuschagne, Brent & Van Erck, 2005). It is important to note that confirmation for the validity of MSQ as a measure of general job satisfaction was necessitated by the test’s performance agreeing to theoretical
expectation as well as construct validation studies grounded on the work adjustment theory (Mitchell, 1994).

### 4.3.1.3.4 Organisational citizenship behaviour checklist (OCB-C – 20 item) (Fox & Spector, 2009)

The original Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Checklist (OCB-C) was a 42-item instrument designed to assess the frequency of organisational citizenship behaviours performed by employees (Fox & Spector, 2002). The instrument has been developed and shortened first to 36 items and then to the final recommended 20 item scale (Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2009). The OCB-C was explicitly designed to reduce similarity with scale of counterproductive work behaviour, (Dalal, 2005; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010).

The OCB-C uses a 5-point frequency scale ranging from 1 = Never to 5 = every day and scoring is computed by summing responses across items. Examples of statements used to determine citizenship behaviours include; *Picked up meal for others at work; Changed vacation schedule, workdays, or shifts to accommodate co-worker’s needs; Went out of the way to give co-worker encouragement or express appreciation.* The summation of responses for all items determines the total score. The OCB-C is an underlying indicator scale made up of “items that are not all parallel assessments of a single underlying construct” (Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010, p.781). Such scales items are not anticipated to be highly related, making internal consistent reliability not a noble indicator of reliability (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). However, internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) was found to be .97 for the total scale, 0.92 for (OCBO), that is organisation-directed behaviour and 0.91 for OCBP, that is personal-directed behaviour (Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2009) for the 42-item version.
4.3.1.4 Data analysis

In the analysis of the obtained data, the SPSS 23 program was used. In addition, descriptive and inferential statistics were used in order to:

i. Gain an understanding of the obtained data.

ii. Determine the normal distribution of the data, descriptive statistics were used to ascertain the mean, standard deviation, kurtosis and skewness of the data.

iii. Determine the psychological properties of the four constructs under study, factor analysis was conducted.

iv. Identify relationships on work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship, inferential statistics using the Pearson’s Product Moment correlations was conducted. Thus, the statistical significance was set at p<0.05.

v. Identify the factors that play a significant role in determining work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship, regression analysis was conducted.

vi. In addition, T-Tests were conducted where a table of p-values was constructed in order to determine the significant differences of the variables.

4.3.2 Qualitative component of the study

The qualitative approach was adopted in this study to understand how managers and employees in the mining industry observe and describe employees’ lives when at work, as well as producing a detailed and non-quantitative account of small groups so as to interpret the meaning that employees in the mining companies under study make of their lives in a natural setting. While researchers in industrial psychology seldom used it, the qualitative approach has been adopted mostly in other areas of psychology such as clinical, community psychology as well as health promotion (Willig, 2013).
The following questions empirically fulfilled the qualitative objectives for the study.

i. What are the managers’ and workers’ representatives’ perceptions on the levels of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship of their employees?

ii. What are the managers’ and workers’ representatives’ perceptions on the contributing factors to work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship of their employees?

iii. What do managers’ and worker representatives’ perceive as the role of the socio-political environment on the workers’ engagement and psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship?

iv. In what ways can organisations design effective employment interventions for promoting psychological well-being and organisational citizenship of mining employees?

The above questions sought to gain a deeper understanding of the contributions of the factors that affect work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship of the employees. A focus on the employees’ perspectives allows for approaches that enhance employee well-being through placing value on employees concerns and or welfare when conducting organisational activities.

4.3.2.1 Participants
Functional managers and worker representatives from different sections of the company provided data for the qualitative part of the study. Twelve participants (n =12) participated comprising of eight (n = 8) Functional Managers and four (n =4) Worker Representatives. These numbers were not pre-determined but represented the numbers of those who were available during the time of study. As the qualitative aspect of the
study also sought some generalisation through representative sample, these numbers closely represent the total number of managers in the company (n =9) and worker representative (n =4).

4.3.2.2 Selection of participants
The qualitative part of the study employed purposive sampling to elicit participants’ views to answer the qualitative questions on the four constructs. Purposive sampling entails “selecting units, for example individuals and institutions, based on specific purposes associated with answering a research study’s questions” (Clark & Creswell, 2008, p. 36). Purposive sampling is thus defined as a sampling technique where participants, settings or events are chosen because of their ability to provide important information which cannot be adequately obtained from other sets (Maxwell, 1997).

As the current study aimed at gaining in-depth knowledge, it was crucial to engage participants with the most relevant information through interviews. This gave a true picture of the organisation with regards to the constructs under study (Sekaran, 2003; Saunders, Lewis, &Thornhill, 2009). The rationale for this was that, by deliberately targeting functional managers and worker representatives, the study would obtain the most meaningful data on their perceptions of work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship and the socio-political environment.

These selected participants were seen as the best people to provide the information needed in order to achieve the objectives of the current study. The shop floor workers are the ones who perform day-to-day tasks, subjected to different situations under different conditions. They were therefore best suited to provide the answers to the four constructs understudy. Moreover, given the direct relations that managers have with the
workers, such experience was necessary in answering the qualitative questions for the current study.

Clark and Creswell (2008) highlighted the shortcomings of purposive sampling around the selection criteria. The current study overcame this problem by using a larger sample. For instance, out of nine (9) functional departments in the company, the researcher managed to interview eight (8) functional managers and all worker representatives.

### 4.3.2.3 Data collection methods

In-depth qualitative interviews (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Robson, 2002; Leedy & Ormrod, 2001) were used to solicit miners’ perceptions on issues relating to their work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship data from the participants. Robson (2002) define interviews as verbal or face-to-face interaction involving the researcher and the participant(s). The interviews, which averaged 45 minutes each, were one-on-one audio-recorded interactions conducted with individual participants at a quiet and convenient place to participants. Recording of interviews was used because of its ability to maintain all verbal productions of the interview.

Although there was an already prepared schedule of questions (see Appendix F, G, H & I); the sequence, content and wording of the questions (formulated around the research objective) were wholly in the hands of the interviewer (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). The flexible and iterative nature of the interviews (Patton, 2002; Babbie, 2008) provided the researcher as well as the participants an opportunity to enjoy freedom on both the choice and sequencing of questions, as well as freedom to express their views in their own terms. This allowed the conversations to become what Polkinghorne (2005, p.137) refers as “a give and take dialectic in which the interviewer follow threads opened by the interviewee which then
guide the conversation towards producing a full account of the experiences under study”.

Qualitative interviews allowed for a “natural conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee to develop in the general area of interest of the researcher” (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009, p. 115). The researcher made this possible by having a six-minute introductory period for each interview. Doing so, neutralised any presumptions the researcher or interviewee might have. This created a climate conducive to unrestricted, truthful, thoughtful and unpressurised responses.

4.3.2.4 Data analysis
To analyse the qualitative data for the current research, thematic analysis was conducted. Thematic analysis involves a hunt for themes that emerge in relative to the description and investigation of a phenomenon (Clark & Creswell, 2009). After a thoroughly reading the transcripts, themes and patterns relating to the variables of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship were identified and coded.

The researcher adopted three steps propounded by Thomas and Harden (2007) in conducting thematic analysis. This involved “undertaking free line-by-line conducting, organizing codes into areas to create themes and ultimately constructing analytical themes” (Thomas & Harden, 2007). Generally, the evolving themes were preferred according to their significance to the research questions.

As shown in figure 8 below, the qualitative aspect made use of interviews and observations while questionnaires were used for the quantitative part of the research. Triangulation determined the validity of qualitative and quantitative approaches. As
shown in the figure below, two data collection tools (in-depth interviews and questionnaires) were used.

4.4.3.3 Triangulation of the obtained data

![Triangulation diagram]

**Figure 8: Triangulation used in this study (Author)**

Through methodological triangulation, where both quantitative and qualitative methodologies were used, the aspects of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship were clearly understood and more accurate measurement of the constructs were obtained (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Gilbert, 2008). Thus, convergence between qualitative and quantitative methodologies enhanced the belief that the obtained results are valid and not a methodological artefact (Bryman, 2004).

4.4 Ethical considerations

The study was conducted in line with the approved protocol (Appendix A) and requirements of the Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of
Fieldwork commenced after a full ethical clearance was obtained from the university. All ethics principles of confidentiality and voluntary participation were adhered to. The researcher obtained informed consent from all participants after a detailed explanation that participation was voluntary and that they were allowed to withdraw their participation at any point in time during the research.

4.5 Conclusion
The current chapter outlined the research methodology that guided the current research. The chapter aimed at providing information on the sampling methods, research design and participants used. Moreover, a discussion was done on the validity and reliability levels of the instruments used to collect data. A comprehensive discussion of the statistical analysis procedure was done. In conclusion, the chapter outlined the procedure undertaken for ethical considerations and data collection for the study.
CHAPTER FIVE

QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter presents results of the quantitative component of the study. The chapter is structured in line with the five key questions the quantitative study outlined below:

1. What are the psychometric properties of the research instruments used for the study?
2. What is the relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship?
3. To what extent does work engagement predict organisational citizenship?
4. To what extent does psychological empowerment predict organisational citizenship?
5. To what extent does job satisfaction predict organisational citizenship?

The sections below describe results from different tests that were run in order to answer the above questions.

5.2 Descriptive statistics
Table 3 shows that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for all the overall scales. Scores on most dimensions seem to be distributed normally (skewness and kurtosis were smaller than 1), except for JSS (kurtosis 1.063) but still considered acceptable.
Table 3
Descriptive and Reliability statistics [Valid N=155]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>α</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>36.00</td>
<td>119.00</td>
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<td>.619</td>
<td>0.850</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-.234</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td>0.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB_Factor1</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>36.2083</td>
<td>7.50466</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>0.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB_Factor2</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>22.2550</td>
<td>5.69869</td>
<td>-.438</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td>0.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB_Factor3</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>7.1757</td>
<td>1.79082</td>
<td>-.246</td>
<td>-.223</td>
<td>0.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES Total</td>
<td>37.00</td>
<td>112.00</td>
<td>74.6327</td>
<td>19.07055</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>-.907</td>
<td>0.963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES_Factor1</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>48.6122</td>
<td>13.21915</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>-1.184</td>
<td>0.966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES_Factor2</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>42.00</td>
<td>26.0915</td>
<td>6.88473</td>
<td>.464</td>
<td>-.199</td>
<td>0.890</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

α = Cronbach alpha coefficient; SD = Standard deviation,

5.2 Psychometric properties of the research instruments
In order to answer the question on what relationship exists between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship, an explanatory factor analysis was conducted.

5.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis
A maximum likelihood factor analysis via promax rotation procedure, suppressing absolute values below 0.4 was conducted to assess the factor structure of the UWES, PES, JSS and the OCB indices’ sub dimensions. This study adopted Tabachnick and Fidell’s (2001) guideline ‘eigenvalue greater than 1’ to determine the number of factors
extracted. According to Thompson (2004) factor analysis can be used for data reduction when patterns can be recognised to develop specific constructs. Three factors emerged from the 17 items of the UWES (also see Alarcon & Lyons, 2011; Manning, 2016), which were subjected to the maximum likelihood analysis whose results are shown in Table 4.

### Table 4
**Pattern Matrix of the UWES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1 (enthusiasm – vigour)</th>
<th>2 (emersion- absorption)</th>
<th>3 (dedication)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>α</td>
<td>.926</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td>.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES7</td>
<td>1.079</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES10</td>
<td>.832</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES8</td>
<td>.764</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES5</td>
<td>.728</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES9</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES2</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES15</td>
<td></td>
<td>.736</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES16</td>
<td></td>
<td>.722</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES14</td>
<td></td>
<td>.617</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES12</td>
<td></td>
<td>.608</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES17</td>
<td></td>
<td>.544</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES13</td>
<td></td>
<td>.431</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES11</td>
<td></td>
<td>.413</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.545</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.
The Keizer-Meyer-Olkin value (0.864) exceeded the recommended threshold value of 0.6 and the Bartlett’s test of Sphericity significant. The three components, which emerged, explained a total of 61.9% of the variance. A promax rotated solution with Keiser Normalisation revealed strong loadings and 6 items, mostly inclined to vigour substantially loaded on Factor 1, six items mostly representing enthusiasm – vigour loaded on component 2 (emersion- absorption) and 3 items on component 3 (dedication). Item 6 did not load strongly onto any of the 3 factors and was excluded from all further analyses. It can be noted that the current study maintained three factors just like the original UWES and the categorisation was almost similar.

Table 5
Pattern Matrix of the JSS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1 (Autonomy – Intrinsic)</th>
<th>2 (Organisational support – Extrinsic)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>α = .85</td>
<td>α = .867</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS12</td>
<td>.936</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS13</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS16</td>
<td>.671</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS14</td>
<td>.668</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS15</td>
<td>.650</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS17</td>
<td>.604</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS8</td>
<td>.455</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS9</td>
<td>.408</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS6</td>
<td></td>
<td>.796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS7</td>
<td></td>
<td>.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS1</td>
<td></td>
<td>.670</td>
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<td>JSS11</td>
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<td>.465</td>
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<tr>
<td>JSS18</td>
<td></td>
<td>.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.403</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.
Table 5 above shows the results from a forced two-component maximum likelihood analysis was conducted on the 20 items of the JSS to assess the factorability of the items. A study of burnout and job satisfaction among student support services person, two factors for job satisfaction emerged (Brewer & Clippard, 2002). Items JSS4, JSS19 and JSS20 were removed from the analysis because they did not reach the threshold point of 0.4. A promax rotated solution with Keiser Normalisation revealed strong loadings and 8 items, mostly inclined to intrinsic job satisfaction substantially loading on component 1 (autonomy – Intrinsic), nine items representing extrinsic job satisfaction on component 2 (Organisational support – Extrinsic).

| Table 6 |
| Pattern Matrix of the PES |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1 (Intrapersonal)</th>
<th>2 (Interactional)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\alpha = .966$</td>
<td>$\alpha = .89$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES2</td>
<td>1.058</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES1</td>
<td>.998</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES11</td>
<td>.859</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES5</td>
<td>.805</td>
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<tr>
<td>PES4</td>
<td>.784</td>
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<tr>
<td>PES3</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES13</td>
<td>.702</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES8</td>
<td>.700</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES9</td>
<td>.616</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES15</td>
<td>.589</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES14</td>
<td></td>
<td>.967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES16</td>
<td></td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES7</td>
<td></td>
<td>.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES12</td>
<td></td>
<td>.580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES6</td>
<td></td>
<td>.435</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.
A two-factor solution via promax rotation extracted explained 51.57% of the cumulative variance. The Keizer-Meyer-Olkin value (0.851) exceeded the recommended threshold value of 0.6 and the Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was significant.

For the PES, the outcome of factor analysis using maximum likelihood showed 2 factors emerging (also see Menon, 2001). The overall PES index reported a Keizer-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.934 and exceeded the recommended 0.6 value and the Bartlett’s test of Sphericity showed a statistical significance. The two-component solution explained a total of 73.04% of the variance. No item was excluded because they all satisfied the threshold of 0.4. Table 6 shows the results of the factor analysis with maximum likelihood via promax rotation of the psychological empowerment index. The results show that two factors emerged from the data, unlike three factors as conceptualised in the literature (Akey, Marquis, & Ross, 2000). It is however important to note that the two categories maintained similar labels with the first two as proposed by Akey, Marquis and Ross in 2000.

Table 7 shows the outcome of exploratory factor analysis conducted on the 20-item OCB index using maximum likelihood.

Items measuring Organisational Citizenship Behaviour loaded perfectly onto 3 factors with component one to three consisting of 10, 7 and 2 items respectively. Almost similar findings emerged in the confirmatory factor analysis and invariance of an organisational citizenship behaviour measurement study (Livens & Anseel, 2004).
### Table 7
**Pattern Matrix of the OCB**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1 (Organisational citizenship behaviour – Personal OCBP)</th>
<th>2 (Organisational citizenship behaviour – organisational OCBO)</th>
<th>3 (Organisational citizenship behaviour – organisational-Organisational and Personal)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α = .906</td>
<td>α = .828</td>
<td>α = .76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB3</td>
<td>.831</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB4</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB2</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB6</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB8</td>
<td>.681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB5</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB15</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB9</td>
<td>.637</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB19</td>
<td>.576</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB18</td>
<td>.463</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB14</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB17</td>
<td>.679</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB16</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB20</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB10</td>
<td>.513</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB1</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB7</td>
<td>.462</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB12</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB11</td>
<td>.468</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

However, for the purpose of this study OCB was considered in its totality as explained in literature. To note also is that, item OCB13 was not considered in the subsequent analyses because it did not satisfy the cut-off point of 0.4. The Keizer-Meyer-Olkin value for the work adjustment index was 0.858, exceeding the acceptable threshold
value of 0.6 and the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity showed statistical significance. The three-component solution shows 58.8% of the variance.

5.3 Relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship

In order to answer the question on the relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship, Inferential Statistics using the Pearson’s Product Moment Correlations was conducted.

5.3.1 Inferential statistics: Pearson’s product-moment correlations

A Pearson’s product-moment correlation analysis was employed to determine the relationships between relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship. The correlation coefficients between the variables for are indicated in Table 8 below.

A positive and practically significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and work engagement, \( r (155) = 0.486, p<0.001 \) (medium effect). A practically significant relationship was found between job satisfaction and organisation citizenship behaviour \([r (155) = 0.342, p<0.001, \text{medium effect}].\) Lastly, work engagement correlated positively and practically significant (moderate effect) with organisational citizenship \([r (155) = 0.482, p<0.001].\)

Table 8 below shows Pearson’s correlations between scales.
Table 8
Pearson’s Correlations between scales [Valid N=155]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. JSS TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. JSS_Factor1</td>
<td>.898***</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. JSS_Factor2</td>
<td>.905***</td>
<td>.626***</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. UWES TOTAL</td>
<td>.486***</td>
<td>.307***</td>
<td>.563***</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. UWES_Factor1</td>
<td>.359***</td>
<td>.216*</td>
<td>.441***</td>
<td>.877***</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. UWES_Factor2</td>
<td>.489***</td>
<td>.347***</td>
<td>.516***</td>
<td>.812***</td>
<td>.484***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. UWES_Factor3</td>
<td>.337***</td>
<td>.209*</td>
<td>.418***</td>
<td>.795***</td>
<td>.669***</td>
<td>.498***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. OCB TOTAL</td>
<td>.342***</td>
<td>.292**</td>
<td>.265**</td>
<td>.482***</td>
<td>.273**</td>
<td>.565***</td>
<td>.335***</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. OCB Factor1</td>
<td>.352***</td>
<td>.289***</td>
<td>.301***</td>
<td>.535***</td>
<td>.449***</td>
<td>.478***</td>
<td>.379***</td>
<td>.922***</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. OCB Factor2</td>
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<td>.216*</td>
<td>.237*</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.214*</td>
<td>-.080</td>
<td>.467***</td>
<td>.137</td>
<td>.864***</td>
<td>.621***</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. OCB Factor3</td>
<td>.272**</td>
<td>.204*</td>
<td>.264*</td>
<td>.510***</td>
<td>.370***</td>
<td>.501***</td>
<td>.345***</td>
<td>.663***</td>
<td>.544***</td>
<td>.507***</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. PE TOTAL</td>
<td>.504***</td>
<td>.289***</td>
<td>.613***</td>
<td>.737***</td>
<td>.776***</td>
<td>.486***</td>
<td>.573***</td>
<td>.249**</td>
<td>.397***</td>
<td>-.058</td>
<td>.318***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. PES_Factor1</td>
<td>.453***</td>
<td>.212*</td>
<td>.598***</td>
<td>.752***</td>
<td>.798***</td>
<td>.481***</td>
<td>.580***</td>
<td>.212*</td>
<td>.369***</td>
<td>-.105</td>
<td>.345***</td>
<td>.972***</td>
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<td>14. PES_Factor2</td>
<td>.526***</td>
<td>.397***</td>
<td>.539***</td>
<td>.592***</td>
<td>.618***</td>
<td>.416***</td>
<td>.455***</td>
<td>.261**</td>
<td>.370***</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.214**</td>
<td>.895***</td>
<td>.766***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: *, Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.05; **, Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.01; ***, Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.001;

\[ r ≥ 0.30 \] Practically significant relationship (Medium effect); \[ r ≥ 0.50 \] Practically significant relationship (Large effect)
5.4 Predicting organisational citizenship from work engagement, job satisfaction and psychological empowerment

Standardised regression analysis was used to determine whether the three independent variables namely work engagement, job satisfaction and psychological empowerment were able to predict organisational citizenship. The results of the hierarchical regression analysis are presented in Table 9 below. Further to this, T Tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) due to demographic group differences pertaining to OCB, JSS, WE, and PE were conducted. The idea was to assess the differences in the way in which respondents experienced the organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, work engagement and psychological empowerment based on demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, race, qualifications, tenure, and work position.
Table 9
Results of a standardised regression analysis with organisational citizenship as a dependent variable and job satisfaction, work engagement and psychological empowerment as predictors (Beta-coefficients)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Beta</th>
<th>S.E</th>
<th>Standardised beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>∆R²</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predicting organisational citizenship behaviour from work engagement</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>59.121</td>
<td>3.178</td>
<td>18.605</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5.573</td>
<td>0.237</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>1,101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>3.378</td>
<td>1.431</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>2.361</td>
<td>.020</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>34.313</td>
<td>5.683</td>
<td>6.038</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>16.196</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>2,100</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-3.50</td>
<td>1.481</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>-2.36</td>
<td>.814</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work engagement</td>
<td>.499</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>.506</td>
<td>5.047</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predicting organisational citizenship behaviour from psychological empowerment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>59.408</td>
<td>3.123</td>
<td>19.026</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5.454</td>
<td>0.237</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>1,114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>3.278</td>
<td>1.404</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>2.335</td>
<td>.021</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>51.953</td>
<td>5.416</td>
<td>9.592</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.179</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>2,113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>2.096</td>
<td>1.561</td>
<td>.137</td>
<td>1.343</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Psychological empowerment</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>1.678</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predicting organisational citizenship behaviour from job satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>59.810</td>
<td>3.127</td>
<td>19.126</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>6.378</td>
<td>0.237</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>1,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>3.525</td>
<td>1.396</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>2.525</td>
<td>.013</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>38.857</td>
<td>6.619</td>
<td>5.871</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>9.816</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>2,102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>2.857</td>
<td>1.337</td>
<td>.196</td>
<td>2.137</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>.389</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>.324</td>
<td>3.541</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Dependent variable: Organisational Citizenship, $\beta$ is the beta value; $F$, F-test of F statistic; $p$, is the probability value; is the proportion of variance accounted for by the other variable; $R^2$ tells how much of the variance in the independent variable is explained by the model. $\Delta$ is the adjusted $R$ square statistic; it corrects this value to provide a better estimate of the true population value.
5.4.1 Predicting organisational citizenship from work engagement

Standardised regression analysis assessed the ability of work engagement to predict organisational citizenship after controlling for a confounding variable, age. In Step 1 of table 9 above, the control variables (age) explained 5.2 per cent of the variance in organisational behaviour $R^2 = 0.052$, $F (1,101) = 5.573$, $p < 0.001$). In Step 2, the entry of work engagement saw the whole model explaining 24.5 per cent, ($R^2 \text{ change} = 0.244$, $F \text{ change} (2,100) = 16.196$, $p < 0.001$). Work engagement explained an additional 19.2% of the variance in organisational citizenship after controlling for age. When the influence of age was controlled for, in the final model, work engagement was found to be statistically significant predictor of organisational citizenship ($\beta = 0.506$, $p < 0.001$, large effect). The results show that work engagement strongly predicts organisational citizenship. This suggests that engaged employees are likely to have high organisational citizenship. Table 10 below further interprets results of a standardised regression analysis with organisational citizenship as a dependent variable and work engagement factors as predictors.
Table 10
Results of a standardised regression analysis with organisational citizenship as a dependent variable and work engagement factors as predictors (Bêta-coefficients)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Beta</th>
<th>S.E</th>
<th>Standardized beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>∆R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>59.662</td>
<td>2.962</td>
<td>20.142</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.912</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>2.934</td>
<td>1.324</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>2.216</td>
<td>.029*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor1</td>
<td>1.293</td>
<td>1.501</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.862</td>
<td>.391</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>51.852</td>
<td>4.593</td>
<td>11.291</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.959</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>1.293</td>
<td>1.501</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.862</td>
<td>.391</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor1</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>2.200</td>
<td>.030*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor2</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.753</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor3</td>
<td>1.152</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td>6.276</td>
<td>.000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>35.941</td>
<td>4.708</td>
<td>7.633</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>17.560</td>
<td>0.566</td>
<td>0.320</td>
<td>.239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.418</td>
<td>1.325</td>
<td>-.029</td>
<td>-.315</td>
<td>.753</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor1</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.753</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor2</td>
<td>1.152</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td>6.276</td>
<td>.000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>35.246</td>
<td>4.773</td>
<td>7.385</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>13.361</td>
<td>0.570</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.172</td>
<td>1.353</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>-.127</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor1</td>
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<td>.226</td>
<td>-.053</td>
<td>-.444</td>
<td>.658</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor2</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>5.699</td>
<td>.000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UWES_Factor3</td>
<td>.389</td>
<td>.425</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>.916</td>
<td>.362</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Dependent variable, organisational citizenship, β is the beta value; F, F-test of F statistic; p, is the probability value; is the proportion of variance accounted for by the other variable; R² tells how much of the variance in the independent variable is explained by the model. Δ is the adjusted R square statistic; it corrects this value to provide a better estimate of the true population value.

*, Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.05; **, Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.01; ***, Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.001
5.4.2 Predicting organisational citizenship from psychological empowerment

As shown in Table 9, when age was entered in Step 1, it explained 4.6 per cent of the variance in organisational citizenship, $R^2 = 0.046$, $F (1,114) = 5.454$, $p = 0.021$. In Step 2, after the entry of psychological empowerment, they both explained 6.9 per cent of the variance in OCB, ($R^2$ change = 0.023, $F$ change (2,113) = 4.179, $p = 0.096$) with psychological empowerment explaining an additional 2.3 per cent of variance in OCB.

On the basis of this outcome, psychological empowerment was not found to be a significant predictor of OCB ($\beta = 0.171$, $p > 0.05$). In this case, the conclusion is that psychological empowerment does not predict organisational citizenship. Table 11 below provides clarity on the prediction of psychological empowerment factors on OCB.

### Table 11

*Results of a standardized regression analysis with organisational citizenship as a dependent variable and psychological empowerment factors as predictors (Beta-coefficients)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Beta</th>
<th>Standardised Beta</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Predicting organisational citizenship behaviour from PES Factor 1 and PES Factor 2</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>59.662</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>20.492</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5.085</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>0.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>2.934</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>2.255</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>0.026*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (Constant)</td>
<td>54.870</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>12.320</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.569</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>1.873</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>.130</td>
<td>1.252</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>0.213</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES_Factor1</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>1.147</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (Constant)</td>
<td>50.423</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>10.471</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>2.911</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.202</td>
<td>1.885</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>0.062</td>
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<tr>
<td>PES_Factor1</td>
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<td>.159</td>
<td>-.134</td>
<td>-.228</td>
<td>.410</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES_Factor2</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>2.224</td>
<td>.028*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** Dependent variable, organisational citizenship, $\beta$ is the beta value; $F$, F-test of $F$ statistic; $p$, is the probability value; is the proportion of variance accounted for by the other variable; $R^2$ tells how much of the variance in the independent variable is explained by the model. $\Delta R^2$ is the adjusted $R^2$ statistic; it corrects this value to provide a better estimate of the true population value.

*, Statistical significance at $p \leq 0.05$; **, Statistical significance at $p \leq 0.01$; ***, Statistical significance at $p \leq 0.00$
5.4.3 Predicting organisational citizenship behaviour from job satisfaction

Using standardised regression analysis, the predictive value of job satisfaction on organisational citizenship was assessed after controlling for the influence of age (see Table 9). The control variable age was entered in Step 1, explaining 5.8% of the variance in organisational citizenship ($R^2 = 0.058$, $F (1,103) = 6.378$, $p = 0.013$). When job satisfaction was entered in Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 16.1% Job satisfaction explained an additional 10.3% of the variance in OCB after controlling for age, $R^2$ change = 0.103, $F$ change $(2,102) = 9.816$, $p = 0.01$. Table 12 below details of the extent to which job satisfaction factors predict OCB.

### Table 12

**Results of a regression analysis with organisational citizenship as a dependent variable and Job satisfaction factors as predictors (Bêta-coefficients)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Beta</th>
<th>S.E</th>
<th>Standardised Beta</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>59.662</td>
<td>2.962</td>
<td>20.142</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.912</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>2.934</td>
<td>1.324</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>2.216</td>
<td>.029*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>41.997</td>
<td>6.012</td>
<td>6.985</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>8.229</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>2.950</td>
<td>1.269</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>2.325</td>
<td>.022*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JSS_Factor1</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>3.333</td>
<td>.001**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>40.936</td>
<td>6.665</td>
<td>6.141</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>2.762</td>
<td>1.369</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>2.018</td>
<td>.046*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JSS_Factor1</td>
<td>.612</td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>2.267</td>
<td>.025*</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JSS_Factor2</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.268</td>
<td>.375</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.708</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: **Dependent variable**, organisational citizenship, $\beta$is the beta value; $F$, F-test of F statistic; $p$, is the probability value; is the proportion of variance accounted for by the other variable; $R^2$ tells how much of the variance in the independent variable is explained by the model. $\Delta$ is the adjusted $R$ square statistic; it corrects this value to provide a better estimate of the true population value.

*, Statistical significance at $p \leq 0.05$; ***, Statistical significance at $p \leq 0.01$; ***, Statistical significance at $p \leq 0.00$
When the influence of age was controlled for in the final model, job satisfaction was found to be statistically significant predictor of OCB ($\beta = 0.324$, $p < 0.01$, medium effect).

**5.4.4 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) on demographic group differences pertaining to OCB, JSS, WE and PE**

In order to establish where the significant mean differences lay, Post Hoc Analyses were performed (Pallant, 2013). The initial differences in the experience of the four constructs between age, tenure, position in the organisation, marital status and qualifications are all illustrated in Table 9 ahead.

As shown in Table 13 further below, results from ANOVA indicate that there were no statistically significant differences in the levels of Job satisfaction [$F (4) = 1.644$, $p = 0.169$] between different age groups. However, statistically significant differences existed in organisational citizenship [$F (4) = 3.975$, $p = 0.005$]; work engagement [$F (4) = 9.149$, $p < 0.001$] as well as psychological empowerment [$F (4) = 7.473$, $p < 0.001$] and levels experienced by different age groups. With regard to where the differences lay, post hoc analysis revealed significant differences for organisational citizenship behaviour between the 25-35 year and the 56+ year age groups. It terms of work engagement the younger generation (less than 24 years) differed with all but the 25-35-year age group. Interestingly, the levels of psychological capital differed significantly between those who were younger than 24 years, 25-35 year and the 36-45-year age group.

To note also is that significant differences in work engagement and psychological empowerment existed between those who had been with the organisation for a short time and those who had stayed with the organisation for a long time, $F (2) = 3.320$, $p < 0.1$ and $F (2) = 5.5869$, $p < 0.01$ respectively. Differences in levels of both work engagement and
psychological empowerment existed between employees who had stayed with the organisation for a period of 1-2 years and those who had been with the organisation for more than 2 years but less than 5 years. Furthermore, no statistically significant differences were found in the levels of organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and work engagement among employees who were married, single, separated or divorced. The results show that there were differences in the level of psychological empowerment between employees based on differing marital status, $F (3) = 4.145, p = 0.008$. Post hoc analysis revealed that differences existed between those who were first between the married and divorced ($p=0.024$) and secondly between those who were divorced and those who were widowed ($p=0.018$).

In terms of position, significantly difference was found in the levels or organisational citizenship $F (6) = 0.824, p < 0.001$, work engagement, $F (6) = 3.449, p = 0.004$ and psychological empowerment, $F (6) = 8.278, p < 0.001$, experienced by individuals doing different jobs in the organisation. Lastly, based on qualification, statistically significant differences existed in the levels of both work engagement and psychological empowerment experienced by employees based on the type of qualification they held. Although, when employees, were compared on the basis of the position held and qualification, attained, no further follow-up tests or posthoc comparisons using the Turkey HSD test were conducted because at least one group has fewer than two cases (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2013).
# Table 13

**ANOVA of OCB, JSS, UWES and PES based on demographic characteristics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Age (Years)</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24&amp;younger</td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>46-55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>66.06</td>
<td>63.37</td>
<td>66.93</td>
<td>89.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS</td>
<td>54.77</td>
<td>57.35</td>
<td>62.13</td>
<td>59.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UWES</td>
<td>58.97</td>
<td>63.59</td>
<td>71.57</td>
<td>87.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES</td>
<td>65.91</td>
<td>79.16</td>
<td>86.78</td>
<td>90.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenure</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
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**Notes:** Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.05; **, Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.01; ***, Statistical significance at p ≤ 0.001;
As demonstrated in Table 14 that shows results from a T-test conducted to ascertain if significant differences existed between male and female experiences of the four constructs, no significance differences between males’ (M = 66.04, SD = 13.77) and females’ (M = 61.50, SD = 2.12; t = 0.464, p = 0.643, two-tailed) experiences of organisational citizenship. Furthermore, no statistically significant differences existed in the levels job satisfaction, work engagement as well as psychological empowerment experienced by both males and females in the selected organisation.

5.5 Conclusion
From the quantitative analysis, the findings on biographical data support the usual trends in the mining industry with more males than females noted. Also, more blacks were found to be working for the mine company, and they occupied low positions compared to their
Asian counterparts. To assess the factor structure of the four constructs, a maximum likelihood factor analysis was conducted (detail to this has been given in the discussion above). On inferential statistics, a Pearson Product Moment correlation analysis revealed a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and work engagement. A significant relationship was also found between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Work engagement was also found to significantly relate with organisational citizenship behaviour. Through regression analysis, job satisfaction and work engagement were found to significantly predict organisational citizenship behaviour. Interestingly, results also revealed that the participants were averagely satisfied, engaged and exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours. However, the participants were found to be highly psychologically empowered. Interviews conducted with the managers and other employees, revealed a different trend on the four constructs for the employees in the company under study. The following chapter is the presentation of qualitative findings of the study.
CHAPTER SIX

QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

Framed within management systems approach (Sterman, 2000) which takes interdependency of parts in interpreting organisational effectiveness, the current study aimed to (a) explore the positivity of diamond mine employees in Zimbabwe towards their well-being, (b) understand employees’ perceptions of the already established ways that regulate their behaviours at work, and (c) find ways in which these can be improved. The overall aim was to develop a human centred conceptual framework that can be used by management to ensure employees’ psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviours and ultimately organisational effectiveness. The findings presented in this chapter and the preceding chapters provide ways to understand what miners in one diamond mining company in Zimbabwe consider as well-being and what triggers such well-being. The chapter describe the nature of well-being as perceived by the interviewed employees and managers; and how they perceive it to be affected by the political and social environment.

6.2 Main themes

According to the participants, well-being is understood in different dimensions and affected differently by many factors. Findings are presented in the sections below according to key themes outlined in Table 15 below.
Table 15  
*Thematic map of qualitative findings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Theme</th>
<th>Sub-theme (s)</th>
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</table>
| Social well-being: The cornerstone of well-being at work                     | • Meaningful work communities  
• Social environment plays a pivotal role in employees’ well-being                                                                              |
| Prevailing Company practises/ system: A barrier to employees’ psychological well-being | • Unproductive behaviours such as hostility, lack of trust, feelings of being dominated among employees  
• Employees struggle to balance the demands presented by the company’s culture and that of employees |
| Political Power structure of the company                                     | • Uneven political power or relations is a major barrier to the respect of employees’ values  
• Dysfunctional workers’ committee  
• Ineffective management meetings  
• Employees teaming up with local communities to the company  
• Lack of support, control and recognition                                        |
| Involvement as a catalyst towards employees’ psychological well-being       |                                                                                                                                               |

6.2.1 *Social well-being, the cornerstone of well-being at work*

Findings from the participants revealed a strong need for and or relevance of social well-being at work. By social well-being, participants meant the ability of the company to provide for conditions that allow them to reach a state whereby individuals’ appraisal of their circumstances and functioning is positive. In this regard, participants revealed the
need for two things and these include; meaningful work communities and the need for the company to provide a social environment that allows for employees values and interests.

6.2.1.1 Meaningful work communities
One sub-theme that emanated from one major theme of social well-being is the need for meaningful work communities in the company. Most of the participants who happen to be general employees conceded to the fact that the work site had become ‘home’ to the majority of employees with some managers included. As a result, communities are formed and most of these groups emanate from workstations resulting in the formation of social groups at work. For instance; one participant pointed out that “we spend twenty-four days here at the mine and only six or seven days at home. To any normal person, this implies that the company becomes one’s home and interactions have to be meaningful” (WC1).

By meaningful interactions, the participants referred to associations that encompass shared values among individuals, thus creating social integration. These values according to participants, define them within and out of work and they insisted that these values “are part of us” in whatever we do. The findings revealed individuals’ similar understanding of the formulation of social structures in and out of work and these social structures are to be maintained wherever one goes. For instance, one participant pointed that:

You find that many things drive our interactions here. To start with, most employees in this company are locals who grew up together and share similar interests and that alone produces a group defined by origin (WC3).

For the above-mentioned group, employment in the company under study resulted in the formation of their second home where they had to regroup and become a family. This resulted in them embarking on family behaviours whilst at work. One employee spoke at
length about this issue highlighting that identities have been formed regardless of them having come from different places around the country.

*Interactions start when you wake up from your bed and stretches to when one gets to their workstation. You find that despite our uniforms, there is more that defines us as Power and Equipment employees. Apart from us coming from different backgrounds, some common values are shared amongst ourselves. For instance, most of us do not eat from the company’s canteen, one may end up not having enough food to see them through month-end, and as a result, we end up cooking together. Another good example is that as Zimbabweans, we face a lot of pressure from our Chinese counterparts such that one may end up looking like they do not know how to do the job when in fact they are able. The caused confusion may lead one to prolong the completion of the job and cause more problems like being fired. Therefore, you find that other colleagues are always willing to assist to an extent of foregoing their lunch (WC2).*

Evident from the above is the idea that people who feel socially integrated, choose to and derive comfort from others in their community. Since the community they were brought up from places value on oneness and helping each other, most individuals are seen practising them amongst their fellow country mates, although the same is not being expressed to their Chinese colleagues.

To a certain extent, it appears difficult for them (employees from one group as defined by their nationality) to separate an individual’s life and or values when at work and when out of work. In other words, although work and life should to a certain extent have boundaries, it is difficult for most participants to shelf certain values.
For the miners under study, a meaningful community implies an environment where sharing, assisting each other, togetherness and being able to lead a similar life at home and work. Interesting to determine is the existence and or extent to which these needs are provided by the prevailing environment in the company.

6.2.1.2 Social environment plays a pivotal role in employees’ well-being

The second sub-theme for social well-being is the social environment, where participants feel, plays a pivotal role towards their well-being. Emanating from the above discussion, is the idea that lack of an enabling environment for equality and employees to be who they are, results in divergence from behaviours that are fruitful to the realisation of company goals.

However, compliance and resilience shown among members of the same nationality as revealed by individuals’ contributions and willingness to participate in work teams kept life going for most miners. Such citizenship behaviours sustained most employees in difficult situations.

A discourse analysis of participants’ responses shows a repeated use of such words as ‘struggle’ and ‘sadly’ coming out from both management and general employees. The struggle as pointed by participants is between the company’s culture and that of individual employees over-spilling into an individual’s work. Thus, a lack of meaningful communities can be pointed. In addition, it can be noted that relationships especially between management and general employees as well as inter-racial relations are strained.

For instance, one participant pointed that a number of assault cases have been recorded in this company and most of them between Chinese and Zimbabweans.
You find that employees enjoy these fights because it will turn from being between individuals to Zimbabwe fighting China. There will be ululations and cheering especially from Zimbabweans when one of them is involved in a fight with a Chinese. On the other hand, Chinese will come in numbers as a way to scare and disperse Zimbabweans (WC3).

From the participants, it clearly comes out that their well-being at work is linked to their social environment. However, the immediate work environment does not provide the required support to facilitate a link between employees and their social environment. As a result, black employees are always the most disadvantaged.

6.2.2 Prevailing company practices or system: A barrier to employees’ psychological well-being

The prevailing organisational climate reportedly, does not have much contribution on employees’ psychological empowerment since it has subjected miners to conditions and behaviours that are unbearable. To illustrate this, one senior manager pointed that “when looking at the system of this company, I do not see practises that foster empowerment among employees. Instead, employees struggle to find information” (M2).

Miners who expressed same sentiments confirmed the above.

As employees we feel we are deprived of information especially on the life-span of this company. It is surprising that Chinese will be aware of most of the things happening and when we read such stories in the newspapers, it will be secondary information because rumours will have circulated through the Chinese. If you ask our black management, they will tell you they don’t know and they never put effort
to find out the truth. So, we will be left with rumours and this will be killing us inside because we do not know what is going to happen to our jobs (WC3).

Further to lack of information, miners also reported that they are psychological disempowered as a result of the absence of conditions that fosters empowerment, especially through continued practises by management where their self-efficacy continue to be eroded. This was illustrated by one member of the workers’ committee who reiterated that

As I once highlighted, management’s disapproval of works council and its lack of seriousness with workers’ committee left us with nothing but seeing ourselves as useless in this company. We are never taken serious and that’s why they do not involve us in company matters. Our voices as employees do not matter at all. That alone has contributed to the reason why we are saying we are not empowered because our self-worth is not recognised here (WC3).

It just strikes one’s mind whether management do it deliberately by not putting in place a well-functioning works council and workers’ committee since it is a requirement according to Zimbabwe’s labour relations. Lack of such structures destroys not just sound industrial relations in the company but the individual employees.

The way work has been structured here resembles that of a donkey-master. I say so because it is only the supervisor who tells you what to do, how and when. I don't know why, but talking from my experience and observation of my other colleagues, this approach has promoted laziness in thinking because I don’t have to bother doing so since my input is never considered (WC2).
Speaking clearly on the business ideology they believe in, one Chinese manager pointed that;

_The main thrust of a business is to make profit. We cannot hire people to simply come and chat here. So, every step or action that one takes when they are here should be towards producing quality work especially through protecting the inputs in their work duties and not absenting themselves from work (WC2)._ 

Another Chinese who in an informal conversation pointed out that in every work setting, there is a boss and a subordinate and a good employee is one who takes and implements what they would have been told by their bosses. He believed that this would help reduce conflict as people will be respecting authority.

Reflecting the Chinese way of doing business, both miners and black management in the company agreed that the prevailing system in the company was authoritarian and impeded growth on the part of employees.

_To be honest, employees here are told what to do. There is no room for creativity because if you choose to go your own way and you mess up things, you can be fired. So, employees seem to have adjusted to simply doing exactly what they would have been asked to do._

Lack of involvement has not only affected employee effectiveness but has also had an impact on black management’s esteem.

_We are said to be managers here, but to tell you the truth I don’t think we deserve such titles because we have no input in determining the guiding rules and regulations in this company. Our Chinese counterparts originate the practises in_
the system. Everything has been set in ways that will only benefit them and not employees (M5).

Coming out from the miners is the idea that employees lack control and meaning of their work, which explains why most miners feel psychologically disempowered. As pointed above, this resulted in them not thinking outside the box. However, managers attributed employees’ resentment to effective contribution towards the achievement of company’s goals to lack of skills.

You find that the majority of employees here lack adequate skills and experience since this is their first employment. As a result, they do not exhibit much knowledge when at work, such that supervisors are forced to closely monitor them (M6).

It can be noted from the findings that most disagreements in the company, degenerated into fights. Nevertheless, what causes these fights and what have they resulted into? Participants were of the opinion that the company’s system is the major contributor to the impediment of enjoyment of both their psychological and social well-being at work. The situation becomes worst if management is aware, but cannot do anything about it. As pointed by one manager that;

I do not know where to put the blame on, but it has become difficult for the black management’s voice to be heard at all levels of the company, board included. As black management, we have been stripped of our powers such it is very difficult for us to decide on work issues. To tell you the truth, I am not implementing what I have been hired to do. This makes me feel bad especially when I see the suffering by the shop floor employees who have to struggle to find ways of delivering to the
company goals as well as their personal goals. I just don’t understand where our Chinese counterparts got all this power because they are the ones who do everything (M2).

It is clear from the above that even the management are acknowledging that the company system is a threat towards goal achievement. This major them, produced the following sub-theme(s).

6.2.2.1 Employees struggle to balance demands presented by the company’s culture and that of employees

With cultural diversity characterising the company understudy, manifestations of Zimbabwean and Chinese cultures are anticipated to emerge within a joint venture company operating in Zimbabwe assumed to be governed by Zimbabwe’s labour law. Two groups of employees, the Zimbabweans and Chinese seem to share similar values such as helping one another in times of need, sharing and the spirit of being a family. However, these values are only exhibited among members of one group and they are not extended to the other cultural group as Zimbabwean counterparts raised many complaints against the Chinese. As one manager pointed:

*I do not know whether the problem lies with the system or it is because of different cultures. Myself, I have concluded that Chinese are difficult to work with because they always think they know and think better than we Zimbabweans think. You struggle for everything even something you think should be easy to get. I am talking about things like stationery. Surprisingly, for the Chinese, it is easy. Life for them is smooth (M2).*

Another participant, a workers’ committee member; anchored this;
As blacks in this company, we struggle a lot. At first we thought it was because of language barrier but we later realised that it was not, because we managed to develop our own language (ChiWalawala) understood by both Zimbabweans and Chinese. You find that things we value in our culture such as the death of a parent, brother or a member of an extended family is not valued the same by our Chinese counterparts or let me say by the system. One struggle to get clearance to attend your child’s funeral just imagine. After that, I am expected to be an excellent performer at work. What do you think I will bring to work in such a state? (W1)

Emphasising on the above was one manager’s remarks that:

Our employees in particular the black community in the company has suffered because truly, we have values that we cannot afford to forgo sad truth simply because we are at work. I have heard situations like an employee failing to attend their father’s funeral and several reports related to that. You know in our culture; extended family is valued a lot. Failure to attend for example my grandfather or uncle’s funeral is not permissible within our culture. Sadly, the culture in this organisation does not respect that. It is so sad because it is happening in the company where there is black management and truly, there is frustration among employees (M1).

With managers admitting that the prevailing practices in the company are a ‘torch’ to the employees’ psychological well-being, employees feel that the company has done much for them. The above does not mean that the company under study did not respect employees’ values, but due to the uneven political or power relations in the company, only a section of
the employees takes precedence. From the miners’ side, one participant a workers’ representative pointed that;

You find that Chinese honour and celebrate their values. On the official opening of this company in 2012, we were all asked to line up from the main entrance of the mine to the special venue where the Chinese big boss was to take a seat and all of us including our Zimbabwean big bosses were clapping hands. No respect was given to our Zimbabwean bosses. You should have seen the Zimbabweans faces as they were ‘forced’ to do the honour. As if that was not enough, some Chinese virgin girls pimped in Chinese traditional attires, performed their cultural dances. Surprisingly, there were no traditional dancers from the Zimbabwean side (W4).

Management also shared similar views with the miners on the idea that Chinese’ values and culture are the most celebrated and recognised in the company.

However, for Zimbabweans, there are celebrations like Heroes day, Christmas, New Year, Easter, and Workers Day that are holidays on the national calendar. On such holidays family events like tombstone unveiling, appeasement of ancestors, and lobola payments are usually scheduled, this being the only time people can meet as a family. Nevertheless, Zimbabwean employees bemoaned that

When you work in a company such as this one, you may miss all these events for the rest of your working life as long as you are here because the system here does not value such. More frustration can mount on employees especially after noting that their Chinese counterparts take some break from work to celebrate their Chinese national events like their most popular February New Year or when an
emergence air ticket is bought for them to go back to China to attend to their personal family problems (M4).

As a result of the above mentioned employees feel demotivated.

6.2.2.2 Unproductive behaviours such as hostility, lack of trust and feelings of being dominated

It is clearly seen that Zimbabweans and Chinese have common values but the values are placed on a business system that allows one group (Chinese) to practise theirs whilst restricting the other group (Zimbabweans). This has culminated into hostility, lack of trust, feeling of being dominated among employees of the two nationals. All these resulted in employees feeling alienated from the company, a condition that makes organisational citizenship behaviours difficult to exhibit. For instance, one participant pointed that;

There is no way I can be expected to be nice to people who treat me like an animal.
You know what; most black employees in this company have resorted to also behave like animals towards those who treat them like animals. Although this is not in line with the values impacted in us by our parents, situations may force you to behave wildly (WC3).

Clearly coming from employees is the idea that the working environment, particularly the behaviours practised by the Chinese towards the Zimbabweans, have pushed the Zimbabweans to behave otherwise and become hostile.

Most miners also reported feelings of lack of trust especially on their managers. This according to the miners is because of their (managers) inability to fight for a system that is just towards employees’ welfare. Thus, leading to employees developing feelings of being dominated and controlled by the Chinese.
6.2.3 Political power structure of the company

One other major theme that emanated from the findings was the issue of the political power structure of the company where one group (the Chinese) dominates. Power relations has resulted in a number of fights.

6.2.3.1 Uneven political power or relations

For the managers, the problems are more than anything political. The ownership of the organisation provides complex interests and power relations, which as evidenced above often make management work difficult. The ultimate victims of these power relations at top management level are employees whose well-being is neglected. Managers revealed that the joint venture between Zimbabwe and investors from other countries place them in a difficult position so much so that they work “with fear such that it becomes difficult to persist questioning an unruly business practise by our counterparts because you will never know where it will take you politically” (M4).

The foregoing, according to participants, resulted in dysfunctional workers’ committee, ineffective management meetings, frustrated employees-lowly satisfied employees, less engaged employees, high rates of turnover, resignations, large numbers of sick leave, large numbers of assault cases, absenteeism especially when approaching paydays, high rates of accidents, diesel theft, employees teaming up with the local communities to fight the company. All these behaviours are consequences of the unfriendly socio-political business environment.

6.2.3.2 Dysfunctional workers’ committee

Workers committee is a group of employees drawn from different work sections of an organisation and chosen by the general employees to represent them in the political and
governance process of a company. From a systems theory perspective, this is a communication mechanism that must be in place for the organisational system to exchange relevant information with its environment. According to the Zimbabwe Labour Law Act 151 of 1995, members of the workers’ committee are expected to perform the following political duties;

1. Provide a direct link and means of communication between management and employees at shop floor level

2. Providing a means of presentation and discussion with management of employees’ requirements and grievances

3. Promoting stability and good management or employee relations and to encourage settlement of disputes or differences by conciliatory means

4. To promote productivity and generating a stable and good atmosphere within the company especially the working environment

5. Advising workers in respect of grievances and disciplinary matters

6. To represent employees at disciplinary and grievance hearing

With the above roles centred on workers’ committee, an organisation without a workers’ committee will obviously have difficulties in maintaining harmony with the employees. For the company under study, one challenge has been that of a dysfunctional workers’ committee. According to one workers’ committee member;

_The company has been faced with a number of challenges ranging from strikes, reduced productivity, and number of disciplinary cases to mention just a few. As a_
workers’ representative, I am telling you all this has been exacerbated by poor employer-employee relationship prevailing in the company. There is lack of a platform where management formally takes employees concerns. For the few ‘meetings’ we had with management, nothing concrete came out and as employees we do not see any relevance of holding the meetings (WC2).

The above contradicts the humanistic theoretical prescriptions of organisational behaviour, organisational structure or managerial practice. A result of this deviance is frustration among employees which directly affects not only their psychological well-being but also loyalty to both productivity and the organisation.

You know, there is nothing frustrating, boring and humiliating like being elected into a position and people will be seeing you as their leader and you fail to deliver for them. This is what we have become as the workers’ committee representatives of this company. We have stopped from taking employees concerns to management because there is no difference. Workers here, feel unwanted and rejected. Everything done on them (employees) is imposed because their contributions are not taken into consideration”. More so, you find that in disciplinary hearings employees do not have representatives because as workers’ committee we were asked to stop taking part or function as such in this company till the establishment of a well-functioning works council” (WC4).

It is important to note that both employees and management were aware and acknowledged the political problem of dysfunctional workers’ committee and the implications to the well-being of employees. Some management shared similar feelings with employees on the effects of a dysfunctional workers’ committee.
Most problems in this company are caused by poor performance by the workers’ community. In fact, I cannot lay the problem solely on the workers’ committee because I am sure they have tried to drive their agenda of representing the employees but the problem has been that it yielded no fruits. You cannot expect it to be well at the top when the grass-roots are in shambles. I don’t want to say much but all I can hint on is the fact that what it is at the bottom reflects what it is at the top. Can you imagine a company without a works council? Can you imagine a company where one is punished simply because they express their unhappiness on a certain matter? The situation is pathetic for the employees here (M6).

It can be noted from the above sentiments that most employees are living with grief and pain since most of their concerns are not being addressed. For them, (miners), rebellious behaviours become the only language to communicate their dissatisfaction to management. However, informal meetings are conducted by the miners led by ‘informal’ leaders who still have zeal to lead other workers and find ways of surviving at the mine. As pointed by one workers’ representative;

*When we started working for this company, most people had the eager to be in the workers’ committee. People had different reasons for wanting to be part of the workers’ committee and for me, it was because I have always seen myself as a leader and I enjoy helping people. But now, all the zeal is gone because the environment does not allow for that. I remember we were seven when we started but now we are only three, of which only two members are ‘active’. Victimisation is one major reason why most members left. Although the environment is not*
permitting, we are seen assisting our colleagues informally though because we just feel we are family (WC5).

The dysfunctional workers’ committee has made it difficult for management not just to control industrial and political relations in the company, but also to implement strategic aspects in their respective areas of responsibility. One senior manager highlighted that;

As a manager, I feel the consequences of not having a workers’ committee on the ground. Most work I’m seen doing, is not supposed to be mine. For instance, a number of disciplinary cases I preside over, can be or could have been avoided had it been that a fully supported workers’ committee was in place (M4).

Although having a workers’ committee is statutory according to the Zimbabwe labour laws, the system in the company under study does not value it, as it came out from the participants. As revealed, this negatively impacted on the civic virtue behaviour among employees. For instance, the revealed unwillingness of employees to participate constructively and responsibly in the political and governance process of the company through workers’ committee and works council. This has resulted in a number of problems as pointed out above by the participants. One resulting effect was an ineffective communication mechanism and a faulty organisational system that is unable to exchange relevant information between employees, management and other stakeholders.

6.2.3.3 Ineffective management meetings
Management meetings are crucial in mapping and implementation of a company’s strategy. Meetings can help assess one’s contribution, fosters learning and also can provide a platform for new ideas. These are spaces where employees’ voices can be heard and their
concerns are debated. In other words, meetings are generic inputs that sustain a system.

Relating to this, one senior manager pointed that;

*There is nothing constructive that can be done at management level without input from the bottom. As a manager, you need to be well equipped for you to be able to face and conquer any given situation. Just think of a situation whereby as a manager you are not in picture of what is going on in your department, not because you are not doing your job, but simply because your subordinates are not willing to tell you their concerns because they feel indifferent. What will I take and contribute towards the company’s strategy? This is the situation I’m faced with and I am not the only one (M1).*

In light of the above, such meetings can only achieve their objective if there is input from a vibrant workers’ committee.

It is important to note that ineffective meetings were due to the political power structure of the organisation. There were contrasting approaches on business between Zimbabwe managers and Chinese managers, the conduits of political power in the company. In light of this, one manager pointed that;

*Our Chinese counterparts are cost conscious. They want to ‘reduce’ costs at any cost. As a result, they question, avoid and would want to by–pass certain things or practises. But it’s not like we (management) do not tell them the right thing to do. I think it’s because they think they know better than us or maybe it’s because of differences in the things we value (M7).*
One of the most challenges facing the company has been conflict between two business cultures between the Chinese and the Zimbabweans where the former values production and cost cutting at the expense of employee well-being. This goes further to depriving employees of vital information about the company.

As employees we feel we are deprived of information especially on the life-span of this company. It is surprising that Chinese will be aware of most of the things happening and when we read such stories in the newspapers, it will be secondary information because rumours will have circulated through the Chinese. If you ask our black management, they will tell you they don’t know and they never put effort to find out the truth. So, we will be left with rumours and this will be killing us inside because we won’t be knowing what is going to happen to our jobs (WC3).

But for the black managers, the Chinese were to blame as their drive for profits result in their disregard for employees

I think they are still driven by the ideology that employees are machines fuelled by money and nothing else because it is difficult to explain or give answers to why a fellow is not accorded time to pay their last respect to their close relatives. In our culture, one maybe followed by a bad omen which can haunt them for the rest of their lives. So, you find that most management meetings we have with them are full of disagreements, shouting at each other and ultimately prolonged decision making (M5).

The difference in approaches to business has made it difficult for management to adopt practises perceived to be effective for running a vibrant business. In addition, are struggles
faced by managers in making things move in the company. For instance, one manager pointed that;

*Most management meetings we conduct give headache. This is because as a manager, especially us blacks, we will be having two battles to fight. One being that of attending the meeting and provide meaningful contributions. The other one being taking back and implementing suggestions made. Both are struggles because they involve employees who play greater roles but do not immerse themselves fully. As a result, holding meetings become less important because the intended goals will not be achieved in most cases (M3).*

With the prevailing system, managing industrial relations has become very difficult because the Chinese counterparts do not appreciate the Zimbabwean way of doing business and it’s a struggle. The unfavourable system characterising the company led to frustration among employees. All this resulted in them being less engaged and satisfied in their work. Thus, work eventually lost its meaning. The incoherent system further cost the company in unexpected ways as shown in the discussion below.

**6.2.3.4 Employees teaming up with the local communities to fight the company**

What the foregoing suggests is the long acknowledged fact that involvement of employees and input from communities on company operations is one of the fundamental ways in which organisations can address issues affecting the company. From a Systems theoretical perspective, this implies that if employees and communities’ concerns are part of decision-making process, better ideas can be generated even on matters that do not directly affect them but are of benefit to the company.
The studied company could have benefited a lot from its employees and community stakeholders had it been that these groups felt being part of the company. One manager bemoaned that managing the community had not been an easy task for him owing to differences in business and cultural values in the joint venture.

*Our guys in this company who happen to be locals from the Marange area where we are operating from, have played a pivotal role to some extent in making the villagers understand how our company operates. However, this has been working till a certain point, because I am telling you, the community are fed up. I think our employees have given up as well because in some instances, you find that they will be part of the mob attacking the company (M2).*

Thus, the above sentiment reveals that employees have ceased to defend the company. This signals a plunge of organisational citizenship and manifestation of entropy. What this implies is that employees stopped practising sportsmanship behaviour since they chose to protest the perceived ‘unfairness’ in the company system and showed their dissatisfaction. Evidenced from the findings is the idea that cultural factors impact OCB and the healthy functioning of a system. Management’s failure to design proper communication channels negatively affected employees’ performance and them (employees) putting blame on managers. For instance, one participant pointed that;

*Currently, there are reports of a possibility of consolidation, but no one has bothered to clarify on the progress of the project and how it is going to affect us. On top of that, we have been struggling with getting our salaries and you just don’t know if you are still going to be employed tomorrow. With all this going on, you are expected to deliver for the company. This is impossible I am telling you (WC4).*
Employees however believed that it was government that lacked a clear position on the future of the company.

*Government seems to be in a dilemma with its policies because they don’t have a clear position on the life of diamond operations here in Chiadzwa. This has created uncertainty not just to shop floor employees but even on us managers because we really don’t know what is going on* (M4).

Lack of a guiding policy both at national and company levels can be pointed as a major contributor to the disharmony between the companies, employees and the communities. That this disharmony affects the psychological well-being of employees is unarguable.

**6.2.4 Involvement as a catalyst towards employee well-being**

Interviews with both managers and general employees revealed that both groups were recruited into the company and agreed to the serving conditions contained in the contracts they signed with the company.

Employees were sure of what they are expected of by the company. As revealed by one participant, a plant supervisor and worker representative; “*It is my role to make sure that the Plant is functioning and that everybody is in their working areas at the stipulated time and I am paid for that*” (WC3).

However, it came out that in order to strengthen involvement, the company needed to ensure that individuals are aware of company programmes and this can be achieved through effective communication. To elaborate on this, one participant put forth that “*had it been that people are in picture of the things happening in the company, personally I think it will assist me in knowing how best to put up the resources at my work station*” (WC1).
In determining their satisfaction on the work they perform, the participants pointed frustration as a contributor to their dissatisfaction. Frustration among employees has multiple negative consequences. For the participants in the current study, frustration has resulted to them being withdrawn from their work among other factors.

*I don’t know where to begin on this issue of me being satisfied with my work because it is difficult to really trace the genesis of the problem. What I can tell you, however, is that the person you are seeing is a bunch of frustration and I am sure it is not just me alone but we are many in this company. As a result, I cannot say I am happy or satisfied in my job. Everything is just boring (WC4).*

In support of the above, management also pointed that the threat to employee well-being in the company has resulted in most employees being dissatisfied in their work.

*With all that has been obtaining in this company especially on the area of employee well-being, I don’t think you will find ten employees who will say they are satisfied with their work. The frustration here is too much for them to handle (M3).*

*It is difficult to be fully engaged in your work given the prevailing working environment. As a result, it’s an environment characterised by frustrated employees and you know what that means. It means employees are withdrawn from their work. They are just here for them to get something for their families and nothing else (WC2).*

From the above, it is clear that lack of information leads to confusion so much so that one becomes less effective in their work. This was also supported by another workers’ committee member who pointed that;
Our main cry as employees of this company is on the deprivation of information concerning what is to happen or happening and shall happen in the company we are working for. Management find it difficult to inform us even on simple issues. This has made us to rubbish works council and its non-existence in this company should speak volumes (WC2).

By not involving employees in the structure and other dynamics of the work (such as planning) causes resentment among workers;

The most frustrating thing is that we are made to do work we have not been part of in its planning. You are monitored like a slave and as if you don’t know what you are doing no matter how qualified you are for the job.

The above sentiment(s) points to the fact that effectiveness in the company under study is determined more by output levels and little consideration is given to the transformation process of employees. This has caused frustration on employees on what may-be viewed by management as less important.

The voice of employees through the workers’ committee representative clearly anchors the idea that organisational systems are cybernetic and have permeable boundaries (Botan & Hazleton, 2006). The connection between an organisation and its employees is clearly shown through emotional expressions by employees leading to demotivation, detaching themselves from their work, losing sense of belongingness and over all being less effective. “As workers we are physically here but spiritually we are somewhere else. We feel we are just tools stored at a workshop which are only retrieved when needed” (WC).
Similar feelings were shared by some black management despite them being seniors in the company. One manager put it clearly that;

_You find that in this company, power is centred on one race, no matter how junior their position is in the company. So there is frustration on the blacks because we will not be aware of where the company is going. You are then forced to simply be a follower who cannot do much to both the company and oneself (M4)._ 

In support of the above, another manager pointed that;

_You see, I am a senior in my department and Chinese are juniors, but they dominate me. They are the ones who are in charge and I'm powerless. It is a frustrating situation and it makes me not enjoy my work at all (M6)._ 

Interviewed participants in the current study viewed themselves as important information holders with capacity to determine the success of the company. For instance, one participant was of a mind that;

_I don’t know why people who get into management quickly forget the key role(s) that employees play because I believe one begins by being a lower level employee before joining the higher ranks (WC5)._ 

### 6.2.5 Impact of salaries on job satisfaction

Despite them being happy about their salaries, most interviewed employees generally reported low satisfaction in their work. It seems that management in the company under study overlooked the important contribution of other factors other than money for the enhancement of job satisfaction among employees. Other factors such as lack of support
and recognition in their work, unconsidered values and concerns were the cited contributing factors to low satisfaction.

I understand that job satisfaction is driven by a lot of things. But, I have always said to myself, when one part is bad, the probability of it spoiling everything is high. You may find that of course the salaries that employees in the diamond industry are earning are much better than those in other industries. But, as a workers’ representative, we have been seen knocking on the management’s doors to negotiate for better since there is a great feeling that there is a huge disparity among our grades. Of course, I believe that it is because people are never satisfied by what they earn. Although the salaries issue is not a major problem, it will seem to be a major concern because people are frustrated in some areas of their work. This has resulted in most employees not enjoying what they do to an extent that people don’t see anything good in this company. So, as a workers’ representative, given how people behave and taking their perceptions on their jobs and living here, I don’t see any joy or happiness that can be attached to the work they do (WC3).

As it is now, most employees in the company under study emphasised that salaries are not enough for them to be happy.

Despite good salaries, personally, I’m not happy with other working conditions here, especially the fact that we are not involved in matters that concerns us in this company. What it only means is that salaries are not enough for us to be happy in our work (WC2).
The above suggest that there are other extrinsic factors beyond rewards that affect employees wellbeing at work.

6.3 Employees perceive wellbeing at work in relation to their social wellness.

Most participants believed that when one is happy at work, the happiness to a larger extent is transformed to other corners of one’s life. One participant asserted that;

\[ I \text{ think what completes life is happiness at work and in your personal life. My belief is that it is difficult for the happiness in your personal life to be transformed to happiness at work. This is because at work, there is a system which is set and determined by other factors that I, as an employee does not have control over. So, if it happens that the set system is congruent to your values and needs, especially in a company like this one, then you are lucky since this will complete your life. I feel factors at home can be controlled especially if you are a man, taking from our African culture. So, being happy at work implies being happy in your life. That’s what I believe (WC5).] \]

Unfortunately, all the participants in the current study were males since there were only five ladies in the whole company and were not available for the interviews. As a result, it could not be established if women shared a similar view. However, almost all males interviewed revealed that there was a strong relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

6.3.1 Importance of reciprocity towards goal achievement

As discussed in Chapter Three, the working environment has greater influence on organisational effectiveness. The ability of management to cultivate an environment which
is appreciated by its stakeholders can be a major drive towards satisfaction and business survival. Arising from this, most participants in the company under study revealed that they were frustrated by the working environment surrounding them.

I work as an electrician. As you know, this company is a joint venture between Zimbabweans and Chinese. There is nothing frustrating as given a gadget with instructions written in a language you don’t understand. That is how I work. I have difficulties because there won’t be anything in English. What frustrates more is that there will not be anyone willing to help you. The Chinese are not supportive but us; we help them when they need our assistance. Our black bosses cannot do anything because you cannot force one to translate for you. Adding more stress is the fact that we do not have access to internet so that one can google. So, it’s an extra cost to me as an employee because I need to folk out some money (WC3).

From the above participant, it can be noted that lack of support is a contributing factor towards frustration of employees in this company. In support of this, one workers’ committee member pointed that;

Most disciplinary cases in this company are not out of ignorance or intentional. I can safely say employees need support and they are not getting that support from the necessary authorities. You cannot expect a Zimbabwean to just wakeup today and be in a position to understand, read or write Chinese. Although there are guys employed as translators, they are not willing to help the shop-floor employees when such a need arises (WC2).
Findings on organisational citizenship revealed that miners mostly exhibit individual oriented organisational citizenship behaviour where emphasis is on the subjective behaviour. Little or no focus is given to organisational citizenship behaviour. One reason why individual oriented behaviours are dominant is the need to encourage and support one another in a ‘foreign system’. By foreign system, miners and some managers meant a structure which is far-off from their expectations, values and understanding. To adapt to such a unique setting, black management and miners had developed their own world outside work.

*If we don’t help one another in this environment, it will be easy for one to quit the job and we all know that the economy out there is not favourable if one is unemployed. As Africans, we rejoice when our own are also happy. When we see the way we are treated by our counterparts, anger flares because that’s not how we were brought up. We try to show love to the Chinese but our efforts are thwarted because they don’t reciprocate. Helping each other is the only way out for us to be happy (WC1).*

Managers also reported that miners do not exhibit much citizenship behaviours which are directly beneficial to the company. For them (managers), the company indirectly benefit from individual oriented citizenship behaviours which help retain employees despite unfavourable conditions in the company.

### 6.3.2 Lack of recognition

Lack of recognition was also pointed as one reason why some employees in the company under study are frustrated. One supervisor, a workers’ representative as well pointed that;
There are many guys with good qualifications in this company, but these qualifications are not considered when promotion arises. It is frustrating to learn that someone who is supervising you is not qualified for that job and you will be there with your qualification. People buy positions. Money is used. The same people come to you to explain things for them because they don’t know. So most of the time one end up doing two jobs yet you will only be paid for one. It’s not fair (WC4).

This was further supported by a middle manager who pointed that;

*Most of my colleagues are well educated. They have good qualifications. It is unfortunate that our system does not recognise qualifications. We don’t know the criteria they use to upgrade people because you find that your superior will not be qualified as you will be. I think this is just a problem to the Zimbabwean side. For Chinese, they have a clear succession plan and they groom each other well. So, most black qualified employees including myself are very frustrated by the situation. There is no motivation to strive for better because you know you will never be recognised. Look at the Chinese, young guys occupy very senior positions but this will remain a dream for most blacks no matter how educated you are* (MM1).

Employees’ perception that they are lowly satisfied in their respective jobs contradicts with the quantitative findings where the participants were found to be averagely satisfied.

6.3.3 Lack of autonomy

The lack of choice and self-determined behaviours in the work they do has destroyed psychological empowerment states of most miners. According to one participant,
We are not given opportunities to exercise autonomy on our work. You don’t choose on how the job should be done even when you have better ideas than those of the supervisor. If you try to do things better, you get punished for that and that destroys our esteem I am telling you (WC5).

Management could not comment much on psychological empowerment since they felt that for one to be psychologically empowered, he/she has to be satisfied first in their work so that they get engaged in their work and if the two are in place, then one will feel psychologically empowered. For management therefore, the factors highlighted as affecting job satisfaction and work engagement among miners ultimately affect psychological empowerment.

Having established their perceptions on miners’ psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviours, the findings revealed the need for involvement in organisational matters as important towards the enhancement of psychological well-being at work.

6.4 Conclusion

Important to note from the presentation of the qualitative findings in this chapter is the idea that although participation in company activities for the general employees is not that different from that of managers. Both were engaged in an economic relationship with the diamond company to deliver on the set goals in exchange for a salary. However, managers have a theoretical understanding of well-being whilst miners’ emphasis is on social-well-being. This help explains the controversy characterising the system especially with the miners pointing lack of their involvement in the matters that affect them. The general employees of the company under study had strong opinions on their capabilities to
effectively identify people related problems in the company compared to management. So far, the chapter comprises of presentation of qualitative findings were themes and sub themes have been discussed. The following chapter is a discussion of both the quantitative and qualitative findings.
7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the current study. As presented in the previous two chapters, the findings are in two sections, which are quantitative and qualitative. Both quantitative and qualitative findings revealed that the participants ranked low on satisfaction, engagement and organisational citizenship behaviours. In discussing the findings, focus is given to the existing gaps between the global management philosophy and the emerging philosophy. Situated on the ontological position that “organisations face complex environments that place multiple and conflicting demands and constraints on them” (Swartz & Davies, 1997, p. 292), a general understanding of how these affect the employee well-being is necessary. Through an interpretive analysis of the findings that draws employees’ values and contexts, a framework for intervention programs for employee well-being will be proposed.

7.2 Navigating employees’ well-being through the lens of miners

Organisational effectiveness entails “meeting organisational objectives and prevailing societal expectations in the near future, adapting and developing in the intermediate future and surviving in the distant future” (Pruyne, Powell, & Parsons, 2012). Different opinions have been made towards organisational effectiveness. It has already been established in the literature chapter, the motivation behind organisational effectiveness is productivity resulting from employee satisfaction. This therefore points to organisational effectiveness embraced by a theory of ethical global management. Thus, important contribution can be
derived from African Ubuntu Philosophy, which holds that we are truly human only in community with other persons (Metz, 2007).

As shown by both quantitative and qualitative findings, the establishment of activities and extent to which employees display positive emotions when at work is not just crucial for job design but positive emotions “share the feature of broadening an individual’s momentary thought-action repertoire and they also appear to share the feature of building the individual’s personal resources” (Fredrickson, 2011). This is crucial in employee well-being discourse where personal resources are a major component (Airila, 2015). In support of Fredrickson’s view, qualitative findings from the current research suggest the need to come up with ways that foster durable rather than transient emotional states that lead to acquisition amongst employees.

Both qualitative and quantitative findings on work engagement and job satisfaction for the current study differ sharply with previous studies. In a study conducted in 2012 on Marange Resources, another diamond mining in Chiadzwa, both quantitative and qualitative findings revealed that employees are highly satisfied in their work (Masvaure, Ruggunnun, & Maharaj, 2014). Conceivably, the notable differences of the two companies can be attributed to their study settings where one company was a joint venture between the Chinese and the Zimbabwean governments and the other one was wholly owned by the government of Zimbabwe. The relevance of this conclusion lies in the results of the current study that discovered the company system as the major contributor to employees’ low satisfaction, engagement and psychological empowerment since it promoted individualism among black miners. As a result, miners felt frustrated, lacked support; recognition and unconsidered values. Such conditions and practices are unarguably a threat not just to the
psychological well-being of employees but also to organisational effectiveness (see Ellickson, 2002; Nell et al., 2004).

Although literature has attributed organisational factors, personal characteristics and psychological conditions as antecedents to job satisfaction, work engagement and psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; De Santis & Durst, 1996; Michgan & Nell, 1997 Maslatch et al., 2001; Buitendach & De Witte, 2005; Chiang & Jang, 2008), the role of socio-political environment cannot be underestimated as revealed by the qualitative findings of the current study. Positive Organisational Scholarship has given focus on positive outcomes, processes and attributes of organisations and their members (Cameroon, 2006). This study has focused on the role the business’s working environment plays on employees’ psychological well-being and citizenship behaviours.

The bringing in of the systems theory towards the understanding of psychological well-being, looking on the four constructs understudy, urges for a holistic approach towards mechanisms needed to enhance employees’ well-being. This is especially true considering that miners’ behaviours are traced back to their cultural beliefs. Here, employing a culture centred approaches such as Ubuntu management philosophy can help to avoid conflict in an organisation by removing the partiality when understanding work, a major step towards appreciating work-life balance. Noted from the qualitative findings of the current study is the idea that structured questionnaires are not enough to explain and or understand employees’ psychological well-being. This was explained by the participants’ views, which in some instances, differed with the quantitative findings. However, it becomes interesting to explore employees’ well-being in light of the four constructs guiding the study as well as the conditions and working environment faced by the participants.
7.3 Work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviours

Both quantitative and qualitative findings suggest that the extent to which miners exhibit positive behaviours, which are beneficial to the company is limited. This results in low rankings on aspects such as work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviours. A deeper analysis through qualitative means on why this is so pointed to among others, the company’s system and practises which do not match with miners’ worldview of an effective working environment. In cognisance of the view our societies are bound by common needs and mutual service, and that work role activities have direct or indirect social implications that differ in magnitude” (Hardy, 1990; Blustein, 2006; Dik & Duffy, 2009;), it is important that companies recognise employees’ cultural practices that matter to them.

The voice of employees through the workers’ committee representatives clearly anchors the idea that organisational systems are cybernetic and have permeable boundaries (Botan & Hazleton, 2006). The strong connection between the diamond mine and its employees as evidenced by emotional expressions by miners reveals demotivation, detaching themselves from their work, losing sense of belongingness and over all being less effective. This, as revealed by quantitative and qualitative findings, lead to their disengagement, less satisfaction and ultimately resulting in them not bother to practise citizenship behaviours, which are beneficial to the company.

As revealed by qualitative findings, power relations have seen employees lacking interest in exercising citizenship behaviours. The implications of power relations struggle in the company has resulted to the important notion of structuration where sensitivity to interconnectedness of institutions and interactions with other organisms in the company
should not be ignored. Although critiques of employee empowerment view it as a “method of sweating the workforce and curbing worker power and influence” (Handel & Levine, 2004, p. 23), loyalty to the company, appropriate workers' tacit knowledge, and discipline can be enforced among employees (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999).

By missing the advantages that comes with even distribution of power across all levels in the company, employees felt left out and drained in their work and unproductive behaviours such as hostility, lack of trust and feelings of being dominated among employees, resulting in them not engaged in their work. Coupled with lack of loyalty to their company, the participants find conditions presented by power relations struggle in the company, not conducive for them to exercise organisational citizenship behaviours. This has detrimental effects on the psychological well-being of employees (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004) as also shown largely by the qualitative findings of the study.

However, qualitative findings of the current study revealed that, work engagement, job satisfaction and psychological empowerment were important aspects for the realisation of organisational citizenship behaviours for the miners. Quantitative findings supported the contribution of work engagement and job satisfaction to organisational citizenship but revealed that psychological empowerment does not predict organisational citizenship. This difference can be because of employees’ emphasis on the need for a working environment that provides for their values and as a result, their well-being will be enhanced.

Qualitative findings further show that trust, access to organisational information, performance and reward system managerial practises and socio-political support are antecedents of PE. These findings are not new in the antecedents of psychological empowerment literature. Qualitative findings from miners demonstrate that an empowering
environment makes employees unhesitant to practise behaviours they are not paid for since they will be assuming responsibility on the given tasks. This is consistent with an earlier observation that empowered employees are likely to be commitment to their organisation (Spreitzer, 1995; Honold, 1997; Liden, 2000).

Qualitative findings of current study discovered that work engagement is the core of positivity among employees where, as a result of them being engaged in their work, employees derive satisfaction and ultimately, exhibit citizenship behaviours. With job satisfaction being understood as an individual’s experiences with their work, the frustration felt by the participants reveals unhappiness, which in the current study, affect employees’ work performance.

According to Bakker and Oerlemans (2010), happy individuals are more active, energetic and exhibit greater interest in their work. In support of this, studies revealed that managing unhappiness at work is difficult and ultimately, unhappy staffs are likely to leave the organisation, especially those who are very unhappy (Chiumento, 2007). As revealed by the qualitative findings of the current study, the implications of this on staff engagement, morale and business profits can be significant.

With a pattern that has been formed between work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship, organisations must be careful when designing work because failure for employees to derive satisfaction from the work they do may have major negative impact on work engagement and organisational citizenship. Qualitative findings from the current study confirm the idea that by cultivating conditions that enable one to go an extra mile in their work, nothing can stop employees to exhibit non-compensable behaviours, which are beneficial to both the individual and the organisation. This implies that if one
engages well with their work, it is highly likely that citizenship behaviours will be practised as well.

Job satisfaction in the current research was associated with life satisfaction and job performance (Judge, Boudreau & Bretz, 1994; Babin & Boles, 1996). Most participants believed that when one is happy at work, the happiness largely, is transformed to other corners of one’s life. Such views support the idea that incentives need to be structured in “ways that reward quality and improvement and align frontline workers’ goals with their new authority” (Herbst & Conradie, 2011, p.6). However, this may have an impact on wages.

Taking from Human capital theory, employee involvement may require “workers with more general skills to perform more complex tasks which might result in more rigorous selection and hiring criteria and increase the demand for and wages of more educated workers” (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007, p.172). For instance, with the uncertainty characterising the diamond mining industry in Zimbabwe, employees from the majority of companies went for several months without salaries, resulting in basic salaries becoming ‘motivators’ even to the well-educated and qualified employees. Therefore, it becomes interesting to explore on other areas that the participants labelled ‘source of power’ towards their well-being.

### 7.3.1 Relating employee involvement with work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship

Debunking the widely held business view that links working conditions with involvement (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 2010), participants in the current study, interrogated the continued existence of employees in most diamond mining companies operating in Chiadzwa and
why workers facing undesirable working conditions see involvement as a benefit. Stemming from the view that employee involvement requires extra effort and tighter work demands, qualitative findings of the study concurred to the fact that involvement can offer better compensation. However, the complementarities theory on involvement argues that it is only an organisation with greater employee involvement that depend more on employee initiative, resulting in pay practices such as gainsharing, profit sharing, and stock ownership plans being common (Bell & Neumark, 1993). This could be the basis of the company’s unwillingness to practice involvement.

However, the system could be missing another dimension of involvement which stipulates that “if employees regard employee involvement as a benefit because problem-solving tasks and job redesign relieve the tedium of traditionally-organized work” (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 159), then companies that adopt it can propose lower wages and employees would not be worse off. Taking from this perspective, it is undoubtable that through employee involvement, the problems of job satisfaction, work engagement, organisational citizenship and ultimately psychological well-being of employees faced by the company as revealed by both quantitative and qualitative findings, will be addressed. Summing it up, employee involvement is one way an organisation can achieve its survival goal (Herbst & Conradie, 2010). However, for the company under study, it seems employee involvement requires extra effort and there are tighter work demands.

An example of a successful story on involvement is that of the Japanese manufacturing process which flourished (Handel & Levine, 2010). A similar approach with modifications can also be useful in the scope of the current study in light of the idea that most diamond mining companies operating in Zimbabwe and specifically in the Chiadzwa area had been
warned by government and other stakeholders against their failure to incorporate and work well with the surrounding communities. However, due to lack of clear information, this had created uncertainty and unproductivity among employees.

Through devising plans with employee involvement, better compensation can be offered. According to Semler (2013), people are naturally capable of self-direction and self-control, even in a corporate or bureaucratic setting if they are committed to the organisation’s goal and if they are treated as mature adults who can learn from their actions and errors. In light of the foregoing discussion, both quantitative and qualitative findings suggested employee involvement as a crucial process towards enhancement of employees’ well-being. Taking into consideration employees’ low rankings in the four constructs under study, qualitative findings revealed the need for employees to be involved in matters that both directly and indirectly affect them.

However, it is the nature of involvement that matters most to employees. Although this view is crucial, the role of employees towards ensuring employee well-being is not lucid. In terms of systems approach, mutually desirable relationships where parties give and receive a range of benefits including socio-emotional, is seen as the backbone of a successful organisation where policies and strategies should emanate from. Thus, a relationship-oriented approach is advocated. Although the relationship approach is important for harmony in an organisation, understanding employees’ happiness and what makes them want to work better enables management to cultivate the best out of them (Schroeder, 2002). For the participants in the study, employee involvement has seen organisations enjoy the benefits that come with employees being part of the decision making process.
As has already been noted in the foregoing, employee involvement does not only benefit employees alone for their input can address organisational issues affecting company to a greater extent. The underpinning cause of lack of employee involvement is that the company itself has become a hindrance towards employee involvement. Framed within the ideology of ‘cost cutting’, the system only concentrates on ‘short term’ measures of reducing costs.

It is the managements’ perspective that the system has made employees to be viewed as passive recipients of an imposed ideology. In other words, there is no fluidity in the decision-making process, resulting in frustration among employees and these has negatively affected employees’ psychological well-being as evidenced by low scores on the four constructs. What seems to have been forgotten by the system is that workers have insights into how to improve their jobs and most find that the opportunity to influence their work environment is intrinsically satisfying (Budd, Gollan, & Wilkinson, 2010).

Although answers to why management had conflicting ideologies on the ideal practices towards organisational effectiveness could not be obtained from the entire management, the prevailing system could have been in place because of management’s fear that employee involvement can shift bargaining power to an extent that the employer becomes more dependent on hard-to-monitor discretionary effort of employees. This may result in an increase of employees’ bargaining power (Dau-Schmidt & Ellis, 2011).

Employee involvement has seen organisations enjoying the benefits that come with employees being part of the decision making process. As has already been noted in the foregoing, employee involvement does not only benefit employees alone for their input can address organisational issues affecting company to a greater extent. The underpinning
cause of lack of employee involvement is that the company itself has become a hindrance towards employee involvement. Framed within the ideology of ‘cost cutting’, the system only concentrates on ‘short term’ measures of reducing costs.

It is widely accepted within the global management theory that it is not only through focusing on economic factors that an organisation’s survival goal can be achieved, but non-economic factors are equally important (Fredrickson, 2003). This therefore calls for the need for organisations to monitor the well-being of its employees and take steps to progress it. To achieve this, employee involvement therefore becomes crucial.

Although it came out from the study that involving employees in organisational matters, provides solutions to most problems encountered in the company, critiques of employee involvement believe that by involving employees, management would want to control workers and intensify work as part of a strategy to control labour cost. In line with job satisfaction, intrinsic factors such as having a work environment, which is coherent with personal values, was found to be more significant in predicting job satisfaction than are extrinsic factors such as salaries.

Although working environment and personal values were seen as crucial in predicting career satisfaction (Randolph, 2005), its influence on job satisfaction and work engagement must not be underestimated as revealed by the findings of this study. The results suggest that employees could be engaged in organisational citizenship behaviour when they perceive fairness of the decision-making process, receive leaders’ support, and recognize less complexity of the organisational process (Lee, 2001).
Although the quantitative findings of the current study show a similar trend on the relationship between OCB and JS (Murphy, Athanasou, & King, 2002; Hegney, Plank, & Parker, 2006; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denesseri, 2006), qualitative findings of the study indicated the need to seriously consider the role of socio-political environment on job satisfaction given the interrelatedness of an organisation’s system. Quantitative findings that OCB predict job satisfaction supports the qualitative findings of the current study especially given emphasis by the participants that it is those behaviours that are ‘cultural’ and normally taken for granted by the employer that matter most for one to be happy in their work. By incorporating individual values into their work, employers would have taken a step further towards creating fit between a person and the organisation. The ability of an individual to identify with their organisation, unquestionably results in job satisfaction (Hegney, Plank, & Parker, 2006).

The relationship between JS and OCB as reflected by both quantitative and qualitative findings pointed that if satisfaction fails to be reflected in productivity; certainly, it will be evident in discretionary involvement in the workplace (Murphy, Athanasou, & King, 2002; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denesseri, 2006). In line with the understanding that “job satisfaction is a positive emotional state which arises from a positive appraisal of employee job experience” (Locke& Lathan, 1985, p. 206), employees’ assessment of the extent to which their jobs afford those aspects viewed as important implies that to a certain extent citizenship behaviours would have been accounted for.

The relationship between OCB and WE as covered in the existing literature, found supportive work community to influence work engagement (Maslach et al., 2001). The ability of WE to predict OCB as revealed by both quantitative and qualitative findings of
the current study help provide reasons why people vary in their responses to the stated conditions. This has been a challenge, as revealed by Maslach and colleagues (2001). However, from the current study, qualitative findings revealed that miners believed that a happy employee engages well in their work and is not hesitant to exhibit citizenship behaviours because they get joy out of practicing them. For others, leadership styles and or characteristics have been found to be the determinants of the extent to which employees engages with their work and ultimately exhibit citizenship behaviours (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010).

However, for the miners in the current study, a holistic approach towards understanding employees’ behaviours that influence work engagement is crucial for organisational citizenship behaviours to be achieved. This involves considering the context within which an individual function, even if it means looking beyond the confines of an organisation.

To warrant organisational effectiveness while taking into consideration employees ‘real’ needs, effective frameworks for employee well-being must therefore articulate ways in which employees can meaningfully contribute in organisational effectiveness. For the mining employees in the company under study, employee well-being towards organisational effectiveness involve (a) them being viewed as the key drivers in the determination of what involvement in organisational matters entails and (b) as addressees who are given an opportunity to deliberate on issues affecting their well-being and ultimately, that of the organisation.

7.4 Drivers of employee well-being: Implications to management

In the introduction chapter of this thesis, it came out clearly that as with other countries where diamond was discovered, diamond mining has also been politicised in Zimbabwe.
However, a call has been made for the mining industry and other organisations to not only focus on the bottom line, but also on monitor the well-being of workers, and take steps to improve it (Diener & Seligman, 2004).

This resulted in most diamond mining companies including the one understudy, face a host of challenges with considerable effect on employee well-being. In the above discussion, it came out that company system could be a major impediment to the realization of subjective well-being among miners. After exploring on the role of the prevailing company system, it came out from the participants that meaningful work communities and involvement are important drivers of well-being. The theoretical framework of this study informs an in-depth discussion of how these two can contribute to employees’ well-being. Implications to both employees and the employer shall be examined.

Employee involvement has been found to be a major step towards enhancing miners’ well-being. Miners’ concerns such as frustration also occur due to lack of employees’ involvement in work matters that affect them. Employees’ frustration affects their satisfaction, engagement, psychological empowerment as well as citizenship behaviours. Although both management and miners agree that there is lack of employee involvement, miners feel this is due to mismanagement practices that do not support involvement. For the miners, they are calling for, but a meaningful one not just general involvement.

It is indisputable that persistent failure by management to provide platforms that allow openness through effective communication and involvement, may lead to the creation of structures that are resistant to the set company goals. Alluding to Giddens (1979), Botan and Hazleton (2006) posit that structures which are embedded within systems are usually most durable. General employees in an organisation can be important holders of
information and knowledge that maybe needed for effectiveness to be realised in an organisation (Hayase, 2009).

Worth noting is that management admitted to lack of platforms in the company where employees’ concerns can be heard. Although the dynamic model of well-being at work points the four major areas that constituting well-being at work namely experience, functioning at work, organisational systems and personal resources (NEF Consulting, 2016) qualitative findings from both managers and employees show a serious need for employees’ voices and concerns to be incorporated at all levels.

By involving employees, management will be in a position to determine what matters most to employees and how employees’ wishes and concerns can be aligned in business operations. Of outmost importance, is the aspect of meaningful work communities, where employees indicated greater concern over managements’ stance in not valuing how employees would want to associate and live their lives after work and specifically in their barracks (company houses).

Meaningful work communities were also cited as crucial towards enhancing miners’ well-being. Traditionally, people find happiness in friendship groups, families, community based organisations, neighbourhoods and social networks. While these settings continue to be a place for emotional reprieve, work organisations are increasingly becoming a primary setting where people may (or may not) meet their personal needs because they spend more time at work, because with technology the demarcations of work and non-work are indistinct (Grantham, Ware, & Willson, 2007).
By meaningful work communities, miners implied work structures that enable them to achieve both work and personal goals. These communities according to the miners provide satisfying interactions, long-term relationships and facilitate their longing for sharing, assisting each other and togetherness values. In support of this, De Simone (2014) argued that to ensure their well-being, employees need to be embedded in meaningful communities and having satisfying interactions and long term relationships with others, most participants in the study revealed that due to employment, social cohesion is compromised as work stations fail to provide for this.

Management’s ability to enforce and achieve these can help not only towards the achievement of company’s goal, but also promote social cohesion and give provision to work-life balance. Thus, feelings of being alienated from company’s activities, dominated by other group(s), hostility and lack of trust, which have been pointed by the participants as the resultant feelings and behaviours presented by the current company system, can then be eliminated.

The question that then remains is how can these meaningful involvement and work communities be achieved in a company with the above highlighted dynamics? The Systems theory and Ubuntu management philosophy outlined in the theoretical framework of this study are quite instructive in the consideration of this question.

Ubuntu has been conceptualised as a philosophy that accounts for the way(s) Africans view and understand their world. The conceptualisation of Ubuntu revealed African cultural frames embedded into an individual through their relations with the society. As such, it becomes important for organisations to seriously take into consideration employees’ values
through a deeper understanding of their culture(s) since culture determines behaviour in a comprehensive way (Broodryk, 2005).

The miners’ plea for meaningful work communities and involvement, which they think greatly, affect their work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviours can be viewed in light of their cultural frame. This view finds expression in Locke (1970) that individual performance is greatly influenced by the specific tasks or work goals. In the same vein, these goals are linked to individual’s social, cultural and political context.

Given the strong identification miners have with their culture, the existence of harmonious relations in organisations can be a major drive towards organisational effectiveness. Thus, through acknowledging that “people in the workplace have different world views that determine their cultural expressions, perceptions and convictions regarding all issues relating to life, work and labour” (Broodryk, 2005), an appreciation of Ubuntu philosophy can help to understand Zimbabwean miners’ disapproval of the current company system and management practices that lean more towards Chinese business culture. Thus, by appreciating the Zimbabweans and Chinese’ worldviews, management can be able to work towards fulfilling every individual’s ultimate goal of becoming fully human.

The cardinal principle of Ubuntu philosophy that is illustrated by the expression umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu indicates that Africans can mimic the emotions of others, and respond to others thereby outspreading the social manifestation of a specific emotion. The implication of this to organisations is that by creating a company culture, which incorporates indigenous values of employees, organisational citizenship behaviours can be achieved. When looking at the global economic trend where Chinese economy seems
dominating and expanding much faster in Africa, Ubuntu management philosophy can enable management to be flexible and be ready to quickly adopt to practices that will ensure that the well-being of everyone in the system is well catered for.

In line with the above, Systems theory advocate, that system’s effectiveness is only achieved through interdependence of sub-systems. Surely, individuals’ emotions, perceptions and values cannot be ignored given their influence on the overall organisational behaviour particularly with the view that “emotion cycle can involve both intended targets of and partners to a novel emotion and third parties who were not the intended targets or partners” (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008, p.43).

Situating the findings of the current study within Systems theory as well as Ubuntu philosophy derives from the fact that studied miners indicated to be inseparable and incomplete without others. As such, their well-being can only be appreciated by understanding their relationships with the broader society. By embracing a value system which encourages miners to develop relationships they feel worthy in their working environment(s), management would not have just enabled social cohesion among miners, but would have also created room for long-term organisational citizenship behaviours.

Unlike in social exchange where there are expectations of reciprocation (Organ, 2006), Ubuntu practices are lived and practiced daily with no instrumental value attached to the actions. Africans have a natural desire to support fellow human beings as they live and work with each other (Nassbaum, 2003). Similarly, a working environment which allows for citizenship behaviours do not just open a platform for cultural values, but help to make miners feel humans since such practices are part of their living. This is consistent with positive organisational scholarship, which acknowledges that interactions and social
relationships branded by loyalty compassion, respect, honesty and forgiveness are crucial for organisational effectiveness.

A mixed methods approach employed in this study towards understanding miners’ subjective psychological well-being and citizenship behaviours was a holistic approach that ensured an understanding of the contribution of human behaviour in the achievement of organisational goals. Thus, the emergence of socio-political environment as one major contributor to miners’ job satisfaction, engagement, psychological empowerment and citizenship behaviours supports the notion that Ubuntu view of personhood does not subscribe to an understanding of an individual exclusively in terms of the psychological and physical properties (Mkhize, 1998).

So far, Ubuntu has been pointed as a practice, which centres individual behaviour on community values, and practices. As resembled in the model of community from an African perspective where “family serves as a means for personal growth of its members through interaction, conversation and companionship among members” (Shutte, 2008, p. 16), interdependence and or relationships is a major determinant of personal growth. As such, from an Ubuntu perspective, an organisation is viewed as a community, which is expected to have values, and practices that help shape and or determine employees’ behaviour. It therefore becomes indisputable that by creating meaningful work communities, management in the mine under study can help enforce favourable work behaviours.

Within psychological empowerment discourse is the sense of family interdependence and common purpose. The conceptualisation of psychological empowerment in the current study reflected shared responsibilities and integration for problem as one of the major
themes. Psychological empowerment perspective believes that one person follows another’s lead and that he/she models his/her behaviour on the leading person and will start to act accordingly, until eventually the individual changes into a leader and model for others. The implication of this to management is the need to revisit their management practices and ensure that these practices do not conflict with values that are crucial for the realization of employee effectiveness.

From an Ubuntu perspective, self is understood with regards to an individual’s participation in a community. One’s value in an organisation is therefore determined by the quality of their involvement when at work. Thus, when an organisation is viewed as a community, the purpose of management is neither to benefit one group of individuals, as suggested by shareholder value maximisation theories nor to advantage several groups of individuals as suggested by the stakeholders, but to “benefit the community as well as the larger communities of which it is part” (Lutz, 2008, p. 316). Through embedding philosophies of traditional cultures and business practices, Ubuntu management’s core values of humanness, sharing, caring, respect and compassion especially with the family spirit in management and leadership, will help curb most people problems faced by the mine.

Like in contingency theory where employees, managers and owners’ personalities are part of the major determinants of an effective organisational structure, the basic quality of Ubuntu is the inner value and dignity of the human personality, thus humanness instilled in a person. In a bid to understand circumstances towards psychological empowerment for the miners, an empowering work environment has much contribution towards personality.

At the core of psychological empowerment construct, is the concept of the employee who experiences power. From the psychological empowerment process, power is perceived as
control, competence and as being energized towards achieving valued goals (Menon, 2001). By adopting Ubuntu practices through a shared identity, openness, which further creates a working environment where leadership is approachable, willing to listen and discuss the ideas of followers, workers’ ability to access information, freely criticise actions, conventions, regulations in a constructive way, management would have armed themselves with important tools for mine’s viability.

Participation is one other Ubuntu element that has seen people working towards one goal in unity and peace. For Ubuntu, the quality or behaviour of society that is charitableness, sharing and cooperation (Nussbaum, 2003) brings sense to both individual’s life and that of others (Broodryk, 1997). By allowing employees to participate in company matters through discussion groups or interactive forums for example, joint resolutions or decisions are made.

The prevailing company system at the mine under study however promotes individualism and competitiveness among miners. A collectivist society has an advantage of individuals subordinating their personal wellbeing to the goals of their in-group, with whom they work and identifies with. This is necessitated by the fact that in-group membership is steady even when the in-group’s demands are stronger on the individual. Furthermore, there is sharing of common interests and seeking of collective outcomes or goals among people belonging to an in-group. This then results in individuals in a collectivistic culture deriving pleasure and satisfaction from group accomplishment (Earley, 1989). Unlike a collectivist society, an individualistic culture is characterised by people who feel proud of their own accomplishments and derive satisfaction from performance based on their own achievements (Earley, 1989).
Through the aspect of OCB, a different connotation in collectivist societies from those in individualistic societies clearly comes out. Employees with collectivist values commit to organisations primarily because of their ties with managers, owners, and co-workers, and far less because of the job itself or the particular compensation scheme (Cohen, 2003; Cohen & Avrahami, 2006). What this implies is that high levels of OCB are expected in a collectivist culture than in an individualistic culture.

So far, it has come out from the analysis that cultural characteristics influence organisational behaviour. In Asia, particularly China, Confucianism is a humanity philosophy, which influences Chinese business today (Huang & Gove, 2012). Like in Ubuntu, the institution of the family is central within Confucianism. Applied to business, Confucianism ethics is evidenced in being sincere towards others, trustworthy, righteousness as well as kindness (Huang & Gove, 2012). Thus, there is evidence of a thin line between Confucianism and Ubuntu.

The advantages of aligning business practices with traditional cultures can be traced in Japan. Japanese have been consistent with their own traditional culture, resulting in their great success in business (Maseland & Van Hoorn, 2010). However, given shared cultural business approaches between Zimbabweans and Chinese together with their massive expansion into Africa, Ubuntu practices offer possibilities to the current challenges faced by miners in their bid to contribute productively to the joint venture company’s needs as well as theirs. Given the conduciveness of an ethical climate, it is indisputable that a positive ethical climate is positively related with constructs such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Schwepter, 2001).
7.5 Proposed framework for employee well-being

The findings presented in the preceding chapters and discussed above suggest that employees’ contributions to the organisation are an important factor on the achievement of organisational effectiveness. The contribution (of employees) has been noted to be both employee and employer (management) driven. However, differences from both parties (management and employees) on how best effective contribution can be made remain a challenge. With a company system that only believes in and trust management in decision making, frustration, which led to dissatisfaction, unengaged and ‘bad’ corporate citizenship has been reported among low-level employees of the company.

![Diagram](image.png)

**Figure 9:** *Locating Job Satisfaction within a Socio-Political Environment*  
*(Author)*

With employee involvement being seen as a possible solution to the challenges faced in the company under study, a framework where a company understand its socio-political
environment in the context of employees’ personal resources and the company’s system can bring meaningful contribution to the success of the company. After taking into consideration the findings of the current study and the problem statement of this study, a well-being model that accounts for the environment within which employees find themselves is proposed. An employee’s environment is illustrated in Figure 9.

The different layers shown in the figure above comprise various factors that inevitably affects in one way or the other, an employee’s psychological wellbeing. As described in the previous two chapters, participants indicated that non-cognitive factors such as their cultural values, uncertainties and conflicting stories about Marange diamonds affect their psychological well-being while at work. These aspects fall within the outer layers of the ring whose influence on an employee overbears the immediate monetary incentives that organisations usually provide.

The above rendering derived from the perspectives of miners who participated in this study urges for a framework for ensuring well-being that accounts for important role the socio-political environment of the company plays. As such, this study proposes a descriptive and prescriptive framework that aims at enabling organisations to get the best out of employees. The framework outlined in Figure 10 below, prescribes a holistic approach towards understanding the functionality of an individual when at work.

The suggested framework conjures a company system where managerial practises, culture and values, combined with personal resources such as material resources and respect for personal values, embedded into the company’s socio-political environment, largely determine the functionality of an employee. A well functional employee is a happy
employee who is willing to go an extra mile and is not hesitant to exhibit citizenship behaviours.

![Diagram showing the relationship between personal resources, employee functioning, company system, organisational citizenship behaviours, and psychological well-being.]

**Figure 10:** *Socio-political environment and its potency to affect psychological well-being (Author)*

The ability of an employee to reach such a state unquestionably results in a positive psychological well-being state. What this implies is that for every company to achieve its set goals with its employees feeling part of the company and with enhanced well-being; employees must not struggle to fit into the company’s system. More importantly, its socio-
political environment must come out in such a way that employees feel their values and interests being considered.

The propositions of this framework are not only useful for understanding employee well-being, but also provide a crucial step towards talent management. To achieve the set target of this proposed framework, the following must be considered:

a) Set policies and procedures on how employees’ well-being is to be perceived and managed in the company. These policies must be periodically reviewed to incorporate some emerging trends in the industry.

b) Formulate teams responsible for supporting the execution and progress of the proposed programme(s). It is important to include Human Resources as part of the team since they are likely to have more information on employee related matters.

c) Outline the actions to be taken. These actions must be categorised starting with the broad ones (spelling out what is to be done by the company), narrowing it to what employees should do, how communication with employees should be conducted through to the monitoring and evaluation of the set programme(s).

7.6 Recommendations

This thesis’s main objective was to establish from the perspective of employees of one diamond mine in Marange diamond fields in eastern Zimbabwe factors that account for their organisational citizenship behaviours and possible ways through which their work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment can be improved. From a perspective that employees are social beings, the thesis suggests a comprehensive understanding of the important role the social context of the organisation in terms of the
major issues that are currently or are likely to affect employees play on their psychological well-being of them.

The mining industry is generally characterised by unhappy employees due to its undesirable working conditions. Coupled by the politicisation of diamonds, employees’ well-being in the industry is at stake. In its attempt to address employee related problems in mining, the current study proposes a holistic understanding of an employee, where factors outside an individual must also be considered to such an extent that the company’s socio-political environment affects well-being.

7.6.1 Implications for future research

It would be useful for future research of this nature to include other stakeholders such as government in their sample given that diamond mining and mining in general is largely regulated by governments who are responsible for policies guiding business operations in the industry. In addition, it is usually a norm that the majority of people employed by mines are locals (especially in Zimbabwe). It will therefore become crucial to have comprehensive understanding of the local culture through local leaders. Doing so provides a holistic understanding of the most valued social practises of the locals, thereby enhancing the practise of citizenship behaviours and well-being in general.

It will be interesting to have a research study that involves a number of diamond mining companies for comparison purposes of the findings. Such a study will help to unearth answers to most questions and psychological states that most participants in the current study had over the working environment they are found in. This will also assist the government in coming up with effective systems in its plan to consolidate the diamond mining companies.
7.6.2 Implications for policy and practise

Although the study tried to give insight into how organisations can improve effectiveness through cultivating working environments favourable to its employees’ well-being, a lot can be achieved through embarking on the following:

a) Investigations on the governing laws and agreed business models embarked by the government(s) through relevant ministries and various investors. Such investigations will help to understand issues of power relations between government representatives and investor representatives involved. This will help in developing company systems that do not conflict with stakeholders’ values and interests, thereby facilitating harmony in business operations.

b) Human resources practises that fosters research and development such that the company is always aware of employees concerns and needs. This allows for a company system which is in line with employees’ needs thereby reducing conflict and feelings of exclusion from company activities. The diamond industry for instance in Zimbabwe is characterised by diamond committee meetings whereby diamond mining companies meet every fortnight to discuss issues affecting the industry, ranging from human resources, production, safety, health and security among others. An active involvement of human resources in research and development especially on employees’ well-being help in expanding research on employee well-being to other diamond mining companies to allow generalizability of the findings. This help in coming up with collective ways to enhance employees’ well-being in the industry.
7.7 Contribution to the field of study

The current study although centred in the industrial psychology discipline, has several implications to a number of disciplines. With its emphasis on the need for a holistic approach towards the understanding of employee well-being, the findings can be useful to other disciplines such as Industrial Relations, Human Resources Management and Talent Management.

Although several scholars concurred on the viability of employee well-being towards the achievement of organisational goals (Luo, 1999; Wells, 2000; Grawitch, Gottschalk, & Munz, 2006; Van De Voorde, Paauwe, & Van Veldhoven, 2012;), this study elucidate the conducive climate and conditions both within and outside an individual towards the enhancement of employee well-being. With prominence given to the socio-political environment as the centre piece for employee well-being, having a company policy and strategies guiding employee well-being help ensure that the intended goals are met.

Employees’ psychological well-being has mainly been established through quantitative means. The use of mixed methods approach allows for diverse views on the contributing factors to employees’ well-being. Through a pragmatic approach where both objective and subjective views of the four constructs are accommodated, the study showed the need to broaden our understanding of the four constructs in a different setting characterized by diverse work dynamics. This help to gather crucial information not just for the design of questionnaires measuring the four constructs but also support the need to view an individual’s behaviour as dynamic given different contexts they would have been subjected to.
Moreover, the current study was located in the Zimbabwean diamond mining industry. This brings the Zimbabwean context into the business and or psychological understanding of miners’ literature which is close to non-existence in Zimbabwe. In light of global interests towards diamond mining and processing, employees’ well-being is becoming a major aspect. This study therefore provides areas for consideration for a comprehensive achievement of employees’ well-being. Therefore, the study argues that a company’s system with a socio-political environment which incorporates employees’ interests and values provides for business viability. The implication of this to the already established instruments that measure employees’ well-being is the need for inquiry on those aspects that determine the extent to which the socio-political environment affects one’s functionality at work.

7.8 Caveat

While the aspects of work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviours have been studied in one company characterised by interesting business dynamics that may be similar to other contexts in Zimbabwe and even beyond, the study is not immune to some limitations. By focusing on one company and a small sample, the results cannot be generalised. This is not least because what occurs in the studied company may not be the same with what occurs in other companies.

While the study combined both qualitative and quantitative methods for the purposes of triangulation, the qualitative component of the study relied only on interviews. The use of focus groups could have generated more information and discussion from the participants. This would have helped to address the problem or fear that workers will not be exhaustive and rather be selective with the information they provided for the study.
7.9 Conclusion

This study set out to determine the likely role that the business’ social context may have on the psychological well-being and organisational citizenship among employees of Marange diamond mining company employees. Based on the inadequacy of the quantitative approaches to provide a basis from which to infer the direction of the relationship between workplace features and employee well-being, this thesis aimed to find comprehensive ways through which managers can foster psychological well-being of miners operating in a turbulent business environment such as that currently characterising Marange diamond mining. The premise was that appreciating barriers to psychological well-being presented by those factors outside an individual is crucial for the design of effective well-being interventions.

An analysis of the quantitative findings revealed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and work engagement; job satisfaction and organisational citizenship; work engagement and organisational citizenship. The results further revealed that work engagement and job satisfaction strongly predicted organisational citizenship. However, psychological empowerment failed to predict organisational citizenship. The qualitative findings revealed that in line with work processes and procedures, a company system which allows employees to be involved in work aspects that affect them as well as aligning the company’s culture with employees’ values enhances employees’ well-being.

Over all, a consideration of quantitative and qualitative findings of the study suggests that an effective well-being framework is one whose socio-political environment guided by cultural values that are appreciated and serves both employees’ and organisation’s interests defines work procedures and processes.
REFERENCES


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APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER

252
November 11, 2013

The Managing Director
Jinan Mining Pvt Ltd Company
55 Kingsmead Road
Borrowdale
Harare

Dear Mr Z. Ncube

RE: REQUEST FOR WRITTEN PERMISSION TO STUDY WORK ENGAGEMENT, PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP AMONG EMPLOYEES IN YOUR ORGANISATION FOR A DOCTORAL RESEARCH.

My name is Polite Masvaure. I am a Ph.D. candidate at the University of KwaZulu-Natal reading for a Doctor of Philosophy degree. I write in respect of a research project titled “The socio-political environment and its impact on psychological well-being and organisational citizenship of diamond miners in Marange, Zimbabwe” which I am conducting as part of my doctoral study. The study seeks to elicit perceptions and views of shop floor employees and managers involved in diamond
mining on their experiences in work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship at work.

**Aim of the Study**

My doctoral thesis explores possible ways in which employees, particularly in the diamond mining industry (Sub Saharan Africa), can meaningfully contribute towards as a response to employees’ contribution towards organisational performances. This study elicits perceptions and views of your employees on what they think about their current involvement in diamond mining activities. The generated knowledge will be utilised to develop an integrated theoretical perspective on work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship. The model hopes to facilitate genuine empowerment of employees through meaningful contribution in organisational performance interventions as a global response to changing nature of work.

**What Will Be The Employees Asked To Do?**

a) Fill in the Four (4) questionnaires that is Work Engagement Scale, Psychological Empowerment Scale, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Checklist.

b) Discuss with the researcher and other fellow employees, in an audio-recorded focus group, issues around the role of socio-political environment to workers’ engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational empowerment.

c) Interviews with management will last about half an hour, at a convenient location to the managers.

**What Type of Personal Information Will Be Collected?**

Bulk of the information required is that derived from above stated objectives. While biographical data about gender, age, level of education and profession will be collected, such data will not be used to reveal the identity of participants. Employees will choose or be assigned a pseudonym and this will be used to identify them during the interview and focus group. No names will be mentioned in data analysis and in publications. However, any information provided may be quoted in publications as long as such quotations do not compromise anonymity.

**What Happens to the Information I Provide?**

Employees will be at liberty not to participate and will be free not to respond to certain questions. They may withdraw from the study at any time during the interview. However, once the interview
is completed, they cannot ask that the information already provided to be expunged from the study. In the event that they withdraw in the course of the interview, any information that will have been provided prior to withdrawal will be used by the researcher to accomplish the research objectives.

Raw data that they provide will be stored in a secure cabinet (under lock and key) in the investigator’s office. The data will only be available to the researcher and the supervisor. I do not have a predetermined maximum time frame for disposing of data because it could be used for related research in the future and could form the basis for a longitudinal study. I will, however, keep the data for a minimum of five years in accordance with our faculty policy.

**Informed consent**

Written informed consent from participants will be sought. Their signature on provided consent forms will serve as indications that they have understood to satisfaction the information provided to them about their participation in this research project, and agree to be research participants. In no way will this waive their legal rights nor release the investigator, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. Participants will be free to withdraw from this research project at any time. They shall feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout their participation.

**Are There Risks or Benefits for Participation?**

There are no foreseen risks for participation in this study. Also, participation may not yield any direct personal benefit to the Employees as there will be no remuneration for participation in the study. However, the information they share will help to facilitate our understanding of the issues covered by this research, and help design future strategies for meaningful participation of employees towards organisational effectiveness.

This study is supervised by Professor Buitendach. Should you wish to contact Professor Buitendach, please email on Buitendach@ukzn.ac.za. Your usual cooperation is always appreciated.

Polite Masvaure
To: Miss Polite Masvaure
The Faculty of Humanities
CC School of Applied Human Sciences
Discipline Industrial Psychology

R.E: INTEREST TO STUDY EMPLOYEES AND MANAGERS FOR YOUR DOCTORAL RESEARCH

Dear Miss P. Masvaure

The above subject refers.

Thank you for expressing interest to study Jinan Mining (Pvt) Ltd Company’s employees and managers for your doctoral research.

I am pleased to inform you that Jinan Mining (Pvt) Ltd Company has approved your request and is hereby granting you permission to study our employees. As a member of this organization, we are sure you are aware of the best procedures to get any necessary help you may need in carrying out your study.

We will appreciate if you could serve us with a copy of your research report upon completion of the study.

Should further information be required, please contact the undersigned.

Yours sincerely,

HR Manager

Add: No. 95 Kingsmead Road, Borrowdale, Harare
APPENDIX D: INFORMED CONSENT

Introduction

My name is Polite Masvaure and I am a PhD candidate at the University of KwaZulu Natal. It is a requirement of my study to complete a research study. My study examines aspects of work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship among employees in diamond mining companies at Marange in Zimbabwe.

You are being invited to participate in this research because of your position as an employee. There will be no direct benefit to you if you participate in this research, but your participation is likely to help generate knowledge and greater understanding on work engagement, psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship amongst the diamond mining employees. Confidentiality will be ensured, the questionnaires will only be available to the researcher and her supervisor only. Anonymity will also be ensured by omitting any identifying characteristic, such as your name, or department.

Nothing included in the questionnaire will be shared with anybody outside the research team. If you have any queries please feel free to contact me (Polite Masvaure (00263)733 639 930/ masvaurepolite@yahoo.com) or my supervisor (Professor Joey Buitendach: (0027)31 260 2407/Buitendach@ukzn.ac.za).

Informed consent

I _______________ have read the information about this study and understand the explanations of it given to me verbally. I have had my questions concerning the study answered and understand what will be required of me if I take part in this study.

Signature__________________ Date_____________
(Or mark)
APPENDIX E: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA SHEET

INSTRUCTIONS

Please answer the following questions by marking the appropriate boxes.

1. GENDER

Male □ Female □

2. AGE GROUP

24 years and younger □ 25 – 35 years □
36 – 45 years □ 46 – 55 years □
56 years and older □

3. RACE

African □ White □
Indian □ Coloured □
Other □

4. MARITAL STATUS

Single □ Divorced □
Widowed □ Married □

5. YEARS OF TENURE

Less than 6 months □ 1 – 2 years □
2 - 3 years □ < 3 years □

6. HIGHEST ATTAINED QUALIFICATION

Grade 7 □ Diploma □
ZJC □ Degree □
Ordinary Level  □ □  Postgrad Degree  □ □
Advanced Level  □ □

7. PLEASE INDICATE YOUR POSITION

Sorting Plant  □ □  Power and Equipment  □ □
Mining  □ □  Security  □ □
Exploration  □ □  Management  □ □
APPENDIX F: PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT SCALE

**Instructions:** Please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements by circling the appropriate number on the 1 to 7-point scale supplied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1. I am confident about my ability to do my job</th>
<th>2. The work that I do is important to me</th>
<th>3. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job</th>
<th>4. My impact on what happens in my department is large</th>
<th>5. My job activities are personally meaningful to me</th>
<th>6. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department</th>
<th>7. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work</th>
<th>8. I really care about what I do in my job</th>
<th>9. My job is well within the scope of my abilities</th>
<th>10. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job</th>
<th>11. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job</th>
<th>12. My opinion counts in departmental decision making</th>
<th>13. The work I do is meaningful to me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very Strongly</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Very Strongly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I have significant influence over what happens in my department</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I have a chance to use personal initiative in carrying out my work</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX G: WORK ENGAGEMENT (UWES) QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: Please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements by circling the appropriate number on the 1 to 6-point scale supplied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>At my work, I feel bursting with energy</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Times flies when I’m working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>At my job, I feel strong and vigorous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I am enthusiastic about my job</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>When I am working, I forget everything else around me</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>My job inspires me</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I feel happy when i am working intensely</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I am proud on the work that I do</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I am immersed in my work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I can continue working for very long periods at a time</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>To me, my job is challenging</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>I get carried away when I’m working</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>At my job, I am very resilient, mentally</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>It's difficult to detach myself from my job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX H: JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please rate the extent to which you feel (dis)satisfied with the following statements by circling the appropriate number on the 1 to 5-point scale supplied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very</th>
<th>Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Being able to keep busy all the time.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The chance to work alone on the job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The chance to do different things from time to time.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The chance to be “somebody” in the community.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The way my boss handles his/her workers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The way my job provides for steady employment.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The chance to do things for other people.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The chances to tell people what to do.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>The way company policies are put into practice.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>My pay and the amount of the work I do.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>The chances for advancement on this job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>The freedom to use my own judgement.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>The working conditions.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>The way my co-workers get along with each other.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>The praise I get for doing a good job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>The feeling of accomplishment I get from my job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX I: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR CHECKLIST

(OCB-C) 20 ITEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Once or twice</th>
<th>Once or twice per month</th>
<th>Once or twice per week</th>
<th>Every day</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Picked up meal for others at work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a personal problem.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Changed vacation schedule, work days, or shifts to accommodate co-worker’s needs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Offered suggestions for improving the work environment.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Finished something for co-worker who had to leave early.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Helped a less capable co-worker lift a heavy box or other object.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Volunteered for extra work assignments.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Took phone messages for absent or busy co-worker.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Said good things about your employer in front of others.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Volunteered to help a co-worker deal with a difficult customer, vendor, or co-worker.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Went out of the way to give co-worker encouragement or express appreciation.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Decorated, straightened up, or otherwise beautified common work space.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Defended a co-worker who was being &quot;put-down&quot; or spoken ill of by other co-workers or supervisor.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX J: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Research Questions for the managers and worker representatives

The general objective of the current study is to determine the likely role that the business’ social context may have on the psychological well-being and organisational citizenship among employees of Marange diamond mining company employees. The ultimate aim is to find comprehensive ways through which managers can foster psychological well-being of miners operating in a turbulent business environment.

Research Questions for the Qualitative part

1. What are the managers’ and workers’ representatives’ perceptions on the levels of, and factors contributing to work engagement, psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship of their employees?

2. What do managers’ and worker representatives’ perceive as the impact of the socio-political environment on the workers’ engagement and psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship?

3. In what ways can organisations design effective interventions for promoting psychological well-being and organisational citizenship of mining employees?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR MANAGERS

1. What is your understanding of:
   a. Work engagement
   b. Psychological empowerment
   c. Organizational citizenship
   d. Job satisfaction

2. In line with your understanding of the above concepts, as a manager, how do you
view them in the prevailing working environment of this company? (Responses to be given for each construct).

3. How do you rank employees in this company on a scale of 1-3 (1- high 2-average 3- lowly 4-not at all) on the four constructs (work engagement, psychological empowerment, organizational citizenship and job satisfaction)?

4. What is your understanding of employee well-being?

5. What do you think is the state of employees’ well-being in this company?

6. What is your perception of the role of your organisation’s socio-political environment on employees’ well-being and organisational citizenship?

7. How do you think employees’ well-being can be improved in this company?

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR WORKER REPRESENTATIVES**

1. What is your understanding of:
   a. Work engagement
   b. Psychological empowerment
   c. Organizational citizenship
   d. Job satisfaction

2. In line with your understanding of the above concepts, as a worker representative, how do you view them in the prevailing working environment of this company? (Responses to be given for each construct).

3. How do you rank your ‘followers’ in this company on a scale of 1-3 (1- high 2-average 3- lowly 4-not at all) on the four constructs (work engagement, psychological empowerment, organizational citizenship and job satisfaction)?

4. What is your understanding of employee well-being?

5. What do you think is the state of employees’ well-being in this company?

6. What is your perception of the role of your organisation’s socio-political environment on employees’ well-being and organisational citizenship?

7. How do you think employees’ well-being can be improved in this company?