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MASTER'S THESIS

**THE ROLE OF PROSOCIAL JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND
PROSOCIAL MOTIVATION IN FACILITATING EMPLOYEE
WORK ENGAGEMENT**

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AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Employee work engagement is one of the biggest issues among companies today and initiating engagement will continue to be a business challenge for the next decade. Since the global economy is stabilizing after the worldwide recession, when many enterprises focused on cost-cutting measures (Strack & Caye, 2010), employee work engagement follows a slowly increasing pattern. Studies show that disengaged employees may stay during an economic slowdown, however when new opportunities arise, disengaged employees will be the first to leave.

According to the newest trends in Global Employee Engagement report (Hewitt, 2014), global employee engagement has increased slightly from 2012 to 2013, to 61% overall, and is on the rise following global economic stabilization; 23% of the workforce is passive and the remaining 16% is actively disengaged. Companies are trying to gain more insight into employees' perception of their job, their feelings and their dedication at work.

As reported by Bakker and Demerouti (2008), positive emotions such as joy and enthusiasm are demonstrated by engaged employees. Bakker, Demerouti, and Verbeke (2004) conducted research, which shows that engaged employees in comparison to disengaged, receive higher ratings from their colleagues in performance, that indicates that they are willing to do more and perform better.

Other researched positive consequences of engaged employees are better service quality, less errors at work, higher job performance and effectiveness compared to less engaged coworkers (Halbesleben, 2010; Kahn, 1990; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010; Schaufeli, 2012; Schwartz & Porath, 2011). Similarly, Saks (2006) examined that engaged employees are more committed to their company, and more satisfied with their job. These are some of the reasons that make employee engagement an interesting topic to investigate, especially by managers and practitioners.

The term 'employee engagement' was first used in business by the Gallup organization in 1990s as an outcome of their 25 year-long study during which they interviewed and surveyed employees (Schaufeli, 2012). The most frequently used definition of engagement has been developed by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker (2002, p. 74) who described engagement as '...a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption'.

Investigating the antecedents of engagement is crucial in order to find a way to stimulate it. The famous Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, developed by Bakker and Demerouti (2007) assumes that the antecedents of employee engagement can be divided in two groups i.e. job demands and job resources. Kahn (1990) claims, that psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety and psychological availability are predictors of employee engagement.

Saks (2006) researched that perceived organizational support, job characteristics,

supervisor support, rewards and recognition predicted engagement, however he differentiates between job and organization engagements. Recently, the attention is focused on the social aspect of work and the relational resources. The main investigator of this topic, Adam Grant, emphasizes the importance of the social work context. He claims that for better coordination at work (Grant & Parker, 2009) and higher work motivation (Grant, 2007), social interactions are essential.

The job growth of the service sector in the United States has currently the highest rate among all sectors (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Due to this trend, where people need to interact with others (Parker & Wall, 1998) and work in teams (Osterman, 2000), this topic is increasingly important. Also, managers are realizing that the relationships are important regarding clients and customers (Cascio, 1995), but also within the teams in their company (Osterman, 2000).

Grant (2007, p. 399) examines a newer concept of prosocial motivation that he defines as ‘...the motivation to make a prosocial difference...’. Initial research on prosocial motivation explores employees' feelings, thoughts and actions that emerge as their desire to benefit others. Not focusing on self-interest, but more on the motivation that drives people to act towards welfare of others (Kahn, 1990; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004; Shamir, 1991; Staub, 1984).

Employees with higher level of prosocial motivation care more about doing work that is beneficial to others than those with a lower level. Grant and Sumanth (2009) proposed a five-item measure for prosocial motivation that has been applied in this thesis too. The direct implications of prosocial motivation that have been often researched are task effort, persistence at work, and citizenship behaviors (Grant, 2007; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Grant has conducted several experiments and research on how prosocial motivation influences job performance, persistence and productivity. Since terms, employee engagement and prosocial motivation comprise some similar concepts, it suggests some connection between them. To my knowledge, based on the systematic literature review of EBSCOhost, EMERALD, ProQuest, Science Direct and Oxford Journals databases, no empirical research has been conducted on this relationship. Thus, the research presented in this thesis aims to investigate the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement, and whether prosocial motivation can be perceived as an antecedent of employee work engagement.

Based on the description of motivation by Dowling and Sayles (1978, p. 16) as ‘an inner desire to make an effort’ and several studies that have been performed show, that employees who are highly engaged in their jobs, feel also more motivated and identified with the job (Halbesleben, 2010; Rich et al., 2010; Schwartz & Porath, 2011). This is why the connection between prosocial motivation and employee work engagement might be a reasonable thing to expect.

To better understand how the work context enables employees to do good, scholars

perceive job design and its social background as an important instrument (Howard, 1995; Grant, 2007, 2008a; Grant & Parker, 2009; Mohrman, Cohen, & Mohrman, 1995; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). This extends beyond the classical job characteristics model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976) which defines five essential job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The only relational job characteristic in this model is task significance that describes the extent to which a job has an impact on the lives of other people (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

According to Grant (2007), beyond the social characteristics of jobs there are prosocial aspects that provide employees with opportunities to do work beneficial to others. He proposes two main prosocial job characteristics. Job impact on beneficiaries which is ‘the degree to which a job provides opportunities for employees to affect the lives of beneficiaries’ (Grant, 2007, p. 397). Second prosocial job characteristic that he identifies is contact with beneficiaries, defined as ‘the degree to which a job is relationally structured to provide opportunities for employees to interact and communicated with the people affected by their work’ (Grant, 2007, p. 398).

One of the first conclusions of Grant's research says that when jobs possess these two prosocial job characteristics, employees can better understand the positive consequence of their jobs on the lives of other people. This consequently results in greater motivation and better job performance (Grant, 2008a). The objective of this thesis is also to explore the relationship between prosocial job characteristics and prosocial motivation, more specific, whether they can be perceived as moderators in a relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement.

This thesis is comprised of four chapters. Starting with the first chapter, the Literature Review, that provides the rationale for the study. It describes the current importance of employee engagement as well as it presents the concepts of prosocial motivation and prosocial job characteristics. Methodology, chapter 2, defines the research design in detail and also presents the hypotheses to be tested in this study.

Chapter three, named Results, will provide the results of the data collected through the questionnaire. This section will include an explanation of information gathered and test results for the tested hypotheses. The final chapter, the Discussion, will provide insight into the information presented in the Results chapter as well as limitations of the current research and recommendations for the future research.

1 LITERATURE REVIEW

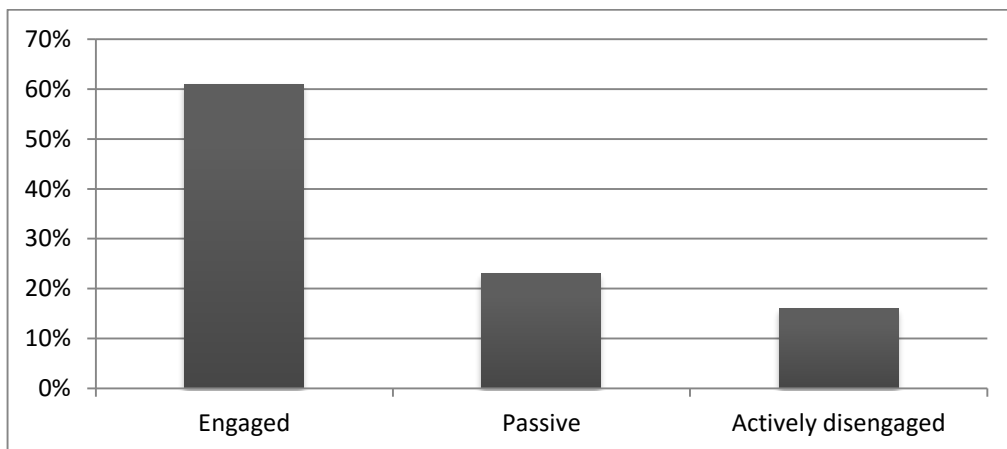
1.1 Employee work engagement

1.1.1 Origin and definition

The term ‘employee engagement’ was first used in business by the Gallup organization in 1990s as an outcome of their 25 year-long study, during which they interviewed and surveyed employees (Schaufeli, 2012). The origin of this term is not consistently clear and the literature also does not specify whether employee engagement emerged as a new concept or it has been developed from existing constructs.

The topic of employee work engagement is very current and companies are investigating more employees' perception and feelings about their jobs, and how dedicated they are to their jobs and company. According to the recent Trends in Global Employee Engagement report (Hewitt, 2014), global employee engagement increased slightly from 2012 to 2013, to 61% overall, and is on the rise following global economic stabilization. Figure 1 displays that 23% of the workforce is passive and the remaining 16% is actively disengaged.

Figure 1. Global engagement distribution



Source: Adapted from A. Hewitt, *Trends in Global Employee Engagement*, 2014, p. 15.

According to the Boston Consulting Group, who in partnership with the European Association for People Management created a report on Europe’s top ten priorities in managing people for 2013; employee engagement is among top three prioritized topics, which demand high need for action (Strack, Caye, Von Der Linden, Haen, & Abramo, 2013). The report from 2010 shows that engagement had then already been an issue. However, in 2008 this topic was only in the medium needs to act zone.

When reading the literature about employee engagement, different people have defined it in distinctive ways. Macey and Schneider (2008) tried to combine various views by saying that employee engagement is composed by both, attitudinal and behavioral components.

It has not only organizational purpose, but it is characterized by feelings of passion, energy, enthusiasm and commitment. One of the most recent definitions of employee engagement by Shuck and Wollard (2010) suggests, that employee engagement is an individual approach how to achieve the company's goals with the aid of employee's actions, emotional and rational reactions.

In the first experiments studying engagement, many researchers connected engagement to burnout, because they perceived the dimensions of burnout as opposites of engagement's core dimensions (González-Romá, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). As reported by Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 34), 'Energy, involvement, and efficacy - these are the direct opposites of the three dimensions of burnout.'

One of the first researchers of work engagement was Kahn (1990) who put the basis for the research on engagement, and his views were used across many studies (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; May et al., 2004; Rothbard, 2001; Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005; Schaufeli et al.; 2002). Kahn (1990) claims that employee engagement is positively associated with employees' attitude towards the company they work for. If employees are engaged at work, they tend to work harder than disengaged employees. He refers to the engagement as the bond between employees and their job roles and claims, that '...in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances' (Kahn, 1990, p. 694).

Although Kahn was the first who defined work engagement, the widely accepted and used conceptualization of engagement in the academic is Schaufeli and colleagues' (2002, p. 74), who defined work engagement as a '...positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption'. When employees experience vigor, they feel energetic at work and persistent when dealing with difficulties. Dedicated employees are enthusiastic and strongly involved in their work, and if their absorption is high, it means they are fully concentrated in work (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Engaged employees are characterized as being dedicated to their work, which is ideal for companies who wish to create a productive and efficient organization (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2010a). This is also why engaged employees are perceived to be very beneficial to companies. Work engagement does not mean the same as job satisfaction, although it might seem to be very similar. Work engagement combines the aforementioned three aspects of engagement, and job satisfaction does not (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

There is a debate among researchers whether engagement is a 'state' or a 'trait'. It was proved that engagement varies from person to person (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & de Chermont, 2003); therefore the most advisable way is to describe engagement as a relatively stable state of mind (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Although the Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) definition may not include all possible dimensions of work, it remains the most accepted definition in academic studies. This is why I will rely on this definition in my Master's thesis and I will use a measure of employee work engagement, which is based on this conceptualization in my empirical part.

1.1.2 Antecedents and outcomes of employee work engagement

As with the definition of employee engagement, there is also confusion regarding antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement. As Macey and Schneider (2008) noted, the connections between potential antecedents and outcomes of engagement have not been analyzed in a sufficient way, which results in a poor understanding of work engagement's concepts of interest.

Kahn (1990) suggests that through work that is challenging, varied, creative and autonomous, a psychological meaningfulness can be reached. This is based on Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model, which involves five job characteristics (i.e. skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback). Job characteristics are considered to be one of the main predictors of employee work engagement. In 2007, Hackman and Oldham's model was expanded by adding three groups of factors related to work design - motivational, social, and contextual characteristics (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007).

According to Kahn (1992), jobs which rate highly on these characteristics provide people an opportunity to become more engaged through activating more of their personalities into the work. Similarly, May, Gilson, & Harter (2004) discovered, that job enrichment was positively associated with meaningfulness which mediated the relationship between the job enrichment and engagement. Neither Kahn (1990) nor May et al. (2004) focus in their studies on outcomes, but Kahn (1992) summarizes, that engagement has positive consequences for companies as well as for individuals.

Saks (2006) builds on Kahn's work and arguments and identifies perceived organizational support, job characteristics, supervisor support, rewards and recognition, as the most statistically significant predictors of engagement. Also, he believes that engagement's outcomes are job satisfaction, intentions to quit, and organizational behaviors of employees (Saks, 2006). The model developed by Maslach et al. (2001) supports the idea of engagement acting as a mediator between several work conditions and outcomes.

In line with Kahn's (1990) and Macey's and Schneider's (2008) arguments, leadership and trustworthiness are also possible antecedents of engagement. Leaders who can recognize good performance of their subordinates and gain their trust, positively influence employee's engagement, thus employees spend more energy and time in their work (Christian, Gauza & Slaughter, 2011; Kahn, 1990). These leaders are in research called 'transformational' because they can drive people to be passionate and enthusiastic about their work, which may consequently lead to higher employee engagement (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Based on recent research, dispositional characteristics e.g. ability to control own emotions and thoughts and interact with the environment, are likely to result in higher engagement too (Bandura, 2001; Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2008). Similarly, personality attributes like conscientiousness, extraversion and a proactive personality are also likely to be positively

related to engagement (Furnham, Petrides, Jackson, & Cotter, 2002; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Despite the fact that Halbesleben (2010) and Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli (2009) determine that the overall organizational and team atmosphere has an impact on engagement, the most consistent antecedents of employee engagement remain the job-related elements, such as social support from supervisors and colleagues, skill variety, autonomy, performance feedback and learning opportunities (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

In order to determine the outcomes and implications of employee engagement, majority of studies investigate the connection between employee engagement and job performance. For example, Bakker et al. (2004) conducted research, which showed that engaged employees received higher performance ratings from their coworkers than disengaged employees, which demonstrates that engaged employees are willing to do more and perform better.

Salanova et al. (2005) conducted a study with employees working in Spanish restaurants and hotels investigating whether employee ratings, engagement and service climate have a positive correlation to the ratings received from customers. In fact, the customer loyalty and their ratings towards employee performance were positively related to the organizational resources. Although there have been other researchers (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010), who investigated engagement as a motivational variable resulting in higher job performance, the evidence about this relationship is still not sufficient.

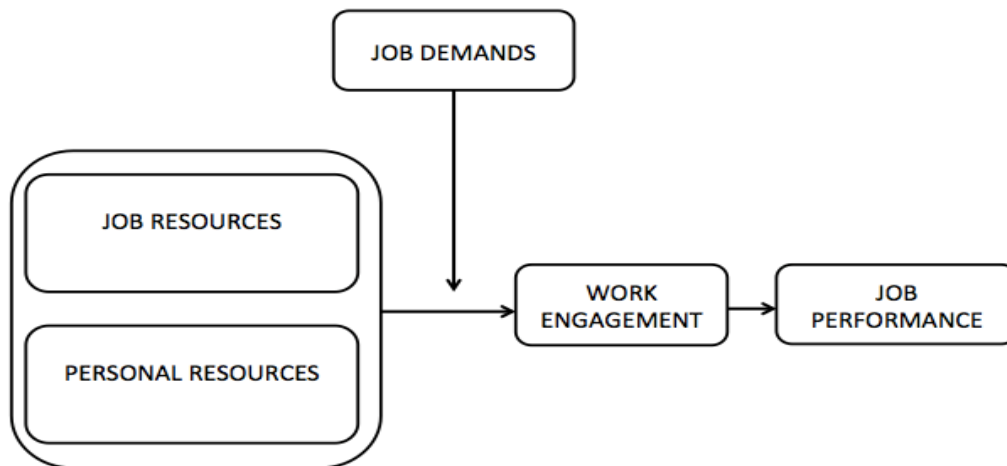
What has been demonstrated across studies is the fact, that engaged employees indeed offer a competitive advantage to the companies. Their ratings in service quality, job performance, effectiveness, and innovative behavior reached much better results than those of their less engaged colleagues (Halbesleben, 2010; Rich et al., 2010; Schwartz & Porath, 2011). This makes the topic of engagement even more interesting to investigate, because all companies across the globe want to retain engaged employees.

1.1.3 Models of employee work engagement

The starting point is that job characteristics, such as demands and resources, have a significant impact on employees' well-being. Karasek (1979) developed one of the most famous models based on the interaction between demands and resources. It focuses directly on interaction between job demands and autonomy. This model has been widely used, however it was criticized for the findings presented with the hypotheses with regards to weak interactions (De Jonge & Kompier, 1997; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001).

Based on Karasek's model a new job-demands-resources (JD-R) model has been developed by Demerouti et al. (2001). This model encloses more dimensions of job demands and resources, and it has become one of the most often used instruments for explaining engagement and the conditions that have influence on it (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model



Source: Adapted from A. Bakker & E. Demerouti, *Towards a model of work engagement*, 2008, p. 218, Figure 1.

The rationale behind this model is to find a balance between the demands and resources employees are exposed to. The combination of high job demands and high job resources are considered as the antecedents of work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Van Veldhoven, & Xanthopoulou, 2010b; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). Job demands, e.g. how an employee manages workload, work conflicts or unexpected situations, attribute to psychological factors.

Bakker and Demerouti (2007) describe job resources as the physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that can diminish job demands and stimulate personal growth and goals. As examples they propose autonomy and social support from colleagues. Additionally, job resources can motivate employees both, intrinsically and extrinsically. Intrinsically through fulfilling fundamental human needs, e.g. autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Van de Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008). Extrinsically through motivating employees to reach work goals, e.g. performance feedback and supervisor's support (Meijman & Mulder, 1998).

The evidence shows that job and personal resources facilitate employee work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker et al.; 2010a). In general, engaged employees have the tendency to be optimistic in life, believe in positive outcomes in their personal life as well as in their job, and they are able to cope better with the challenges they face (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). The JD-R model is the mostly used model for explanation of engagement and its antecedents; however, to extend the research in this topic, I will investigate whether there is a new antecedent of employee work engagement, that is, prosocial motivation.

1.1.4 Measuring employee work engagement

The current trend is to find out how do the employees feel about their work and how much they want to dedicate to the company they work for. This is the main reason why

measuring engagement has become popular and why companies have tried to develop their own measuring tools. In the available studies, there are three main measures based on different theoretical backgrounds, which suggests discrepancies in their construct.

The first measure founded on Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of engagement is the Job Engagement Scale (JES) invented by Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010). Kahn firstly proposed that the measure contains three components - physical, cognitive and affective; later he identified that the psychological states - meaningfulness, safety, and availability, are also important for cultivating employee engagement (Kahn, 1992).

The most often used instrument for assessing engagement is the **Utrecht Work Engagement Scale** invented by Schaufeli et al. (2002). This measure has been developed from Maslach and Leiter's (1997) engagement and burnout theory. Therefore, the basic idea behind this measure is defining engagement as the exact opposite of burnout, through three engagement's components: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Later on, the exploratory factor analysis confirmed these three distinct components, what proved Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) conceptualization, and the 17-item UWES measure has been validated in several countries (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002).

In 2006, Schaufeli and his colleagues, shortened the UWES-17 to a 9-item version of this measure and performed also a cross-national validity, which showed a moderately strong relationship between the dimensions. When comparing the goodness of fit of both, UWES-17 and UWES-9, the difference between them was negligible. Thus, both versions are used and cited in the literature. The main reason for reducing the amount of UWES measure items was pragmatic, since long questionnaires are not popular with people. When the JES and UWES measures were compared, there was a strong correlation between them, which signalizes that they are determining a similar construct.

An alternative tool for determining the work engagement is the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Demerouti & Bakker, 2008). The origin of this measure is in burnout literature, but apart from negatively formulated items, it contains also positively phrased items. Therefore, it is used for measuring engagement as well (González-Romá et al., 2006).

A very similar conception to that of Schaufeli et al. (2002) has been proposed by May et al. (2004) by introducing a three-dimensional concept of engagement. More specifically, they distinguish between a physical, emotional and a cognitive component, which corresponds to UWES dimensions - vigor, dedication, and absorption (May et al., 2004). All in all, by reviewing the employee engagement measures in literature, the UWES measure is considered as a traditional measure for engagement.

1.1.5 Dark sides of employee work engagement

The studies about employee work engagement do not investigate only the positive sides of engagement but also what happens if the employees are too engaged. It does not necessarily mean they are workaholics, although based on the research, engaged

employees are described as hard workers (Gorgievski & Bakker, 2010). The research does not state whether engagement is more beneficial for employers or employees. Employers provide employees with sufficient financial and job resources, and employees become consequently more dedicated to their job, resulting in high-level performance.

However, too much engagement may lead to the work-family conflict because employees can get too dedicated to their work (Halbesleben, 2011) or it can result to more demands (Sonnetag, Binnenwies, & Mojza, 2010). Other negative consequence of too much engagement is the work-home interference which may cause even health problems (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). According to Maslach et al. (2001), determining the engagement levels of too little and too much engagement is important for future studies, because there is not much evidence on the negative sides of employee engagement yet.

1.1.6 Future prospects

Particularly in the recent years, employees are becoming more active at their work. We can observe a process called ‘job crafting’ defined by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), when employees change the content of their jobs and appoint meaning to their job tasks very actively. Thus, through job crafting people can increase their person-job fit hence experience more meaning of their work.

Tausky (1995) conducted research on how job crafting allows employees to change the purpose of their job by modifying the job tasks. Tausky (1995) suggests that the implications for relational job crafting can be powerful, if people perceive their jobs by reviewing what role other people play in their job (Grant, 2007; Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton, & Berg, 2013). Other positive consequences of job crafting that have been found are employee's degree of psychological prosperity (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010), work engagement and job performance (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012).

A similar construct to job crafting is another form of proactive behavior namely ‘idiosyncratic deals’ (I-deals). Rousseau (2005) describes the I-deals as a form of customization when employees, in order to satisfy their personal needs, negotiate special work conditions that are different than those of their coworkers performing similar work. Employees with some customization of their jobs e.g. flexible working hours or special opportunities for skill development, has been identified by previous research as the most frequent form of I-deals (Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau & Kim, 2006).

The I-deals are expected to be beneficial for both, employees and companies (Rousseau, 2001, 2005). By customizing work conditions according to one's personal preferences, companies provide employees with a special favour that may strengthen the employment relationship. The research shows that I-deals are positively related with employee attachment (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). According to Grant and Ashford (2008), employees like to adopt a proactive approach towards their lives, and have influence on it. They suggest that engaged employees create their own resources to stay engaged by proactively shaping their work environment.

In the previous chapter about the predictors of employee engagement, almost all studies have discussed the role of job resources. The fundamental theory in this field is the Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model (JCM), which describes the effects of job characteristics through motivational and psychological dynamics. This model has more similarities with the traditional job design, which does not consider social aspects of the work context (Humphrey et al., 2007). Particularly the social aspects are becoming more examined in the recent literature and studies about the relational job design.

Grant and Parker (2009) focus their attention towards the social context of work, e.g. relationships and interactions between employees that emerge from the jobs and tasks that employees perform. Grant's recent research proves that social interactions and relationships are essential for better work motivation (Grant, 2007) as well as for good coordination at work (Grant & Parker, 2009).

Relational contexts of job design provide a direction to distinct employee behaviors and motivational processes, such as the motivation to make a prosocial difference to other people (Grant, 2007). Thus, by emphasizing the social impact of work, motivation and work engagement can be stimulated. This is an important point for my study, because in the next chapters I will discuss and investigate the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee work engagement.

1.2 Prosocial job characteristics

1.2.1 Relational job design

Early job design models explained the job through the typical task characteristics e.g. autonomy, task identity, variety, and feedback (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980). These models also included relational job characteristics such as opportunities for social interaction (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Trist & Bamforth, 1951; Turner & Lawrence, 1965), as such, however researchers have devoted little attention to these relational aspects.

Research in traditional job design has shown the outcomes from different perspectives. Job design can influence people's physical reactions such as blood pressure and different diseases (Ganster et al., 2001), it can have psychological displays like stress, work motivation, job satisfaction (Parker & Wall, 1998), and behavioral displays in form of higher job performance, turnover, and absenteeism (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

In the 1970s, scholars and researchers had already recognized that the social characteristics of jobs like the relational job structure and interpersonal interactions can vary (Grant & Parker, 2009; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Oldham & Hackman, 2010). They also proved that the social aspect of job influences the experience and behavior employees have in their work. The famous Hackman & Oldham's model (1976) includes only one relational job characteristic, 'task significance'. It was shown that through task significance employees

can increase their work motivation and perceive their work as more important and relevant (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). By cultivating their social relationships with other colleagues and the people impacted by their work, they can increase their work motivation.

However, in the late 1970s and early 1980s the research and theory on work design and work motivation start to exclude the relational and social job characteristics (Grant, 2007; Grant, Campbell, Chen, Cottone, Lapedis, & Lee, 2007; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Morgeson & Campion, 2003; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Due to the current growing number in service jobs, where the teamwork and interaction are necessary (Osterman, 2000; Parker & Wall, 1998), researchers recognize that jobs and tasks are impacted by interpersonal relationships within a team as well as with other colleagues (Howard, 1995; Mohrmann et al., 1995).

Social interactions and their contribution to employee engagement have also been a subject of a recent study conducted by Freeney and Fellenz (2013) who provided evidence that relational resources devote to employee engagement. The traditional job design can be adjusted to the actual needs through providing employees with opportunities for social interaction but keeping the essence of their assigned tasks. Relational job design has been proved to be the main antecedent of prosocial motivation (Grant, 2007, 2008a), which is why I will focus, in my Master's thesis, on the two core relational job characteristics as the moderators of prosocial motivation and employee work engagement.

1.2.2 Prosocial job characteristics and beneficiaries

According to Grant (2007), there are two psychological states that fuel prosocial motivation: 'perceived impact on beneficiaries' and 'affective commitment to beneficiaries'. **Beneficiaries** are the people who can benefit and get positively affected by someone's work. When employees are highly aware of the fact that their work affect others, their perceived impact is also high. This is how Grant (2007) explains this psychological state. By the affective commitment he means that employees care about well-being of their beneficiaries (Grant, 2007). Previous research shows that the relationships between employees and intended beneficiaries (McNeely & Meglino, 1994) as well as with perceived beneficiaries (Maurer, Pierce, & Shore, 2002) influence employees' experiences and behaviors.

The basic principle for both defined psychological states is that for making the motivation activated and sustained, behavioral-outcomes and valuing these outcomes, are both important (Staw, 1977; Vroom, 1964). Through perceived impact employees experience their outcomes being dependent on their behaviors, and through affective commitment they are valuing these outcomes.

Similarly, Grant (2007) suggested two core prosocial job characteristics, which strengthen the aforementioned psychological states and enhance prosocial motivation: **job opportunities for impact on** and **contact with beneficiaries**. Although these motivational

aspects of contact with beneficiaries of employees' work have been considered by job design researchers in the past (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Hackman & Oldham, 1975), not many of them have investigated this topic directly.

In today's world, it is not only about finding a job. The research shows that people search for jobs that provide them also with several social aspects, e.g. helping other people and this world, making a difference, socially contribute to someone, and have opportunity to do good (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998; Grant, 2007; Perry, 2000; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997).

Although this trend is becoming more popular, there is still not much evidence about structuring jobs in order to provide employees with these opportunities. One could think it depends merely on person's character and personality if someone wants to do good or not. Grant's research shows that people who describe themselves as caring and giving, have a stronger prosocial identity which they perceive as one of their most important life principle (Grant, 2007, 2008c).

Other findings signal that situational and as well as contextual factors impact this form of motivation (Batson, 1990; Nelson & Norton, 2005). For strengthening the prosocial motivation, the work context has to be redesigned too. Grant focused his attention to this topic and his results show that the outcomes of prosocial motivation can lead to task commitment, effort, persistence at work and other helping activities (Grant, 2007). Therefore it is important to gain more insight into the role of work context and prosocial motivation.

As reported by Grant (2008a), through job design employees can better understand how the background of their work can provide them to do good. He explains this rationale for different types of jobs because as he says, jobs differ in their prosocial characteristics very much. In some jobs, like nursing and firefighting, employees have the opportunity to do good on a frequent basis and with impact on many people. In contrast, a restaurant cashier usually lacks these opportunities. Apart from Grant's research, there is not much evidence examining prosocial job characteristics, but researchers have identified their existence in the past (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Traditional job design research focuses on job differences from the perspective of having the chance to get feedback and support from others, or experience interaction with other people in a job. Indeed, the research has brought findings that jobs are not designed only with social components enabling the interaction with others, but also with prosocial aspects. These make it possible for employees to benefit others and care about doing good (Grant, 2007). Grant started and introduced topic of prosocial characteristics defining two essential characteristics: 'job opportunities for impact on beneficiaries' and 'job opportunities for contact with beneficiaries'.

Referring to his research (Grant, 2007), employees can experience opportunities to positively impact their beneficiaries through the work and services they offer, thus make a

positive difference. Also, employees can have the opportunity to build a contact with their beneficiaries in form of interaction, receiving feedback or shaping relationships. Initial results of research show that if jobs possess both prosocial characteristics, employees can acknowledge their jobs as being valuable and profitable to others. As a result of this process, they can exhibit greater motivation (Grant et al., 2007; Grant, 2008c) and consequently invest more energy and effort into their work. I will prove this by describing several experiments that have been done in this field later in my thesis.

1.2.3 Job opportunities for impact on beneficiaries

As mentioned in previous paragraphs, having the opportunity to positively impact the lives of beneficiaries is one of the two main prosocial job characteristics. Already in the past, scholars expected strong connection between having these opportunities for impact and employee's perception of this impact (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The data shows that the more frequent employees have opportunities for impact, the higher is their perception of this impact. Adam Grant, who investigated this topic in detail, suggests that employees experience higher levels of prosocial motivation when jobs are designed to connect employees to the impact they have on their beneficiaries (Grant, 2007). This is an important basis for my thesis and research, which I will present in the following chapters.

In the literature, job opportunities for impact on beneficiaries are often mentioned with 'perceived prosocial impact', which describes the intensity of employees' perception that their actions improve the well-being of other people (Grant, 2008a). It was introduced to capture the perception of helping others. It is not only a state of awareness; it is also an experience through which employees digest their work as meaningful and connected to the well-being of others.

Perceived prosocial impact can protect employees against emotional exhaustion by directing their focus and thoughts to positive outcomes for others. It is often connected to the feelings of joy and happiness people experience, and better job performance (Batson, 1990; Dunn, Aknin, & Norton, 2008). The research shows that volunteering and giving reduces negative feelings (Schaller & Cialdini, 1988; Smith, Keating, & Stotland, 1989) and strengthens well-being of people (Greenfield & Marks, 2004; Musick & Wilson, 2003; Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005).

Prosocial impact is significantly important in the service sector, where making a positive difference in someone's life is perceived as a main purpose of employees' work (Colby, Sippola, & Phelps, 2001; Perry, 1996). Unfortunately, there are only a few service jobs that provide employees with experiencing the prosocial impact of their work. This might be one reason for the low employee motivation, which managers often face in public service work. Thus, providing more job opportunities for impact on beneficiaries by strengthening perceived impact on them might be a reasonable solution for increasing employees' prosocial motivation.

Talking about business and managing people, important to mention are the so-called ‘transformational leaders’. By that we understand leaders, who direct the attention of their followers to the positive contribution to other people by explaining how their actions may lead to benefit others (Grant, 2007; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). They motivate and lead their subordinates not only to look on their self-interests but work for the sake of the team and the company (Shamir, House, & Arthus, 1993).

Another aspect, which is often connected to the opportunities for impact on beneficiaries, is the ‘task significance’. If a job is task significant, it means it provides opportunities to employees to contribute to the welfare of others by connecting their actions to the impact they can have (Grant, 2007; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). This aspect seems to be nowadays very important for employers to consider, since people care more about doing work beneficial for others, and they expect to have these opportunities provided by their job (Brickson, 2005; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003).

Research in relational job design shows that employees’ basic motives at work are those related to other people (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000). As described before, task significance provides employees with influencing the well-being of others making notable that someone depends on their actions and work (Grant, 2007). Thus, the research suggests the connection between task significance and its stimulation of perceived prosocial impact (Grant & Campbell, 2007).

Similarly, when employees have a frequent impact on the lives of other people, they may also receive a positive feedback more often. This leads to their higher perception of prosocial impact, which consequently results in more effort, energy and time they are likely to invest in their work. Evidence shows that employees responsible for a meaningful task are more aware of its prosocial impact when provided with contact with their beneficiaries (Grant & Campbell, 2007).

1.2.4 Job opportunities for contact with beneficiaries

Another prosocial job characteristic that enhances prosocial motivation at work defines Grant (2007, p. 398) as the ‘contact with beneficiaries’, which is ‘the degree to which a job is relationally structured to provide opportunities for employees to interact and communicate with the people affected by their work’. It might seem, that this characteristic is the same as task significance; however, studies show that they are empirically distinct (Grant, 2008c) and both have an impact on people's perceptions and actions (Grant & Campbell, 2007). The level of contact with beneficiaries can differ from interacting with them on a daily basis, sometimes or never (Gutek, Bhappu, Liao-Troth, & Cherry, 1999).

The real examples of jobs where employees do not have a chance to meet or interact with the final recipients of their work are automotive engineers or textbook editors. Grant (2008b) suggests, if these people would get an opportunity for contact with their beneficiaries, they would be more aware of the significance of their work and consequently increase their inner motivation to positively impact them.

A good example of a company, where jobs are structured in a way to provide employees to have a contact with their beneficiaries, is Medtronic. It is a medical technology company offering innovative therapies to their patients (Medtronic, 2014), where employees meet patients who have used their products and experienced a positive impact of them. Managers claim, this increases employees' motivation through understanding how their work makes a positive difference in someone else's life (George, 2003). Another example is a police officer, who complains about losing the contact with people although the purpose of his work is to serve them. He realizes that his work has a positive impact on citizens, but he would appreciate to have a contact with these people (Terkel, 1972).

The research confirms that people search also for purposeful relationships not only for purposeful tasks at work (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Kahn, 1998; Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003). Through contact with their beneficiaries they are able to see the positive implications of their actions, and what effects might have their work when performing effectively (Grant et al., 2007). This contact provides employees also with identification and higher empathy with beneficiaries, thus building 'affective commitment'.

This commitment involves feelings of intrinsic motivation and self-determination and it has been shown that it has positive effects e.g. lower turnover, stress, better job performance (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). Based on the past research, affective commitment is perceived by employees as an emotional attachment, which makes the desire to improve people's lives even stronger (Meyer et al., 2004; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Having a contact with beneficiaries and building a relationship with them, makes the experience of a positive impact on others more personalized.

Found in former studies, there are several factors that influence this affective commitment towards the beneficiaries. First, the more frequent the contact with them, the stronger the affective commitment (Lawler & Yoon, 1998). Second, the longer the period of contact, the higher the commitment (Guttek et al., 1999). Third, the physical contact strengthens identification with the beneficiaries (Bornstein, 1989; Festinger, Schachter, & Back, 1950).

Evidence also shows that employees value the outcome when they personally care about the beneficiaries more, because they identify easier with them (Cialdini, Brown, Lewis, Luce, & Neuberg, 1997). Grant (2007) proves that through having exposure with beneficiaries, the prosocial impact gets greater and employees can see their meaningful contributions to other people. This is why Grant (2007) hypothesized that affective commitment is positively connected to perceived prosocial impact, which cultivates the prosocial motivation.

Additionally, in job design research we find evidence for this hypothesis. It gives an example of production team members who can interact with their clients, who buy and use their products. This enables them to perceive directly the impact of their work, get feedback and make their task strategies better, thus increase their work motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Hackman, 1990).

In the next section, I will describe the fundamental experiments conducted by Adam Grant and his colleagues that have examined prosocial job characteristics and their impact on prosocial motivation. Based on these experiments, I will show the interaction between the opportunity for impact and contact on beneficiaries, and in which way they can fuel prosocial motivation.

1.3 Prosocial motivation

1.3.1 Origin and definition

Leading from the previous chapters it has been shown how important is nowadays cultivating work motivation. ‘Motivation’ as an energizer which directs and sustains actions, has been a subject of many researches (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999; Donovan, 2001; Mitchell & Daniels, 2003; Pittman, 1998; Staw, 1977). Dowling and Sayles (1978) claim that employees who have an inner aspiration to make an effort, feel motivated at work.

In the past thirty years, the research has focused on redesigning the work as a way of motivating employees, however this method can be time-consuming and often limited by the requirements of external parties (Griffin, 1983, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980). Employees can experience the motivation to make a ‘prosocial difference’, a psychological state in which their attention is directed towards a positive impact on others (Chaplin, John, & Goldberg, 1988), when they focus on the thoughts, feelings, and preferences of other people in order to make their life better (Staub, 1984).

In the literature, this form of motivation to make a prosocial difference is also named a **prosocial motivation**. The roots of prosocial motivation can be traced back to the 1980s, when Batson (1987) described it as eagerness to benefit others through expending efforts. Grant (2007) built upon this definition saying that this form of motivation has a temporary focus on promoting the well-being of others, mostly supported by contact with those who need help. The research shows that prosocial motivation has inclinations towards several personality traits like agreeableness (Graziano, Habashi, Sheese, & Tobin, 2007), empathy and helpfulness (Penner et al., 2005), and concern for others (De Dreu, 2006; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004; Perry & Hondgehem, 2008).

Prosocial motivation is a current topic, since the relevance of relationships at work is becoming increasingly more recognized. Especially in the service sector jobs, which have an increasing pattern of job growth, these relationships are crucial (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). This is why managers are realizing that the relationships are important not only towards clients and customers (Cascio, 1995), but also within the teams in their company (Osterman, 2000).

Prosocial means beneficial and helpful to all parties (Oxford English Dictionary, 2014) and motivation is a desire to act. Thus, prosocial motivation can be translated as a desire to act in a beneficial way to all parties. The main questions of research on prosocial motivation focus on how the concern for benefiting other people impacts the inner

thoughts, feelings and actions of employees. Also, they try to investigate more the other perspectives than self-interest that lead to this motivation, and what activates this form of motivation (Kahn, 1990; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004; Shamir, 1991).

The actions of employees (prosocial individuals) that try to promote the well-being of other people are in the research called 'prosocial behavior'. As Alessandri, Caprara, Eisenberg and Steca (2009) explain, prosocial behavior influences the perceptions of people about their own prosocial tendencies. Interestingly, the word 'prosocial' has been created by scientists as an opposite for 'antisocial'.

1.3.2 Antecedents and outcomes of prosocial motivation

Summarizing previous paragraphs, prosocial motivation is not the same than altruism and it is not dependent on self-interest forms of motivation. Main antecedents, that have been proved by past research encompass relational job design, norms and rewards from the collectivistic perspective, and individual characteristics namely agreeableness, conscientiousness and other-oriented values. It has been proved that people who score highly on the personality trait of agreeableness and those who have high score also on prosocial personality measures are more likely to behave prosocially across different situations (Graziano et al., 2007).

Investigation reveals that prosocial motivation leads to higher performance, persistence and productivity when it is intrinsic rather than extrinsic. The proved hypotheses confirm the connection between intrinsic motivation and creativity, self-evaluations and job performance, and also the connection of prosocial motivation with organizational citizenship behaviors (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). This implies some relationship between prosocial motivation and work employee engagement, which involves mix of constructs about organizational citizenship behavior too.

I will repeat the view of Macey and Schneider (2008) which states, that employee engagement is composed by both, attitudinal and behavioral components and it has not only organizational purpose, but it is characterized by feelings of passion, energy, enthusiasm and commitment. From this definition it can be derived that prosocial motivation and employee work engagement comprise some similar constructs, which suggests the relationship between them.

1.3.3 Prosocial motivation and prosocial job characteristics

The foremost field experiment conducted by Adam Grant et al. (2007) with fundraising callers is presented across all studies on prosocial motivation and the importance of contact with and impact on beneficiaries. In this experiment he applied the main findings about the impact of contact with beneficiaries through which employees develop affective commitment towards these beneficiaries. As a result, employees experience prosocial motivation (Grant et al., 2007).

The fundraiser experiment took part at a call center of University of North Carolina among 60 fundraisers, 78.6% female with a tenure of 5.25 months on average. Their job was to contact Alumni of their university by phone and persuade them to make a financial contribution to the university. The money was then given to underprivileged students who could not afford to pay for their university studies. Grant, with his colleagues, studied the university callers for a period of three months. Each fundraiser worked approximately four shifts per week for 4h on average.

These callers, who had a tough job to persuade people to donate money, faced typical problems with service jobs: monotonous work, low autonomy, and impolite customers. The main issue for managers was a high turnover rate (100% every two months) and demotivation of employees (Grant, 2012). The first attempt to increase the motivation of employees and decrease the fluctuation was to bring in an inspiring leader who would explain how important their work is. Surprisingly, this did not work and the result was, that the fluctuation got even worse.

When the message about why their work was important was given from a leader, not a beneficiary, it did not increase employee sales or revenue (Grant, 2012). However, other experiments conducted later showed that if the fundraisers read letters which contained information about how the work of former fundraisers was beneficial to underprivileged students, and they could emotionally identify with it, it increased their perceived impact and motivated them to higher job performance (Grant, 2008c).

During the experiment, Grant and his colleagues (2007) found out, that even though a great amount of the donated money is used for funding scholarships, the callers did not have the opportunity to meet their beneficiaries and see the impact of their work. They had no idea where the money ended up and who the final recipient was. Although these fundraising callers were doing a job with high impact on beneficiaries, they did not get any opportunity to have contact with them.

Researchers decided to provide these employees with contact with a beneficiary in two ways. Firstly, they asked one student who received a scholarship to write a simple letter and explain how this scholarship made a change in his life. After reading this letter by employees, the results were significant; they spent 142% more time on the phone generating 171% more revenue (Grant et al., 2007). The second method was to bring the beneficiary to talk face-to-face for 5 minutes to the fundraising callers. Grant and Hofmann (2011) refer to this type of message an 'ideological message', as they are used to change employees' behavior and attitude through acknowledging that their work has a purpose.

By providing employees with a brief contact with one beneficiary, their perception about positive impact of their work strengthened, and it also lead to higher affective commitment to the beneficiaries (Grant et al., 2007). The revenue was increased by 400% in one month and the improvement could be seen for another six months. Grant and his colleagues were so positively surprised by these results, that they replicated this experiment with different groups and found similar positive results.

Grant and Hofmann (2011) investigated the performance effects of ideological messages delivered by leaders and beneficiaries, and came to the conclusion that they are more effective when delivered by beneficiaries. This discovery suggests, that the opportunity to interact with beneficiaries leads to increased performance and persistence at work. It illustrates the importance of prosocial job characteristics for companies, and their role in influencing important behavioral outcomes.

Another experiment, which provided support on the positive effects of contact with beneficiaries was conducted by Turner, Hadas-Halperin, & Raveh (2008) in the context of radiologists. Radiologists have usually no chance to see whose scans they are evaluating. Thus, in the experiment, they provided radiologists with photographs of patients whose scans they were checking and through seeing this photograph, the patients stopped being anonymous people for radiologists. It resulted in a significant improvement in terms of their accuracy and speed of diagnosis, and also in more empathy for patients (Turner et al., 2008). However, as soon as they cancelled this innovation and took the photography on a patient away, the results were the same as before the experiment.

Grant's another field experiment (2008c) with pool lifeguards showed that reading stories about their potential to save someone's life results in higher carefulness towards the pool swimmers, and more working hours they were willing to spend at work. It increased their perceptions of social worth, which resulted in increased amount of time engaging in helping other people.

All these experiments show that end users, who can be clients, customers, patients and others who benefit from company's services or products, are a very strong motivator for people to work more effectively. Grant's (2007) suggestions about the relationship between perceived impact and affective commitment towards the higher level of prosocial motivation, are important findings for my research. When employees know that their actions and work can make a difference in someone's life, they are likely to be more prosocially motivated (Vroom, 1964).

All these results presented in this chapter provide sufficient support for Grant's theoretical framework suggesting that jobs can be prosocially arranged to motivate employees to make good and care about doing work beneficial to others.

1.4 Conceptual model and hypotheses

With this theoretical background presented in the previous chapter, the motivation behind the present study is to empirically examine the relationship between the employee work engagement and prosocial motivation. More specifically, in the following section I develop a conceptual model and hypotheses, which are illustrated in Figure 3. I will start with hypotheses about the possible antecedent of employee work engagement, thus prosocial motivation. Later, I will continue with hypotheses about the moderating effect of the prosocial job characteristics on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee work engagement.

Prosocial motivation is still perceived as an unexplored concept. The studies that have been done in this regard usually focus on its connection towards the higher performance and persistence at work, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, altruism and perspective taking (De Dreu, 2006; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Grant, 2007, 2008b; Grant & Sumanth, 2009; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Kahn, 1990; Ryan & Deci, 2001).

By reviewing literature and past research, I claim that there is no available empirical evidence that shows or proves the role of prosocial motivation for employee work engagement. However, based on the definition of motivation by Dowling and Sayles (1978, p. 16) as ‘an inner desire to make an effort’, and several studies that show that employees who feel engaged in their jobs, are personally identified with their job, and get motivated by the work itself (Halbesleben, 2010; Rich et al, 2010; Schwartz & Porath, 2011). This may imply some positive relationship between the prosocial motivation and employee work engagement.

Similarly, building on Christian et al.’s (2011) and Kahn’s (1990) definition of employee engagement as a motivational concept, some connection towards the prosocial motivation is expected. De Dreu and Nauta (2009) showed with their research, that prosocial motivation is linked to organizational citizenship behaviors, which may suggest the association to the work engagement, since it involves some constructs of organizational citizenship behavior too (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Based on these connections I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Prosocial motivation is positively related to work engagement meaning; there is a positive relationship between prosocial motivation and employee work engagement such that employees exhibit greater engagement when their prosocial motivation is at high level than at low level.

Hypothesis 1a: Prosocial motivation is positively related to employee work engagement.

Hypothesis 1b: Prosocial motivation is not positively related to employee work engagement.

In the second part of this research, the question about the moderating effect of the prosocial job characteristics, job impact on and contact with beneficiaries, on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement will be investigated. Adam Grant, as a main researcher of this topic, made several propositions; experimental research has shown that beneficiary contact (Bellé 2013; Grant 2007; Grant 2008a; Grant et al. 2007), may contribute to the feeling of employees making a positive change in people’s lives.

Relational job design studies provide evidence that giving employees the chance to meet their beneficiaries can significantly enhance their motivation by cultivating their perception of themselves as making a positive change and difference in people’s lives (Bellé 2013; Grant 2008a; Grant et al., 2007). Most of Grant’s experiments illustrate how jobs can be designed in a way to bring opportunities for impact on and contact with

beneficiaries, which enables employees to realize that their job allows them to do something beneficial to others, and results in a stronger motivation at work. The fundamental experiment in this topic is the aforementioned fundraising callers experiment (Grant et al., 2007).

Grant also contends that social and relational factors are important for motivation and those may facilitate work engagement by emphasizing the social impact of work. Similarly, Watson (2000) claims that relational social factors should contribute to employee engagement. This implies the connection between the prosocial job characteristics and motivation at work, as well as facilitation of employee work engagement. Grant introduced three psychological states that employees may experience by performing a job, which provide opportunities for impact on, and contact with, beneficiaries. These have been described in the previous chapters: perceived impact on beneficiaries, affective commitment to them and prosocial motivation.

In the expectancy and planned behavior theories (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Vroom, 1964), the evidence about the distinction between desires and attitudes can be found. A good example is Perugini and Bagozzi's research (2001) which discovers that affective commitment and perceived impact are independently contributing to desires, such as prosocial motivation. This suggests, that two prosocial job characteristics investigated in this thesis may affect the connection between prosocial motivation and employee engagement.

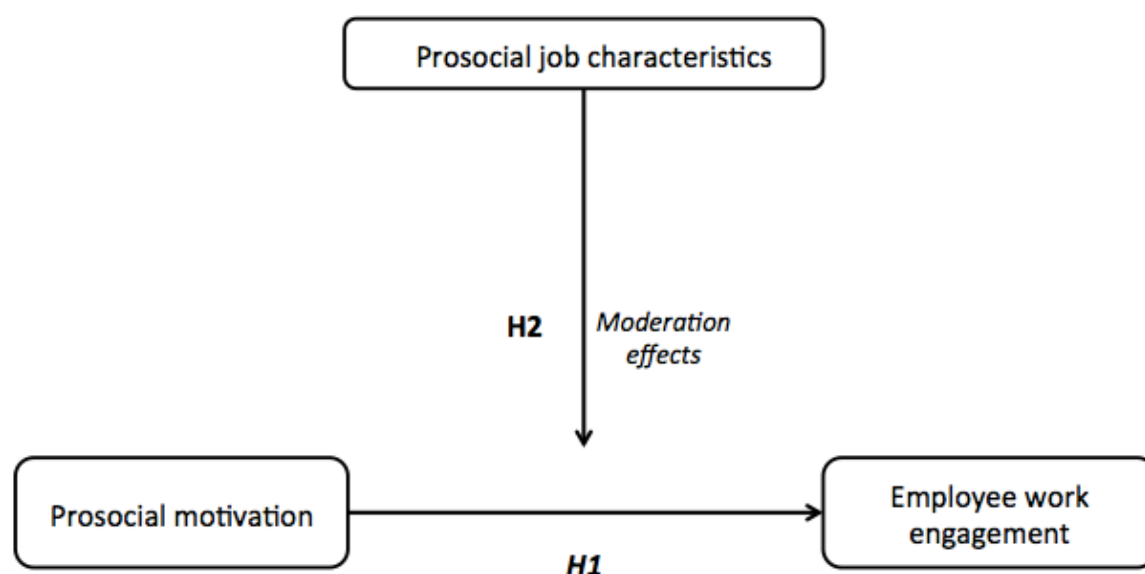
Grant (2007) predicted and proved with his research, that the perceived impact and affective commitment are stronger when employees are provided with greater opportunities for impact on beneficiaries and contact with them. He demonstrated that the psychological states are also connected with higher levels of prosocial motivation. In my research I will investigate whether job opportunities for impact on, and contact with beneficiaries, have a moderating effect on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement, thus I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Prosocial job characteristics act as moderators in a relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement.

Hypothesis 2a: Job opportunities for impact on beneficiaries enhance the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement.

Hypothesis 2b: Job opportunities for contact with beneficiaries enhance the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement.

Figure 3. Hypothesized research model



2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Based on the previous parts of this thesis, a deductive reasoning is used as a scientific research method in order to test identified hypotheses and come to the logical conclusion. The main objective of this research is to determine whether prosocial motivation, as a recent concept in research, is related to employee engagement and if so, in which way. Secondly, this study aims to show whether prosocial job characteristics – job contact and job impact on beneficiaries - can be perceived as moderators on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee work engagement.

2.1 Data collection and sample characteristics

The sampling method used was a non-probabilistic, specifically convenience-based sample (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). This means that the population may not be accurately represented, since the convenience sample was based on conditions of favorable availability. This method was chosen because the survey was only available in English since the measures I used were established and confirmed by previous studies in this language. The translation would cause unnecessary biases as the study respondents have sufficient level of English to understand.

Also, the research was not focused on a specific industry/company sector so I was not limited in this regard. The questionnaire was addressed to everyone who is currently employed or has been already performing a job in a company. Through this method, snowball sampling may occur due to social circle within approached participants, which might result in higher number of respondents.

Within the framework of this study, only primary data were collected from the population. Based on the literature review I could conclude that no empirical evidence exists testing the relationship between employee work engagement and prosocial motivation. That is

why I have decided to get the data through a web-based survey published on lka portal. The survey consisted of four main blocks of questions and concluded with five demographic questions. At the very beginning of the questionnaire there was a short introduction where I explained the purpose of the survey and why it is important for companies as well as individuals to know the result. I also offered the possibility to send the participant feedback at the end of my research. The estimated duration of the survey was 7 minutes 44 seconds.

The questionnaire was distributed in January 2014 for a period of 6 weeks. Respondents were informed that participation is voluntary and anonymity was ensured. I used two main methods for distributing the survey. Firstly, I used a Facebook page as a platform to engage in a greater sample through social networking, secondly as a source of contact to my friends and relatives. This demonstrated to be a useful method, since the response rate from these respondents was relatively high. Respondents were then also requested to further distribute the survey in their networks.

Secondly, I approached 11 international companies present in Slovakia, Czech Republic, Slovenia and Ireland. When contacting companies, I either contacted directly HR Department or someone from my social network working in the particular company. The aim was to get responses from as diverse departments and companies as possible to reach various audiences. The companies were e.g. FMCG company, Telecommunication company, Non-governmental organization, Pharmaceutical company and Financial services company. Also, the number of employees working in these companies differed; from big firms employing more than 500 people to the small and mid-sized companies employing 10 people.

Unfortunately, this sampling method does not provide me with the exact number of people reached, because I do not have the information about how many people received the survey in the end. All in all, 224 eligible responses were collected. However, after removing responses with missing values, 149 responses were used for the data analysis. The overall response rate was 35%.

2.2 Measures

The research focused on three main aspects – prosocial job characteristics, prosocial motivation and employee work engagement. The measurement tool used to gather information was a combination of the aforementioned UWES-9 measure for employee engagement, a five item measure for prosocial motivation, the measures developed by Grant (2007) for both prosocial job characteristics and several demographic questions. The questionnaire was comprised of mostly Likert-scale questions (1-7) and was distributed through lka.si website via email and Facebook. Because I wanted to avoid biases caused by the translation from English to Slovak language, I have decided to keep all statements in original version.

2.2.1 Employee work engagement

To measure employee engagement, the validated and widely used UWES measure developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002) has been used. The original scale contains 17 statements; however for the purpose of making the survey as short and convenient as possible, the shortened UWES version with nine statements was applied. The measure is composed of three dimensions – vigor, dedication and absorption.

Each dimension is described by three questions. Engagement scores are calculated by taking the mean of respondents’ scores per dimension and higher scores in any of the three dimensions indicate engaged employee. Participants rated their levels of employee engagement on a 7-point Likert scale from 0=Never, 1=almost never, 2=rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=very often to 6=always. All nine statements are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. UWES-9 engagement measure

Construct	Dimension	Item
Employee engagement	Vigor	At my work, I feel bursting with energy (=energized).
		At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (=active, dynamic).
		I am enthusiastic about my job.
	Dedication	My job inspires me.
		When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
		I feel happy when I am working intensely.
	Absorption	I am proud of the work that I do.
		I am immersed (=fully occupied) in my work.
		I get carried away (=overly enthusiastic) when I am working.

Source: Adapted from W. Schaufeli, A. Bakker, & M. Salanova, *The Measurement of Work Engagement With a Short Questionnaire, A Cross-National Study*, 2006, p. 714.

2.2.2 Prosocial motivation

Prosocial motivation was estimated with a five-item scale adapted by Grant and Sumanth (2009), as illustrated in Table 2. These measures have not been divided into any dimensions, they are perceived as statements that measure prosocial motivation concept. The respondents were asked to decide on the Likert-scale from 1=disagree strongly, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=undecided, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree and 7=agree strongly.

2.2.3 Prosocial job characteristics

To measure prosocial job characteristics, validated and tested measure tools have been applied. Job impact on beneficiaries consisting of magnitude, frequency and scope dimension, each of them comprising three statements. Job contact with beneficiaries with frequency, breadth and depth dimension similarly consisting of three statements per each dimension (Grant, 2007, 2008a). By both blocks of 18 statements (see Table 3) all together, the participants should decide on the Likert-scale from 1=disagree strongly, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=undecided, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree to 7=agree strongly.

Table 2. Prosocial motivation measure

Construct	Item
Prosocial motivation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I get energized working on tasks that have the potential to benefit others. 2. It is important to me to have the opportunity to use my abilities to benefit others. 3. I prefer to work on tasks that allow me to have a positive impact on others. 4. I do my best when I'm working on a task that contributes to the well-being of others. 5. I like to work on tasks that have the potential to benefit others.

Source: Adapted from A. Grant & J. Sumanth, *Mission Possible? The Performance of Prosocially Motivated Employees Depends on Manager Trustworthiness*, 2009, p. 932, Table 2.

2.2.4 Demographics

This section was used to determine the general identity of the population participated in the research. Demographic questions for the sample started with gender and age. Additionally, years of work experience, field of work, and position that best describes respondents role in the company were assessed as single-item measures (i.e. 'which position best describes your role in the company'). These all were used as control variables since they might influence the key study variables. All demographic questions are listed in Appendix B1.

Table 3. Prosocial job characteristics measure

Construct	Dimension	Item	
Job opportunities for impact on beneficiaries	Magnitude	My job gives me the chance to make a significant positive difference in others' lives. My job provides opportunities to substantially improve the welfare of others. My job has the potential to make others' lives much better.	
	Frequency	My job provides opportunities to have positive impact on others on a regular basis. My job allows me to have positive impact on others almost every day. My job frequently improves the lives of others.	
	Scope	A lot of people can be positively affected by how well my job gets done. My job provides opportunities to have a positive impact on a large number of other people. Quite a few people benefit from my job.	
	Job opportunities for contact with beneficiaries	Frequency	My job allows frequent communication with the people who benefit from my work. My job often gives me the opportunity to meet the people who benefit from my work. My job enables me to interact regularly with the people who benefit from my work.
		Breadth	My job provides me with contact with different groups of people who benefit from my work. My job allows me to interact with a variety of people who benefit from my work. My job enables me to meet diverse groups of people who benefit from my work.
		Depth	My job enables me to build close relationships with the people affected by my work.
My job allows me to form emotional connections with the people who benefit from my work. My job gives me the chance to have meaningful communications with the people who benefit from my work.			

Source: A. Grant, *Designing jobs to do good: Dimensions and psychological consequences of prosocial job characteristics*, 2008a, p. 25, Table 1.

2.3 Empirical data analysis

In order to achieve the internal and external validity of the questionnaire, statistical analysis methods were used through SPSS. Continuing with exploratory factor analysis to uncover the structure of a set of variables used for this research, and following the combined exploratory-confirmatory approach (Koufteros, 1999), the confirmatory factor analysis model provided more explanation and understanding of the covariation among a set of indicators. In the end, a regression analysis was performed to reveal the relationships between the constructs of this thesis.

For proving hypothesis one regarding the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement, a linear multiple regression was performed. Hypothesis two was proven using the moderated regression analysis (Aiken & West, 1991), whereas in the hypothesis 2a job impact on beneficiaries was applied, and in hypothesis 2b job contact with beneficiaries was inserted, and investigated their moderating effect on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement. This method is a most frequently used method for determining the moderating effect of one variable on another.

2.3.1 Reliability and validity analysis

The main objective of testing the reliability is to determine whether data collected can be perceived as trustworthy or not. Reliability refers to the degree to which a set of variables (in this case statements) is consistent in what it is predetermined to assess (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). From statistical point of view, the most common tool to do this is to measure internal consistency.

The aim of proving the internal consistency is the fact that the statements used in the research should all measure the same thing (in this case dimension). Thus, there should be a strong correlation between the statements and dimensions. Two diagnostic measures should be applied to classify internal consistency; Inter-item correlation (> 0.30), which measures the correlation among items, and Cronbach's alpha (> 0.70), which is used to examine the consistency of the entire scale. For the purpose of this research, the reliability among all constructs of employee work engagement, prosocial job characteristics and prosocial motivation has been assessed.

To determine the factorability of the statements, Bartlett's test was used. Results revealed that our study variables are indeed grouped into certain dimensions (Chi-Square=3731.824, $df=465$ and $p < 0.001$). With a KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value of 0.881, well above the acceptable level of 0.5 (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999), indicating a high common variance and therefore factor analysis is appropriate for this data.

2.3.2 Factor analyses

For the purpose of examining the internal reliability of the measurement instruments, a confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis were used (Koufteros, 1999). First, exploratory factor analysis has been performed, which is used to discover underlying

structure in a given set of data, but does not test the unidimensionality (Segars & Grover, 1993). Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to discover the factor structure of the collected data (the dimensions of employee engagement, prosocial motivation and prosocial job characteristics). The goal was to determine, whether these factors align with dimensions used in our study, and if not find out, which factors represent our study variables.

In addition, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 21 was used. The convergent validity of measures was achieved by exploring the loading paths of all items, which should be statistically significant and exceed 0.50 (Hair et al., 1998; Prajogo & McDermott, 2005). Together with convergent validity, similarly important is the discriminant validity. The aim of it is to determine the distinction between constructs (Prajogo & McDermott, 2005). The most common method this can be addressed is a correlation matrix, whereby the variables that should not be related should result in a low correlation coefficient, and those that we expect to be related should result in a high correlation coefficient.

2.3.3 Hypothesis testing

By testing the first hypothesis, a linear multiple regression analysis will be applied, which will show whether prosocial motivation and employee engagement are related or not. The second hypothesis of this thesis relates to the moderation effects of prosocial job characteristics on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement. The testing method, which will be used is the moderated regression analysis discovered and applied firstly by Aiken and West (1991). This will confirm or reject the assumption that the prosocial job characteristics enhance the aforementioned relationship.

2.3.4 Regression analysis

A regression analysis method is used to determine the relationship between a dependent (in this case employee engagement) and the independent variable (in this case prosocial motivation). This analysis will estimate the coefficients of this predictive linear equation involving one independent variable. To determine, whether there is any other significant relationship between our constructs, all key variables will be used in regression analysis, and also the control variables will be inserted. All variables must pass the tolerance criteria at a tolerance level of 0.0001.

Regression coefficient B, SE of B, t value and significance level of t, and standardized coefficient of beta, are the values showed by estimates. Confidence interval shows 95% confidence intervals for each regression coefficient. Goodness-of-fit is assessed by multiple R, R^2 , and adjusted R^2 as well as SEE and ANOVA table. If the R^2 squared change (R^2 statistics) that is generated by adding or removing an independent variable is large, it can be inferred that it is a good predictor of the dependent variable.

3 RESULTS

3.1 Population and participants

The population of this research is primarily the working force in Slovakia, but companies approached are present also in Czech Republic, Ireland and Slovenia. After deleting all missing values from 224 eligible responses, the final number of respondents was 149, with 63% representing female and 37% male. Comparing the official workforce data with our results, in all four countries, the male workforce rates are bigger than female rates. For comparison, the employment rate in Slovakia is 59,9% (Eurostat, 2014). From that, male workforce is 39,8% and female 26,6%, therefore our sample is not representative in this regard.

Table 4. Demographic variables

Total Sample (N=149)					
Measure	N	%	Measure	N	%
Gender			Role in the company		
Male	55	37	Executive Management	10	7
Female	94	63	Head of department	9	6
			Team Leader	14	9
			No formal leadership		
Age			role	76	51
21 - 40 years	144	97	Other	40	27
41 - 60 years	5	3			
			Years of work		
Field of work			experience		
Service sector	11	7	< 1 year	16	11
Marketing/PR/Sales	26	17	1 - 2 years	28	22
HR	31	21	2 - 5 years	64	39
Purchasing/Controlling	3	2	> 5 years	41	28
Finance/Accounting/					
Banking	14	9			
Administrative/Data	7	5			
IT	7	5			
Management	7	5			
Law	13	9			
Art	13	9			
Other	17	11			

Ninety-seven percent of all participants were between 21-40 years old, and only 3% were in the age group of 41-60 years old. Based on these results it can be said that our sample is biased towards younger employees and women, which could be expected based on the age group of participants from our social circles. With regards to job tenure, 39% of the participants had been working for 2-5 years, 28% had worked more than 5 years, 22% had 1-2 years of working experience and only 11% had less than one year of work experience.

Eleven percent is the closest result, compared to the official workforce statistics in Slovakia, where 8.3% of people have less than one year of work experience (OECD, 2014). However, this cannot be taken as a significant result, since our sample consists of four different countries.

When indicating the industry they had worked in, Table 4 illustrates that 21% of participants chose HR, 17% Marketing, PR and Sales and the third most frequent selection was 'Other' with 11%. Majority (51%) of respondents do not have any formal leadership role at their current position, 9% are team leaders, 6% are head of departments and 7% of participants are working in executive management position. The rest (27%) chose the option 'other'. In general, the sample may be described as a group of females between 21-40 years of age, working in Marketing, PR, Sales, HR and Other (everything what has not been included in the survey's options), with 2-5 years of working experience and without any formal leadership role.

3.2 Preliminary analyses

Table 5 displays means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha coefficients and bivariate correlations of all study variables. In summary, internal alpha (α) coefficients for assessing internal consistencies, were computed for the three engagement scales, three job impact scales, three job contact scales and five prosocial motivation statements. Internal α coefficients for employee engagement were: vigor $\alpha = 0.84$, dedication $\alpha = 0.86$, and the only dimension that did not meet the criterion of 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), was absorption $\alpha = 0.55$. The α score demonstrates that the engagement measure is reliable ($\alpha = 0.85$) and that the subscales are measuring similar employee engagement phenomena. SPSS data analysis indicated that the dedication scale was the most reliable measure.

Job impact dimensions showed similar results with magnitude $\alpha=0.89$, frequency $\alpha=0.87$ and scope $\alpha=0.53$, which did not pass the acceptance level. The overall α for the measure was 0.90. Nonetheless, each job contact subscale resulted in a highly reliable alpha coefficient. With frequency $\alpha=0.89$, breadth $\alpha=0.94$ and depth $\alpha=0.91$, this scale is the most reliable among all used measures. The α for the measure was 0.94. Prosocial motivation statements resulted in $\alpha=0.91$, so it demonstrates that the items are measuring the same concept.

3.2.1 Descriptive statistics

Means and standard deviations of all dimensions of all study variables are presented in Table 5. Among the employee engagement dimensions, dedication (M=5.04) and absorption (M=5.03) had the highest means, although vigor's mean differed very slightly (M=4.64). Based on the measurement's scale, these results show that the respondents felt inspired and enthusiastic at their work (dedication), they felt totally immersed in their work (absorption), and additionally they felt high levels of energy (vigor) while working. In general, the means of employee engagement demonstrate that the sample felt often to very often engaged in their work.

Table 5. Means, standard deviations, correlations and Cronbach's alpha coefficients (on the diagonal) of the study variables

Index	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Engagement vigor	4.64	1.08	(0.84)									
Engagement dedication	5.04	1.19	0.75**	(0.86)								
Engagement absorption	5.03	0.89	0.65**	0.61**	(0.55)							
Impact magnitude	4.79	1.39	0.46**	0.53**	0.35**	(0.89)						
Impact frequency	4.52	1.43	0.41**	0.47**	0.36**	0.80**	(0.87)					
Impact scope	4.76	1.14	0.41**	0.42**	0.30**	0.59**	0.63**	(0.53)				
Contact frequency	4.75	1.59	0.32**	0.36**	0.21**	0.26**	0.37**	0.24**	(0.88)			
Contact breadth	4.77	1.56	0.37**	0.42**	0.25**	0.28**	0.35**	0.31**	0.79**	(0.94)		
Contact depth	4.17	1.66	0.37**	0.41**	0.23**	0.30**	0.44**	0.37**	0.69**	0.69**	(0.91)	
Prosocial motivation	6.00	0.84	0.08	0.18*	0.12	0.37**	0.42**	0.31**	0.12	0.17*	0.23**	(0.91)

Note: * M = Mean, SD = standard deviation; *p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01

Furthermore, all the dimensions of job impact on beneficiaries' variable resulted in very similar means, with magnitude (M=4.79), frequency (M=4.52) and scope (M=4.76). Participants of this research usually somewhat agreed that their job has the potential to make others' lives better (magnitude), on a regular basis or frequently (frequency), and quite large number of people can be positively affected by their job (scope).

Job contact with beneficiaries' dimensions showed comparable means as well, with frequency (M=4.75), breadth (M=4.77) and depth (M=4.17). The respondents somewhat agreed that their job enables them to meet and interact with their beneficiaries regularly or often (frequency), their beneficiaries come from diverse groups (breadth) and they could not decide how much their job allows them to build connections and relationships with their beneficiaries (depth).

Prosocial motivation statements resulted in M=6.0 which implies, that the respondents feel prosocially motivated in their work, meaning it is important to them to do job that benefits others and have a positive impact on others. They agree, they like to work on tasks that have the potential to benefit others and they do their best when working on task that contributes to the well-being of others.

3.2.2 Correlations

Furthermore, the Table 5 presents the correlations coefficients between the research variables. The correlations among the employee engagement dimensions were high, reaching above 0.60 (Taylor, 1990). The engagement subscale ranged from 0.61 to 0.75, all significant at the 0.01 level. Based on the hypotheses developed in this study, a correlation between employee engagement and prosocial motivation was expected. However, only the dedication dimension ($r=0.18$, $p < 0.05$) showed a significant but weak correlation with prosocial motivation, the vigor and the absorption dimension ($r=0.08$, $r=0.12$) showed a non-significant weak correlation with prosocial motivation.

The correlations among the job impact dimensions were also strong, ranging from 0.59 to 0.80 (with all correlations significant at the 0.01 level). They were all positively related to employee engagement measures, with weak to moderate correlations ranging from 0.30 to 0.53 and significant at 0.01 level. Regarding their relationship towards prosocial motivation, they resulted also in weak to moderate correlation significant at 0.01 level. Their correlation towards the other prosocial job characteristic variable ranged from 0.24 to 0.44 (weak to moderate correlation) but all positive and significant at 0.01 level.

Among the job contact subscales, every relationship was significant at 0.01 level. The correlations ranged from 0.69 to 0.79, which indicates a strong relationship. It is interesting to note, that all correlation levels towards employee engagement and job impact were positive and significant at 0.01 level. Our last key variable, prosocial motivation, showed the lowest number of significant correlations. The coefficients ranged from 0.12 to 0.42, whereas the strongest relationship was towards job impact dimensions ($r=0.31$, 0.37, 0.42). Also, job contact breadth ($r=0.17$, $p < 0.05$) and job contact depth ($r=0.23$, $p < 0.01$) dimension showed a significant relationship with prosocial motivation.

3.2.3 Discriminant validity

The main objective of examining discriminant validity is to estimate the degree to which any two measures are related to each other. For that, the most common method used is the correlation measure as proposed by Venkatraman (1989). Correlations between measures we expect to be similar should result in a high correlation, and correlations between theoretically not similar constructs should be low. A rule of thumb says that the correlations between constructs should be below 0.70, unless there is a theoretical reasoning for a higher correlation since they might be very similar constructs in reality.

A bivariate Pearson correlation with four latent factors and all control variables (gender, age, year of work experience, field of work and position level) has been conducted. Table 6 indicates, that there is no correlation between any of the constructs above 0.70. Thus, this shows that there is no discriminant validity problem with our study constructs and they are measuring different items.

Table 6. Discriminant validity - Correlation matrix of study constructs

		EE	Jl	JC	PM	Gender	Age	Years Exp	Field Work	Position
Emp. engagement	Pearson Corr.	1								
	Sig. (2-tailed)									
Job impact	Pearson Corr.	0.535**	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000								
Job contact	Pearson Corr.	0.419**	0.408**	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000							
Prosocial mot.	Pearson Corr.	0.147	0.418**	0.191*	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.073	0.000	0.019						
Gender	Pearson Corr.	0.028	0.125	-0.072	0.183*	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.731	0.130	0.382	0.026					
Age	Pearson Corr.	-0.083	-0.145	-0.239**	0.070	-0.089	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.312	0.077	0.003	0.394	0.280				
Yrs of Experience	Pearson Corr.	-0.045	0.095	0.042	0.085	-0.104	0.224**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.588	0.248	0.615	0.305	0.206	0.006			
Field of work	Pearson Corr.	0.148	0.106	-0.008	0.159	-0.031	0.060	0.011	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.071	0.197	0.926	0.053	0.705	0.466	0.890		
Position	Pearson Corr.	-0.129	-0.062	-0.138	0.048	0.113	-0.043	-0.190*	0.047	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.118	0.455	0.094	0.563	0.169	0.601	0.021	0.572	

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

3.3 Exploratory factor analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was run to uncover the structure of a set of variables used for this research (Hair et al., 2006). The EFA clearly revealed a four-factor solution with Eigenvalue greater than 1. This indicates that the factor explains more variance than a single variable. Table 7 illustrates, that the statements were loaded into four dimensions with the Eigenvalue ranging from 11.065 to 1.951 for these extracted dimensions (complete table with all statements combined with a scatter plot are in Appendix B2, B3). Varimax rotation method was used to optimize the factor structure, which changed the Eigenvalue range from 6.03 to 3.545.

Table 7. Total variance explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cum. %	Total	% of Variance	Cum. %	Total	% of Variance	Cum. %
1	11.065	35.693	35.693	10.709	34.544	34.544	6.030	19.453	19.453
2	4.189	13.513	49.207	3.869	12.479	47.024	4.914	15.853	35.306
3	3.371	10.874	60.080	2.996	9.664	56.688	4.676	15.085	50.390
4	1.951	6.292	66.373	1.593	5.138	61.826	3.545	11.436	61.826
5	1.025	3.308	69.680						
6	0.925	2.984	72.664						
7	0.839	2.707	75.371						
8	0.776	2.503	77.874						
9	0.707	2.280	80.154						
10	0.704	2.270	82.424						

The first factor, named Job contact (JC), explained 19.45% of total variance. Of the nine items that represented the three job contact dimensions, all nine loaded on the first factor with loading > 0.40 (acceptance level). Factor two, labeled Job impact (JI), contributed to 15.28% of the total variance, but only eight out of nine original statements loaded on the second factor. The only value that has been omitted was the scope statement ‘quite a few people benefit from my job’, since the factor loading was < 0.40 (acceptance level).

The third factor, labeled Employee engagement (EE) with 14.91% of total variance, included all nine original statements that loaded on the third factor. Similarly, the fourth and last factor, Prosocial motivation (PM), which contributed to 11.1% of total variance contained all of the five original statements. Table 8 presents all items with their factors loadings that exceeded the requirement level of 0.50. The description of defined factors and their number of statements are illustrated in Table 9.

Table 8. Factor loading structure

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
JCf3	0.864			
JCb2	0.835			
JCb1	0.825			
JCb3	0.806			
JCf2	0.782			
JCd3	0.774			
JCf1	0.740			
JCd2	0.706			
JCd1	0.692			
JIm2		0.800		
JIm3		0.791		
JIf3		0.785		
JIf1		0.772		
JIm1		0.694		
JIs2		0.655		
JIf2		0.650		
JIs1		0.594		
EEd1			0.810	
EEv1			0.778	
EEv2			0.755	
EEd2			0.732	
EEv3			0.687	
EEd3			0.616	
EEa2			0.562	
EEa3			0.467	
EEa1			0.448	
PMe				0.857
PMc				0.828
PMd				0.808
PMb				0.761
PMa				0.695

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 9. Number of items of emerged four factors

Factor	Label	Number of items
1	Job contact on beneficiaries	9 (original 9)
2	Job impact on beneficiaries	8 (original 9)
3	Employee engagement	9 (original 9)
4	Prosocial motivation	5 (original 5)

Internal consistencies were computed for the job impact factor again, since the number of items has been reduced from nine to eight. Internal α coefficients for job impact's dimensions – magnitude, frequency, scope – were: magnitude (3 items) $\alpha=0.89$, frequency (3 items) $\alpha=0.87$, and the changed scope dimension with only 2 items resulted in $\alpha=0.78$, which is higher than with original 3 items ($\alpha=0.53$). The overall α coefficient for job impact on beneficiaries factor was 0.93 (compared to the original 0.85), which indicates that the measure is even more reliable with eight items.

3.4 Confirmatory factor analysis

Following the exploratory-confirmatory approach presented by Koufteros (1999), the next step in this research was the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Whereas EFA is more a data-based approach, CFA deals with the relationships between observed measures (or indicators), and latent variables (or factors). Brown (2006) describes a 'factor' as an unobserved variable that impacts more than one observed measure and is the reason for the correlations among these measures. Thus, a CFA model provides greater explanation and understanding of the co-variation among a set of indicators, because the number of factors is lower than the amount of measured variables.

Although the EFA clearly showed four latent variables, we tried to separate the dimensions to see which model is the best fit for our data. In the final version of the model, 31 of 32 items were used (based on EFA results) in five separate factor models:

1. a four factor model in which all four constructs were inserted as four separate factors, namely employee engagement, prosocial motivation, job contact with beneficiaries and job impact on beneficiaries;
2. a four factor model with job impact as a second-order factor and other three factors as separate factors;
3. a four factor model with job contact as a second-order factor and other three factors as separate factors;
4. a four factor model with employee engagement as a second-order factor and other three factors as separate factors;
5. a four factor model in which employee engagement, job impact and job contact were inserted as separate second-order factors, and a separate prosocial motivation factor.

To decide which model is the best fit, several indices were calculated. The absolute goodness-of-fit indices that have been assessed were Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Values smaller than 0.08 for the RMSEA are indicating a good fit and GFI should exceed the value of 0.90 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Because our sample size is from the statistical point of view not considered large, the relative goodness-of-fit indices are recommended to determine (Bentler, 1990).

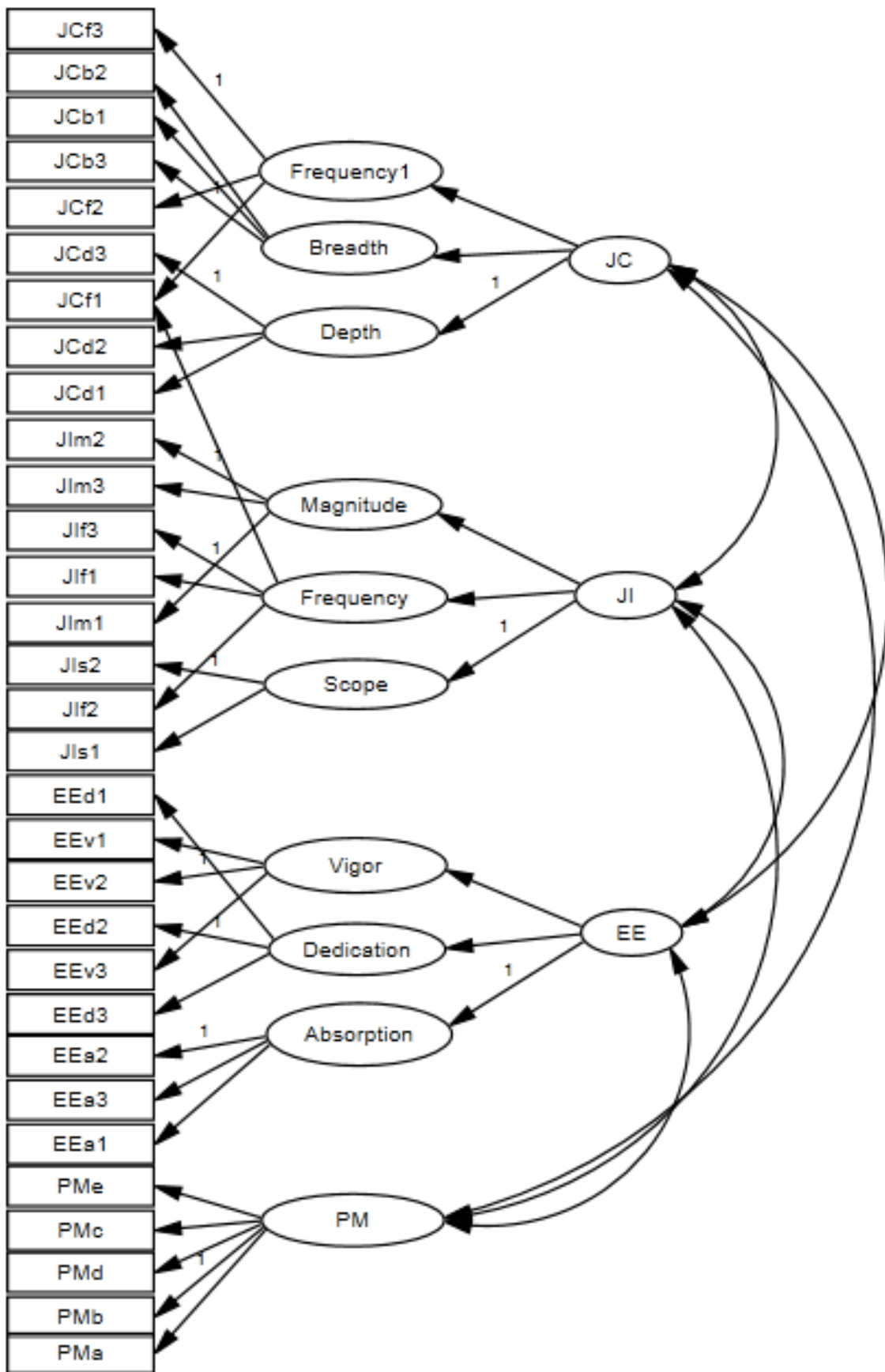
Three of relative indices have been computed: the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Incremental Fit Index (IFI). For all these fit indices, values higher than 0.90 indicate an acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Apart from these relative indices, Root Mean Square Residual (RMR), Bentler-Bonett index (NFI) and a Chi Square-Based measure CMIN/df (the minimum discrepancy degree of freedom ratio) have also been computed. Generally, the RMR index should be < 1.2, NFI should be > 0.90, and the CMIN/df ratio should be below 2.0. The fit indices of the five different models are displayed in the Table 10.

Table 10. Fit indices of the five different path models

Models	CMIN/ df	RMSEA	GFI	TLI	CFI	IFI	NFI	RMR
1. Four separate factors	1.706	0.070	0.789	0.911	0.920	0.921	0.830	0.110
2. Employee Engagement 2-nd order factor	1.537	0.060	0.812	0.934	0.942	0.942	0.851	0.112
3. Job Contact 2-nd order factor	1.547	0.061	0.809	0.937	0.944	0.944	0.858	0.122
4. Job Impact 2-nd order factor	1.577	0.062	0.803	0.934	0.941	0.942	0.855	0.122
5. All 2nd order factors	1.612	0.064	0.786	0.920	0.929	0.929	0.833	0.140

Based on the indicators, all five models resulted in very similar values. From the results of EFA one might expect, that the model with four separate latent variables will be the best fit. However, the model with all second-order factors and their separate dimensions is based on the theoretical background developed in previous chapters the most appropriate one for this research. The only index that did not cross the acceptance level of 0.90 is the GFI, however, the value of 0.79 can be still considered as satisfactory. The Figure 4 presents the factor loadings between the variables and covariance values.

Figure 4. Final model with second-order factors



Note: * CMIN/df 1.612, RMSEA 0.064, GFI 0.786, TLI 0.92, CFI 0.929, IFI 0.929, NFI 0.833, RMR 0.14.

Within CFA, also convergent validity and unidimensionality was tested by the loading paths of all items, which are statistically significant if they are greater than 0.50 (Prajogo & McDermott, 2005). Table 11 presents the range of factor loadings for all items loaded on second-order factors. The whole output from the CFA is to be found in Appendix B4. Taken together, these results from our CFA suggest, that job contact on beneficiaries, job impact on beneficiaries, employee engagement and prosocial motivation are interrelated, yet distinct constructs.

Table 11. Standardized regression weights for second-order factor items

Second-order factor	Item	Standardized regression weights
JC (Job contact)	Frequency1	0.922
	Breadth	0.904
	Depth	0.790
JI (Job impact)	Magnitude	0.920
	Frequency	0.998
	Scope	0.868
EE (Employee engagement)	Vigor	0.933
	Dedication	0.933
	Absorption	0.965

Note: * Regression weights fixed at 1.00.

3.5 Hypothesis testing

3.5.1. Linear multiple regression analysis

The aim of hypothesis 1 was to investigate, whether there is a positive relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement, thus if one increases, the other one increases too. For that, a linear multiple regression with employee engagement as the dependent variable and prosocial motivation as the independent variable has been performed.

To control the assumption of normality of our data, the histogram and PP plot is displayed in Figure 5. The histogram is acceptable and approximately follows the shape of the normal curve and the residuals follow the 45-degree line indicated in the PP plot. Thus, these results demonstrate that neither of these indicates a violation of this assumption of normality.

Table 12 presents the statistical results for this regression model. The regression row indicates information about the variation accounted for, and the residual row provides information about the variation not accounted for by this model. In this case, it shows that approximately 2.2% of variance is explained by this model, which is considered to be very low. Also, this model does not display significant F value (0.073^b).

Figure 5. Tests for assumption of normality - Histogram and P-P Plot

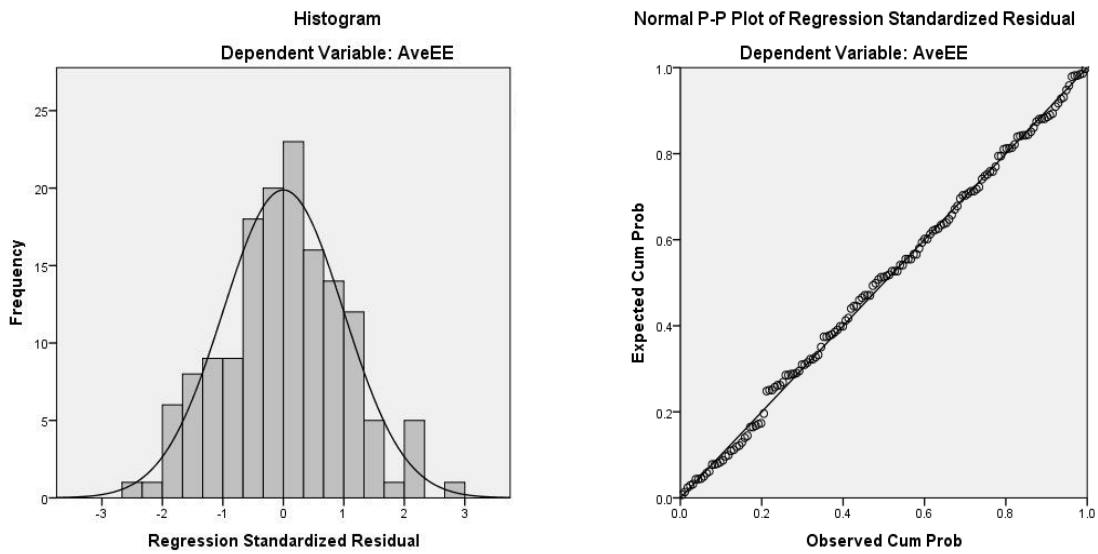


Table 12. Results for ANOVA analysis

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2.796	1	2.796	3.256	0.073 ^b
Residual	126.226	147	0.859		
Total	129.022	148			

Note: * a. Dependent Variable: AveEE
 b. Predictors: (Constant), AvePM

The model summary (Table 13) reports on the relationship between the dependent variable prosocial motivation and the model. The small R and adjusted R values indicate, that the relationship is weak. The relative importance of the prosocial motivation as the predictor is characterized by the standardized coefficient. The Table 14 shows a low standardized beta and significance lower than 0.05 that just add to the conclusion that prosocial motivation cannot be perceived as an antecedent of employee engagement. Thus, hypothesis 1b is supported.

Table 13. Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.147 ^a	0.022	0.015	0.927

Note: * a. Predictors: (Constant), AvePM

To control whether some of the five control variables do have an effect on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement, they were added into the regression analysis. Table 15 displays the main residual and regression results that are according to the F value not statistically significant.

Table 14. Coefficients of prosocial motivation for the model

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.924	0.549		7.143	0.000
AvePM	0.163	0.091	0.147	1.804	0.073

Note: * a. Dependent Variable: AveEE, b. Dependent Variable: AveEE

Table 15. Results for ANOVA analysis

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	9.458	6	1.576	1.872	0.090 ^b
Residual	119.563	142	0.842		
Total	129.022	148			

Note: * a. Dependent Variable: AveEE
 b. Predictors: (Constant), Position, Age, FieldWork, Gender, AvePM, YearsExp

The model summary reveals (see Table 16), that this model explains approximately 7.3% of variance, thus the effect of the control variables on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement is weak. The adjusted R square value is even smaller, only 3.4%. Because this value increased compared to the previous model, it demonstrates, that the relationship is stronger when accompanied by control variables.

Table 17 shows, that only the ‘position’ variable has a significant effect on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement ($p = 0.05$) although it is very close reaching the acceptance value. To figure out, which position type is influencing this relationship the most, a regression analysis for each level of position has been conducted in the next steps and also for all other control variables. The results are presented in the next chapter.

Table 16. Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.271 ^a	0.073	0.034	0.918

Note: * a. Predictors: (Constant), Position, Age, FieldWork, Gender, AvePM, YearsExp

Table 17. Coefficients of control variables for the model

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	5.405	1.043		5.182	0.000
AvePM	0.159	0.093	0.143	1.702	0.091
Gender	0.018	0.161	0.009	0.114	0.910
Age	-0.480	0.431	-0.093	-1.114	0.267
YearsExp	-0.066	0.084	-0.067	-0.786	0.433
FieldW	0.038	0.022	0.140	1.700	0.091
Position	-0.136	0.071	-0.160	-1.928	0.056

Note: * a. Dependent Variable: AveEE

3.5.2 Moderated regression analysis

Hypothesis 2 has been tested by using the moderated regression analysis developed by Aiken and West (1991). The goal was to investigate, whether there is a moderating effect of prosocial job characteristics in a relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement. Testing Hypothesis 2a with job opportunities for impact on beneficiaries as a moderating variable, we firstly created an interaction term ‘prosocial motivation x job impact’ on beneficiaries. Before running the regression analysis, we controlled the correlation between the variables. Doing so, a high correlation of 0.695 ($p < 0.01$) between prosocial motivation (independent variable) and the interaction term ‘prosocial motivation x job impact’ has been shown.

To avoid the multicollinearity problems that might appear due to high correlation, means from each of the independent variables were subtracted and then multiplied with those residual together to create a centered product term. The correlation between the centered prosocial motivation and centered interaction term has been reduced to -0.399 ($p < 0.01$), thus the multicollinearity problem has been minimized.

Then a regular multiple regression has been performed with employee engagement as a dependent variable, and prosocial motivation centered, job impact centered, and the interaction term centered as independent variables. The hypothesis was that the interaction variable will be a statistically significant predictor of employee engagement above and beyond the prosocial motivation centered and job impact on centered. The results are presented in Table 18.

The adjusted R^2 of this model shows that there is 29% of the variance employee engagement being accounted for by this multiple regression. After adding all five control variables, the adjusted R^2 increased slightly to 30%. Multiple R are statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) with an $F=8.85$ and degree of freedom 8 and 140.

The coefficient table shows, that the interaction term ‘prosocial motivation x job impact’ on beneficiaries is not statistically significant, thus the moderation of job impact on beneficiaries in the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement is not supported.

Table 18. Moderated regression analysis for Job impact on beneficiaries variable

Variable	B	S.E.	Beta	t
Prosocial motivation	-0.045	0.095	-0.041	-0.472
Job impact	0.438	0.063	0.550	6.898**
Prosocial motivation x Job impact	0.095	0.066	0.111	1.439
Age	0.134	0.377	0.026	0.357
Gender	-0.020	0.138	-0.010	-0.144
Field of work	0.029	0.019	0.107	1.520
Years of experience	-0.114	0.072	-0.115	-1.578
Position level	-0.092	0.061	-0.108	-1.522
R²	0.336			
F (df)	8.849 (8,140)			
Adjusted R²	0.298			

Note: * p < .05
 ** p < .01

A similar result accounts for the Hypothesis 2b, where it was researched, whether job contact with beneficiaries moderates the relationship between employee engagement and prosocial motivation. The correlation between prosocial motivation and job contact with beneficiaries was 0.517 (p < 0.01), which is considered as moderate, thus it was not necessary to create centered variables to avoid the multicollinearity.

Table 19. Moderated regression analysis for Job contact with beneficiaries variable

Variable	B	S.E.	Beta	t
Prosocial motivation	0.052	0.286	0.047	0.183
Job contact	0.269	0.392	0.417	0.686
Prosocial motivation x Job contact	-0.001	0.064	-0.007	-0.010
Age	0.116	0.417	0.023	0.279
Gender	0.114	0.150	0.059	0.762
Field of work	0.041	0.021	0.151	1.971*
Years of experience	-0.085	0.078	-0.086	-1.086
Position level	-0.088	0.066	-0.103	-1.332
R²	0.218			
F (df)	4.865 (8,140)			
Adjusted R²	0.173			

Note: * p < .05
 ** p < .01

By conducting the multiple regression analysis with the interaction term ‘prosocial motivation x job contact on beneficiaries’, the adjusted R^2 resulted in 16.3% of variance explained. By adding the control variables, it increased slightly, thus 17.3% of the variance employee engagement being accounted for by this multiple regression. Multiple R are statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) with an $F=4.865$ and degree of freedom 8 and 140. Coefficients indicate, that the interaction term ‘prosocial motivation x job contact with beneficiaries’ is not statistically significant, thus the Hypothesis 2b is not supported. All results of this analysis are presented in Table 19.

3.6 Regression results

Since the predicted relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement was not supported in this research, the control variables have been inserted to verify, whether they have a significant effect on this relationship or not. The first control variable ‘gender’ and the second variable ‘age’ have not indicated any influence, since neither of the groups have shown significant results. The third control variable ‘years of working experience’ has shown, that the group of people with more than five years of work experience ($p=0.02$) are more prone to be prosocially motivated at their job, thus more engaged.

The fourth control variable level of ‘position’ has also shown a significant effect ($p=0.05$) with the team leader level, thus people who work as team leaders have a higher chance to be prosocially motivated than others. By the fifth control variable ‘field of work’, firstly all the options were grouped into four sub-categories based on their job similarities.

1. Service sector, Administrative/Data, IT
2. Marketing/Sales/PR, Management, Art
3. Purchasing/Controlling, Finance/Accounting, Law
4. HR, Other

The only group that has indicated a significant result ($p=0.02$) was the first group with service sector, administrative/data and IT jobs. This result presents that prosocial motivation and employee engagement are positively related predominantly in service industries, where the link to the beneficiaries is even more important than in other industries.

This study has not demonstrated any statistically significant relationship between the prosocial motivation and employee engagement. To check, whether the prosocial job characteristics are correlated with prosocial motivation, a regression analysis for this relationship has been conducted as well. Interestingly, there has been shown a positive, significant effect between job impact on beneficiaries and prosocial motivation with R square of 17.5%. On the other hand, job contact with beneficiaries showed a positive significant result towards prosocial motivation, but only with R square of 3.7% which is considered as very low. It is possible that it is due to convenience sampling that has been applied in this research, thus the population may not be accurately represented.

4 DISCUSSION

4.1 General results of the study

This thesis was based on measures for employee work engagement, prosocial motivation and relational job characteristics that have been proved and validated across studies before. Nevertheless, these measures were applied in the survey to research questions that have not been investigated yet. The first hypothesis of this research explored whether there is a positive relationship between employee engagement and prosocial motivation. Although, based on the theory this relationship was expected to be proved, the correlation coefficients showed a weak, non-significant relationship between these two constructs. This rejects the hypothesis about the prosocial motivation as an antecedent of employee work engagement.

To control, whether any of the control variables have a significant effect on the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee work engagement, another regression analysis has been performed. The results indicate, that prosocial motivation and employee engagement are positively related mainly by employees working at a team leader level, with more than five years of working experience.

Also, regarding the field of work, the only group that showed a significant result was the group of people working in service sector, administrative/data and IT field. This result presents a very important finding; prosocial motivation and employee engagement are positively related predominantly in service industries, where the link to the beneficiaries is even more important than in other industries.

The second hypothesis of this research explored whether prosocial job characteristics act as moderators in a relationship between prosocial motivation and employee work engagement. Moderated regression analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) showed, that in both cases, the moderation of job impact on beneficiaries and job contact with beneficiaries in the studied relationship was not supported. In both scenarios, the interaction term was not statistically significant, thus the hypothesis has been rejected.

The correlations between all study constructs have revealed, that the two prosocial job characteristics are related together, whereas job impact on beneficiaries has a greater connection with prosocial motivation than job contact with beneficiaries. Also, job impact and job contact with beneficiaries both show a connection with employee work engagement. This implies that people whose job allows them to have impact and interaction with their beneficiaries, are more engaged.

4.2 Theoretical implications

This study aims to make the contributions to the job design, prosocial motivation and employee engagement literatures. Job design has been considered as the main driver of prosocial motivation. Recent studies conducted suggest, that job design is important for cultivating prosocial motivation. The leading researcher in the field of prosocial

motivation, Adam Grant, focuses especially on relational job design. He emphasizes how the structural characteristics of jobs can influence employees' relationships with others, and consequently influence also prosocial motivation (Grant, 2007).

In this study, not only the prosocial motivation has been measured in such, but also its connection towards two relational job characteristics. Based on Grant's experiments, which showed that there is a significant connection between them, similar conclusions were expected. Contrary, the results did not show such strong connections; only job impact on beneficiaries showed a strong connection to prosocial motivation, job contact with beneficiaries showed a positive, but weak relationship.

That denotes that when jobs are structured in a way to connect employees to the impact they have on others, employees experience higher level of prosocial motivation. As a consequence, Grant's research (2007) shows that employees spend more time in their work and are willing to dedicate more energy to their tasks, what increases their motivation to help their beneficiaries.

Job contact with beneficiaries did not show such a strong connection towards prosocial motivation, which suggests that providing employees with contact with their beneficiaries does not necessarily result in higher prosocial motivation. However, based on Grant's studies and experiments, job contact leads to higher prosocial motivation. Therefore, a more detailed study would be needed to make a final conclusion regarding the connection between prosocial motivation and job contact with beneficiaries.

Job contact and job impact on beneficiaries showed a significant relationship, which implicates that designing jobs with both structural characteristics, may result in higher prosocial motivation than providing employees with one of these job characteristics only. It was proved that social and relational factors can promote prosocial motivation and work engagement by highlighting the social impact of work (Grant, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009).

Employee engagement has been, compared to prosocial motivation, investigated for a while. The term 'employee engagement' was firstly used in business by the Gallup organization in 1990s as an outcome of their 25 year-long study. There have been a lot of studies focusing on predictors of engagement, how it can be cultivated and what the main implications of engagement for people and companies are. One of the aims of this study was to investigate, whether prosocial motivation can be perceived as an antecedent of employee engagement.

Macey et al. (2009) described three preconditions for developing employee engagement. One of them is also the motivation to engage, which indicates some connection between engagement and work motivation. Also, Grant's studies and experiments prove this presumption. However, the results of this research did not show a significant connection between employee engagement and prosocial motivation. One reasoning for this might be the small number of survey respondents, time constraints, nationality or not specific job

field of our sample. Also, our sample is convenience-based, hence limited and non-generalizable.

Previous studies have almost always focused on the role of job resources as predictors of work engagement (Christian et al., 2011; Halbesleben, 2010). This study reveals, that prosocial job characteristics, meaning relational characteristics, are positively connected to employee engagement. This suggests, that if we can facilitate motivation by relational job design, we can impact engagement of employees too. A more detailed research would be recommended to investigate, e.g. whether relational job design is a direct predictor of employee engagement.

4.3 Managerial and practical implications

One of the practical contributions of this research to prosocial motivation, is making this term more known to the practitioners. Majority of the respondents had never heard of neither the term prosocial motivation nor prosocial job characteristics. A lot of respondents said that the survey made them think more about their job. They found the topic very interesting as such. Since the results show that people care about doing work that benefits others, this might be the right direction for future research. Focus groups and direct experiments at workplaces could bring meaningful results about what cultivates prosocial motivation and what are its implications.

This study shows, that prosocial motivation cannot be perceived as an antecedent of employee engagement, although based on the theory some relationship would be expected. Maybe some further and more detailed research would show better explanation for this. There is still a lot of potential for more research on prosocial motivation, what are its predictors and implications. This investigation showed, that prosocial job characteristics can be perceived as predictors, however employee engagement is not a direct implication of prosocial motivation.

An interesting finding of this study is that prosocial motivation and employee engagement are positively related predominantly in service industries, where the link to the beneficiaries is even more important than in other industries. This finding deserves to be investigated further as an important contribution especially for managerial circles in service-oriented companies.

Relational resources are nowadays perceived as important factors in workplaces, predominantly their motivational impact, which was proved in this study too. People want to have a job that impacts others. They care about the impact of their work and they want to do something meaningful. Therefore, Human Resource Departments (HRD) and Talent Management specialists should try to design jobs in a manner in which to arrange opportunities for employees to have more impact on their beneficiaries and more interaction with them.

And because beneficiaries exist in all jobs, managers and practitioners have the chance to support employee motivation by connecting employees with end users of their work. Grant (2007), proved this assumption that jobs can be designed prosocially to motivate employees to care about having a positive effect on others' lives. This research confirms this statement.

A key to success for Human Resource Management and companies is to discover what predicts work engagement of their employees. The main investigated predictors of engagement are job resources like autonomy, career growth opportunities, feedback, supportive environment and colleagues. Given these findings it is obvious that the company plays a significant role in cultivating engagement.

Since there is no empirical evidence researching the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement, we decided to position it as the main research question of this thesis. It connects two important goals of today's organizational world since managers want to have their employees motivated and engaged. Although this study rejected the hypothesis that if a person is prosocially motivated he is automatically engaged at work, this can be recognized as an important finding for future studies too.

4.4 Limitations and future research suggestions

This study only issued the questionnaire in English since the measures used have been validated in this language. Although English is not a mother language for the majority of the population in this research, the number of respondents was sufficient. Providing the questionnaire in Slovak language could provide a better understanding of the questions and also the number of respondents would probably be higher if the questionnaire was conducted in Slovak language.

A convenience sample method was used and also snowball sampling may be a consequence of the distribution method. Due to the time constraints, social networks and the Internet have been used for distributing the survey. Participants were mostly 21- 40 years of age. This is due to the fact that the majority of people from my social networks are within this age group. Therefore, the results are limited and not applicable to the general population.

Due to the time and resource constraints, a questionnaire was the only research method used in this study. Conducting in-depth interviews or experiments may provide better insight into whether the prosocial motivation and employee engagement relationship can be supported and if so, in which way. Additionally, it would be interesting to research which kinds of personalities are more prone to be prosocially motivated at work, and in which jobs is this phenomena usually observed. Based on the interesting finding of this study, a separate analysis for the sample that works in the service-related industries and the ones that are in manufacturing would be recommended for future research.

The cross-sectional data used in testing the hypotheses is also a limitation and collecting the data at different time points would provide more insight with regards to whether prosocial motivation and engagement change within time. Covering more countries and collecting responses from diverse nationalities could also give better understanding whether this has an impact on investigated topics. Further research focusing on the factors, that fuel and influence the relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement, would be recommended for future investigation.

CONCLUSION

Employee work engagement is a topic of increasing importance due to a trend high employee turnover and individuals changing their jobs frequently. Companies are trying to determine how to engage their employees to ensure that they do not leave their job when the first possible chance appears. Companies consider engaged employees the main asset and the main driver of success. Therefore, employee engagement is interesting to investigate especially for the management levels in all organizations.

This thesis also presents the newer concept of prosocial motivation which has gained in popularity among researchers investigating engagement and motivation of employees. The goal of this paper was to investigate whether there is any direct connection between prosocial motivation and employee engagement. One of the reasons for choosing this research question is that there is no available empirical evidence investigating this relationship.

In addition to this aim, the study conducted sought to consider also two relational job characteristics, whether they play any role in facilitating the relationship between employee work engagement and prosocial motivation or not. We included these relational job characteristics into our research, since it was proved that social interactions and relationships in workplace are important factors that influence the motivation at work. By highlighting the social impact of work, they can facilitate not only motivation, but also employee engagement.

Using the established measures for prosocial motivation, prosocial job characteristics and employee engagement, several conclusions have been reached. Most of the participants in the research feel prosocially motivated in their work, meaning it is important to them to do job that benefits others and has positive impact on other people. Similarly, they often feel engaged in their work. They have a chance to make other lives better on a regular basis and most of the participants somewhat agree that their job enables them to meet their beneficiaries often. This research concludes that providing employees with opportunity to impact other lives results in higher prosocial motivation.

On the other hand, allowing people to interact or meet their beneficiaries does not ensure the feeling of prosocial motivation at work. Nevertheless, there is a significant relationship between both prosocial job characteristics, thus providing employees with both opportunities at the same time might have a stronger effect than using them separately.

Interestingly, the evidence presented in this study indicates that there is no significant relationship between prosocial motivation and employee engagement. The reason for this might be the convenience sampling applied in this research, which could bias the result. Employee work engagement showed a significant connection to both prosocial job characteristics, but not a direct relationship with prosocial motivation. This conveys valuable information for future research and can be useful for companies to improve job design and increase the engagement and motivation of employees.

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APPENDIXES

TABLE OF APPENDIXES

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Appendix A : Slovenian Summary

Koncept angažiranosti pri delu postaja v luči pogostega menjavanja zaposlitev in visoke fluktuacije zaposlenih vse pomembnejši. Podjetja skušajo ugotoviti, kako angažirati svoje zaposlene in s tem preprečiti menjavo službe ob prvi priložnosti. Angažiranost pri delu se hkrati obravnava kot pomemben dejavnik uspeha organizacije, ne glede na ekonomske situacije, v kateri se ta nahaja. Koncept je tako v zadnjem času postal prava modna muha.

Naloga predstavi novejši koncept prosocialne motivacije, ki je postal priljubljen med raziskovalci, ki se ukvarjajo z angažiranostjo in motivacijo zaposlenih. Namen te naloge je raziskati neposredno povezavo med prosocialno motivacijo in angažiranostjo zaposlenih. Eden izmed razlogov za izbiro tega raziskovalnega vprašanja je tudi pomanjkanje vsakršnih empiričnih dokazov, ki bi potrjevali obstoj te povezave.

Nadalje je opravljena študija raziskala vlogo dveh relacijskih značilnosti dela in sicer socialne interakcije in odnose na delovnem mestu. Dokazano je, da ta dva dejavnika pomembno vplivata na motivacijo in s tega vidika sta lahko izjemnega pomena za angažiranost pri delu.

Z uporabo uveljavljenih metod merjenja prosocialne motivacije, prosocialnih značilnosti dela in angažiranosti za delo smo prišli do več ugotovitev. Večina udeležencev v raziskavi se počuti prosocialno motivirane pri svojem delu, kar pomeni, da je zanje pomembno opravljati delo, ki ima pozitivne posledice za in učinke na druge ljudi. Pogosto se počutijo angažirane pri svojem delu. Imajo možnost, da pogosto pozitivno vplivajo na življenja drugih, večina pa se tudi delno strinja, da jim njihovo delo omogoča, da se srečajo z ljudmi, na katere s svojim delom vplivajo.

Študija ugotavlja, da zagotavljanje možnosti, da zaposleni vplivajo na življenja drugih, prinaša višjo prosocialno motivacijo. Po drugi strani pa omogočiti zaposlenim, da se srečajo in so v interakciji z ljudmi, na katere s svojim delom vplivajo, ne zagotavlja občutka prosocialne motivacije pri delu. Kljub temu je povezava med prosocialno motivacijo in angažiranostjo pri delu znatna, zato sklenemo, da ima zagotavljanje obeh možnosti hkrati potencialno močnejši učinek kot ena ali druga možnost ločeno.

Dokazi, predstavljeni v tej študiji, navajajo, da ne obstaja pomembna povezava med prosocialno motivacijo in angažiranostjo pri delu na splošno, vendar pa obstaja pozitivna povezava pretežno v storitvenem sektorju, kjer je stik z ljudmi, na katere zaposleni vplivajo, še pomembnejši kot v drugih panogah. Ugotavljamo tudi, da je angažiranost zaposlenih povezana z obema prosocialnima značilnostima dela. To daje dobro podlago za nadaljne raziskave in je lahko koristna informacija za organizacije in za vodenje človeških virov na splošno pri izboljšanju oblikovanja delovnih mest in povečanju angažiranosti in motivacije zaposlenih.

Appendix B: Measurement tool evaluation

B1: Full Questionnaire

“Employee engagement at work”

URL: https://www.1ka.si/a/35008

Introduction

This survey investigates the employee work engagement, which has recently become a crucial topic for all companies. Having engaged employees result in many positive outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, lower staff turnover and higher performance. These are the main reasons why the companies care so much about facilitating engagement of their employees.

The aim of this research is to determine whether employee engagement can be stimulated by focusing on motivational aspects as well as job design. The results can be very useful not only to the companies, but also for individuals. It's beneficial to know how to change your job tasks to become more motivated at work.

The questionnaire and all answers are anonymous and confidential. If you would like to receive feedback after the research, please contact me on j.svandova@gmail.com.

The survey takes only 7-8 min, thank you for participating!

Q1: The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the “0” (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you felt it by crossing the number (from 0 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Never	Almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Always
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
At my work, I feel bursting with energy (=energized).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (=active,dynamic).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am enthusiastic about my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job inspires me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of the work that I do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am immersed (=fully occupied) in my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get carried away (=overly enthusiastic) when I am working.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q2: The following statements are about prosocial characteristics of your job. Please read each statements and decide with the Likert-scale from 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly).

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Undecided	Somewhat agree	Agree	Agree strongly
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job gives me the chance to make a significant positive difference in others' lives.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job provides opportunities to substantially improve the welfare of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job has the potential to make others' lives much better.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job provides opportunities to have positive impact on others on a regular basis.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job allows me to have positive impact on others almost every day.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job frequently improves the lives of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A lot of people can be positively affected by how well my job gets done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job provides opportunities to have a positive impact on a large number of other people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Quite a few people benefit from my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q3: Continue in the same way as by the previous question. Choose from 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly).

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Undecided	Somewhat agree	Agree	Agree strongly
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job allows frequent communication with the people who benefit from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job often gives me the opportunity to meet the people who benefit from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job enables me to interact regularly with the people who benefit from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job provides me with contact with different groups of people who benefit from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job allows me to interact with a variety of people who benefit from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job enables me to meet diverse groups of people who benefit from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job enables me to build close relationships with the people affected by my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job allows me to form emotional connections with the people who benefit from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job gives me the chance to have meaningful communications with the people who benefit from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q4: The following statements are about motivation you experience at your job. Please read each statement and decide with the Likert-scale from 1 to 7 as by the previous question.

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Undecided	Somewhat agree	Agree	Agree strongly
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I get energized working on tasks that have the potential to benefit others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important to me to have the opportunity to use my abilities to benefit others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I prefer to work on tasks that allow me to have a positive impact on others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do my best when I'm working on a task that contributes to the well-being of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to work on tasks that have the potential to benefit others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5: Are you male or female?

- Male
- Female

In which age group do you belong?

- up to 20 years of age
- 21 - 40 years of age
- 41 - 60 years of age
- 61 years of age or more

Q6: How many years work experience do you have?

- less than 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 2-5 years
- more than 5 years

Q7: In which field do you work? (or did you work at your last job)

- Service sector (e.g. Call centers, Help Desk)
- Marketing/Sales/PR
- HR
- Purchasing/Controlling
- Finance/Accounting/Banking
- Administrative/Data
- IT
- Management
- Law
- Art
- Other

Q8: Which position best describes your role in the company?

- Executive management
- Head of department
- Team Leader
- No formal leadership role
- Other

Thank you for participating in this survey! If you have any questions or comments, feel free to contact me on j.svandova@gmail.com.

B2:

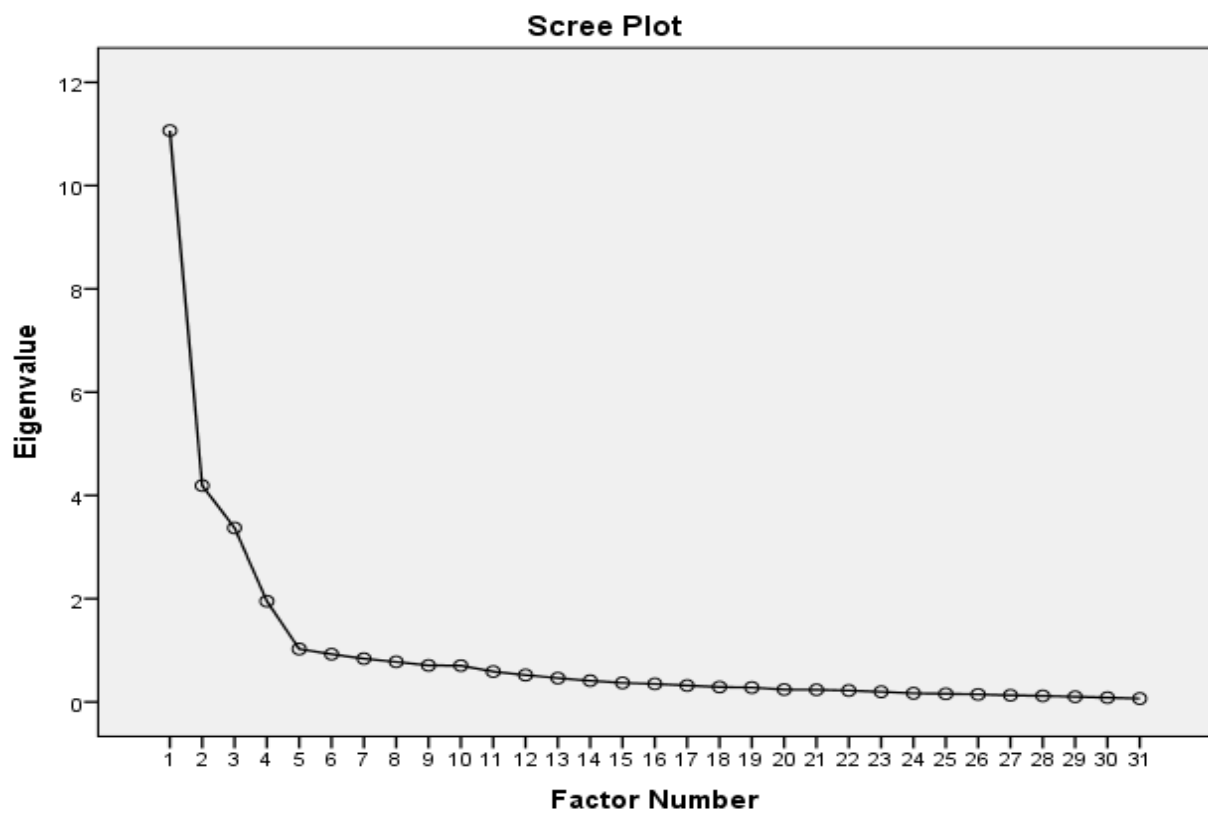
Table 1. Total variance explained by EFA

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.065	35.693	35.693	10.709	34.544	34.544	6.030	19.453	19.453
2	4.189	13.513	49.207	3.869	12.479	47.024	4.914	15.853	35.306
3	3.371	10.874	60.080	2.996	9.664	56.688	4.676	15.085	50.390
4	1.951	6.292	66.373	1.593	5.138	61.826	3.545	11.436	61.826
5	1.025	3.308	69.680						
6	0.925	2.984	72.664						
7	0.839	2.707	75.371						
8	0.776	2.503	77.874						
9	0.707	2.280	80.154						
10	0.704	2.270	82.424						
11	0.588	1.897	84.322						
12	0.521	1.679	86.001						
13	0.462	1.491	87.492						
14	0.411	1.325	88.817						
15	0.369	1.192	90.009						
16	0.349	1.127	91.136						
17	0.319	1.029	92.165						
18	0.289	0.934	93.099						
19	0.278	0.898	93.996						
20	0.241	0.776	94.773						
21	0.235	0.758	95.531						
22	0.221	0.712	96.243						
23	0.196	0.633	96.876						
24	0.168	0.542	97.418						
25	0.157	0.507	97.925						
26	0.147	0.474	98.399						
27	0.129	0.417	98.816						
28	0.118	0.380	99.196						
29	0.101	0.326	99.521						
30	0.083	0.268	99.790						
31	0.065	0.210	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

B3:

Figure 1. Scatter plot for EFA



B4: Model output summary

Table 1. Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

Label		Estimate
Frequency1	<--- JC	0.922
Breadth	<--- JC	0.904
Depth	<--- JC	0.790
Magnitude	<--- JI	0.920
Frequency	<--- JI	0.998
Scope	<--- JI	0.868
Vigor	<--- EE	0.933
Dedication	<--- EE	0.933
Absorption	<--- EE	0.965
PMa	<--- PM	0.676
PMb	<--- PM	0.708
PMd	<--- PM	0.882
PMc	<--- PM	0.816
PMe	<--- PM	0.927
JCf3	<--- Frequency1	0.917
JCf2	<--- Frequency1	0.810
JCf1	<--- Frequency1	0.853
JCb2	<--- Breadth	0.945
JCb1	<--- Breadth	0.937
JCb3	<--- Breadth	0.860
JCd3	<--- Depth	0.823
JCd2	<--- Depth	0.924
JCd1	<--- Depth	0.892
JIm2	<--- Magnitude	0.884
JIm3	<--- Magnitude	0.856
JIm1	<--- Magnitude	0.830
JIf3	<--- Frequency	0.860
JIf1	<--- Frequency	0.844
JIf2	<--- Frequency	0.790
JIs2	<--- Scope	0.859
JIs1	<--- Scope	0.749
EEv1	<--- Vigor	0.845
EEv2	<--- Vigor	0.845
EEv3	<--- Vigor	0.733
EEd1	<--- Dedication	0.928
EEd2	<--- Dedication	0.826

Label			Estimate
EEd3	<---	Dedication	0.730
EEa2	<---	Absorption	0.602
EEa3	<---	Absorption	0.485
EEa1	<---	Absorption	0.509

Table 2. Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

Label		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Frequency1	<--- JC	1.078	0.109	9.860	***
Breadth	<--- JC	0.991	0.107	9.234	***
Depth	<--- JC	1.000			
Magnitude	<--- JI	1.369	0.162	8.459	***
Frequency	<--- JI	1.416	0.167	8.476	***
Scope	<--- JI	1.000			
Vigor	<--- EE	1.219	0.174	7.012	***
Dedication	<--- EE	1.485	0.216	6.886	***
Absorption	<--- EE	1.000			
PMa	<--- PM	1.000			
PMb	<--- PM	0.953	0.095	10.016	***
PMd	<--- PM	1.254	0.131	9.537	***
PMc	<--- PM	1.095	0.123	8.936	***
PMe	<--- PM	1.170	0.119	9.858	***
JCf3	<--- Frequency1	1.000			
JCf2	<--- Frequency1	1.002	0.075	13.360	***
JCf1	<--- Frequency1	0.879	0.060	14.678	***
JCb2	<--- Breadth	1.030	0.060	17.027	***
JCb1	<--- Breadth	1.054	0.063	16.762	***
JCb3	<--- Breadth	1.000			
JCd3	<--- Depth	0.819	0.059	13.889	***
JCd2	<--- Depth	1.000			
JCd1	<--- Depth	0.994	0.061	16.299	***
JIm2	<--- Magnitude	1.000			
JIm3	<--- Magnitude	0.985	0.071	13.957	***
JIm1	<--- Magnitude	0.966	0.073	13.208	***
JIf3	<--- Frequency	1.121	0.086	13.062	***
JIf1	<--- Frequency	1.000			
JIf2	<--- Frequency	1.020	0.089	11.451	***
JIs2	<--- Scope	1.374	0.145	9.472	***
JIs1	<--- Scope	1.000			
EEv1	<--- Vigor	1.000			
EEv2	<--- Vigor	1.025	0.084	12.137	***
EEv3	<--- Vigor	1.056	0.106	9.964	***
EEd1	<--- Dedication	1.002	0.073	13.738	***
EEd2	<--- Dedication	1.000			

Label			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
EEd3	<---	Dedication	0.822	0.082	9.970	***
EEa2	<---	Absorption	1.000			
EEa3	<---	Absorption	0.813	0.164	4.952	***
EEa1	<---	Absorption	0.729	0.142	5.151	***

Table 3. Covariances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
PM	<-->	JC	0.144	0.089	1.617	0.106
PM	<-->	JI	0.286	0.072	3.943	***
PM	<-->	EE	0.066	0.049	1.335	0.182
JC	<-->	JI	0.518	0.133	3.890	***
JC	<-->	EE	0.464	0.119	3.904	***
JI	<-->	EE	0.368	0.088	4.171	***
e5	<-->	e6	0.389	0.100	3.894	***
e27	<-->	e28	0.200	0.051	3.910	***

Table 4. Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

		Estimate	
PM	<-->	JC	0.150
PM	<-->	JI	0.447
PM	<-->	EE	0.124
JC	<-->	JI	0.434
JC	<-->	EE	0.470
JI	<-->	EE	0.558
e5	<-->	e6	0.396
e27	<-->	e28	0.378

Table 5. Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

Label	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
PM	0.511	0.113	4.539	***	e10	0.829	0.124	6.705	***
JC	1.781	0.356	5.008	***	e11	1.005	0.136	7.381	***
JI	0.798	0.186	4.294	***	e12	0.708	0.168	4.223	***
EE	0.547	0.149	3.673	***	e13	0.742	0.107	6.916	***
e32	0.366	0.135	2.709	0.007	e14	0.652	0.097	6.742	***
e33	0.390	0.115	3.402	***	e15	0.713	0.111	6.440	***
e34	1.074	0.197	5.448	***	e16	0.623	0.096	6.498	***
e35	0.270	0.087	3.107	0.002	e17	0.492	0.084	5.837	***
e36	0.007	0.072	0.101	0.919	e18	0.894	0.115	7.792	***
e37	0.261	0.084	3.094	0.002	e19	1.263	0.159	7.918	***
e38	0.121	0.058	2.084	0.037	e20	1.035	0.147	7.024	***
e39	0.180	0.081	2.207	0.027	e21	0.819	0.106	7.736	***
e40	0.040	0.082	0.488	0.625	e22	0.896	0.120	7.448	***
e1	0.723	0.128	5.651	***	e23	0.643	0.094	6.867	***
e2	0.492	0.111	4.420	***	e24	0.393	0.065	6.039	***
e3	0.707	0.107	6.606	***	e25	0.373	0.062	6.036	***
e4	0.911	0.128	7.122	***	e26	0.223	0.058	3.849	***
e5	1.280	0.178	7.194	***	e27	0.608	0.076	8.015	***
e6	0.752	0.102	7.347	***	e28	0.461	0.058	7.905	***
e7	0.332	0.064	5.211	***	e29	0.229	0.038	5.996	***
e8	0.274	0.058	4.753	***	e30	0.308	0.043	7.216	***
e9	0.462	0.098	4.731	***	e31	0.115	0.026	4.336	***

Table 6. Squared Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
Absorption	0.932
Dedication	0.870
Vigor	0.870
Scope	0.753
Frequency	0.995
Magnitude	0.847
Depth	0.624
Breadth	0.818
Frequency1	0.850
PMe	0.859
PMc	0.666
PMd	0.778
PMb	0.502
PMa	0.457
EEd1	0.862
EEv1	0.714
EEv2	0.714
EEd2	0.683
EEv3	0.537
EEd3	0.533
EEa2	0.362
EEa3	0.235
EEa1	0.259
JIm2	0.782
JIm3	0.733
JIf3	0.739
JIf1	0.712
JIm1	0.690
JIs2	0.738
JIf2	0.625
JIs1	0.561
JCf3	0.841

	Estimate
JCb2	0.892
JCb1	0.877
JCb3	0.740
JCf2	0.656
JCd3	0.678
JCf1	0.727
JCd2	0.853
JCd1	0.796