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## THE POLISH ADAPTATION OF THE ENGAGEMENT IN MEANINGFUL ACTIVITIES SURVEY (EMAS)

This study aimed to determine the psychometric properties of the Polish version of the Engagement in Meaningful Activities Survey (EMAS; B. Goldberg, Brintnell, & J. Goldberg), which measures engagement in meaningful activities, understood as activities that serve a purpose significant from a personal or cultural perspective. We present definitions of key concepts, previous research related to the survey, and preliminary research on the Polish version of the survey. The study was conducted on a sample of 237 individuals: employees of cultural institutions, care associations, and corporations as well as teachers working in special schools and high schools. The results indicate a high reliability of the tool (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .88$ ). They also reveal relations between engagement in meaningful activities and variables such as meaningfulness of work ( $r = .65$ ) and job satisfaction ( $r = .65$ ), and differences across professions in the level of engagement in meaningful activities.

**Keywords:** engagement; meaningful activities; Engagement in Meaningful Activities Survey.

### INTRODUCTION

The study on the Engagement in Meaningful Activities Survey (EMAS; B. Goldberg, E. S. Brintnell, J. Goldberg, 2002) resulted from the need to measure the meaning ascribed by humans to various activities in specific areas of

their life. Activities are understood here as goal-oriented actions taken up freely and controlled volitionally (Mądrzycki, 2002, p. 72).

The investment of one's time and energy in various *occupations*, which belong to the category of activities, seems to be a natural tendency of every human being (Clark et al., 1991). Individuals engage in actions that allow them to find meaning in life (Klamut, 2012). The characteristic feature of human behavior is that it is oriented towards values and goals (Meesters, 2009). Therefore, it can be concluded that people will try to give meaning to the activities they undertake.

Theoreticians (occupational scientists) understand meaningful activities as personally and culturally significant activities that people engage in (Clark et al., 1991, p. 301). This is quite a general concept, not related to the traditionally defined idea of work, career, or activities aimed at increasing productivity (Clark et al., 1991). Thus understood, the concept of meaningful activities can embrace activities related to family life, domestic chores, and leisure time, including social meetings (entertaining guests, visiting friends), passive activities (reading, reading out loud), active activities (sports), or pursuing hobbies (Meesters, 2009). Each of these activities is related not only to a place, but also, primarily, to the meaning given by an individual: doing sport might mean caring about one's health; visiting friends may mean sharing things with other people; gardening may mean being active (Meesters, 2009). Lawton (1993) distinguished two kinds of meaning associated with leisure-time activities: denotative meaning, which refers to objective physical features of situations and various types of activities, and connotative meaning, which refers to subjective and emotional aspects of engagement in activities. Within the second group, Lawton distinguished activities based on experience, development, and the social aspect. He also underlined that each activity could have different connotations for different people. For example, for one person entertaining guests might mean sharing things with other people, for another one it might mean maintaining social contacts, and for yet another it might mean good fun (Meesters, 2009).

The measurement of meaning ascribed to various activities may have various forms. First, it is possible to assess the frequency, difficulty, or significance of engagement in a specific activity (Pushkar, Arbuckle, Conway, Chaikelson, & Maag, 1997). Another approach is focused on the contentment that individuals experience because of their engagement in a given activity. Research shows that the satisfaction derived from activities is positively correlated with life satisfaction (Fernandez-Ballesteros, Zammarron, & Ruiz, 2001).

Research shows that engagement in activities that are meaningful for an individual has positive consequences for their life and health. As Richardson,

Moore, Bernard, Jordan, & Sim (2015) have proven, engaging in and embarking on meaningful activities (physical or social) helped elderly people suffering from chronic muscle pain to reduce the negative consequences of pain and gave meaning to their lives. In a group of individuals addicted to alcohol, engagement in meaningful activities (mainly together with other people) made it possible to achieve a state of peace and relaxation. Moreover, it evoked a feeling of pride in themselves without the necessity of reaching for alcohol (Clark et al., 1991). In the case of young people, engagement in structured after-school activities that connected them with the outside world (making them go beyond the self) contributed to their success at school and improved their psychological well-being (Lawford & Ramey, 2015; Mahoney, Larson, Eccles, & Lord, 2005).

Work is one of the most basic activities among adults; therefore, a specific meaning should be also ascribed to it. According to Lewin (1920; as cited in Zeidler, 2011), the value of work is to give meaning and importance to an individual's life. Even though work is sometimes a burden, it can also be done for pleasure. The relation between work and individualism (as well as the fulfillment of individuals' wishes and expectations) is an indicator of the importance of work (Zeidler, 2011). Additionally, Frankl (1959/2009) claimed that work played an essential role in the formation of an individual's sense of meaning in life. It should be underlined here that work falls within the scope of the aforementioned definition of meaningful activities.

Meaningful work is that which is important to the person who performs it and is evaluated positively by every person (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). It can be understood as a basic human need which, when satisfied, serves higher needs, such as freedom, autonomy, and dignity (Yeoman, 2014). Meaningful work can also be considered from a moral perspective (Michaelson, Pratt, Grant, & Dunn, 2014). The factors that contribute to the existence of meaningful work are: the design of jobs, interpersonal relationships, mission, and organizational culture (Michaelson et al., 2014).

Work meaningfulness can be defined as the extent to which an employee experiences their work as meaningful and valuable (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 162). As stated by Spreitzer (1995), from a psychological perspective, work meaningfulness is a component of empowerment. As research conducted by May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) proves, the more a person defines their work as valuable according to their own personal standards, the more likely he or she is to engage in it. A relation between work engagement and work meaningfulness was also found in the study conducted by Soan and colleagues (2013), which

showed that work meaningfulness increased work engagement and that, consequently, it was associated with low absenteeism at work.

Another approach to work meaningfulness is related to the way of understanding one's own profession, the role performed at work, and self-realization through work (Czerw & Czarnota-Bojarska, 2016). Drawing on Bellah and colleagues (1985; as cited in Wrzesniewski, McCoulay, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997), Wrzesniewski presents a classification according to which work meaningfulness can be exteriorized through three types of attitude to work: job, career, and calling. His research (Wrzesniewski, 2003) revealed that treating work as a calling was strongly correlated with job satisfaction.

The main aim of the present paper is to present the psychometric properties of the Polish version of the Engagement in Meaningful Activities Survey (EMAS) by B. Goldberg, E. S. Brintnell, J. Goldberg (2002). Therefore, the first research question was as follows:

*Does the Polish version of the EMAS have sufficient psychometric properties to be used in scientific research?*

In order to answer the above question, it is crucial to investigate the validity of the EMAS/PL. The review of the literature presented above invites the second research question:

*What are the relations between engagement in meaningful activities and work meaningfulness, life satisfaction, and purpose in life?*

The variables mentioned above are correlates of engagement that allow for assessing the external validity of the tool. The results of previous research make it legitimate to hypothesize that engagement in meaningful activities will be positively related to these variables.

The secondary aim of the article is to compare the importance that employees ascribe to their activities across various types of work performed. For the purposes of the present study we distinguished social work, creative work in cultural institutions, teaching work in high schools or special schools, and office work in corporations providing consultancy services. These types of work were chosen because of the varying levels of diversity and innovativeness of the tasks involved: a specific type of social contact that the work requires (occasional vs. permanent) and different levels of job burnout risk; according to the model proposed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), the latter variable is negatively related to engagement. These considerations inspired the third research question:

*What significant differences in the level of engagement in meaningful activities occur between various types of work?*

## ENGAGEMENT IN MEANINGFUL ACTIVITIES SURVEY: RESEARCH DATA

The origin of the EMAS lies in the emergence of occupational therapy, which is based on the assumption that engagement in meaningful activities not only leads to increased performance level but also influences general life satisfaction. Bluma Goldberg, E. Sharon Brintnell and Jack Goldberg from the University of Alberta in Canada decided to develop an instrument for measuring these variables. The researchers relied on data from source literature (see Yerxa, 1998) and distinguished the following meanings and functions ascribed to activities: consistency between activities and the patient's/client's own system of values and needs; achieving a feeling of competence and proficiency through undertaking activities; the importance of an activity to the individual's social and cultural group (Goldberg, Brintnell, & Goldberg, 2002).

Initially, experts selected statements concerning engagement in meaningful activities. Next, five expert judges and four patients were asked to complete the questionnaire and to give feedback on the content of its items. On this basis, corrections were made in the phrasing of the items (Goldberg et al., 2002).

The questionnaire consists of instructions and 12 items introduced by the phrase "The activities I do..." Respondents use a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never*, 5 = *always*) to rate the extent to which a given item refers to them.

The first validation test (Goldberg et al., 2002) was conducted (individually) on a sample of 32 subjects (20 men and 12 women) aged 27 to 64 ( $M = 42.3$ ,  $SD = 9.91$ ) participating in a support program for individuals with mental disorders. The patients completed the EMAS questionnaire and the Symptom Checklist-90-Revised (SCL-90-R). They were also interviewed on the quality of their lives (Quality of Life Interview, QOLI). After 2-10 weeks, the test was repeated with half of the participants.

The psychometric properties of the questionnaire turned out to be good (according to Brzeziński's criteria; Brzeziński, 2006). The internal consistency of the EMAS scale was  $\alpha = .84$ , and test-retest reliability was  $r(14) = .69$ ,  $p < .05$ . Moreover, a positive correlation was found between the overall EMAS score and satisfaction with everyday life as well as situation at home ( $r = .38$ ) measured by QOLI.

Validation retesting (Eakman, Carlson, & Clark, 2010) was conducted on a sample of 154 individuals aged 65 to 100 (119 and 35 retired women and men, respectively;  $M = 80.5$ ,  $SD = 7.1$ ), by means of a questionnaire containing questions about their health: SF-36 Health Survey, as well as the Satisfaction With

Life Scale (SWLS) and the Purpose in Life Test (PIL). The researchers introduced a slight modification in the response scale of the EMAS, adding a description to each level (1 = *never*, 2 = *rarely*, 3 = *sometimes*, 4 = *often*, 5 = *always*). After one or two weeks, 25 randomly chosen participants were asked again to complete a reduced number of tools, including the EMAS.

The internal consistency of the EMAS (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) was .89, and the discriminatory power of individual items of the questionnaire ranged between .81 and .89. The values of test-retest reliability turned out to be moderate,  $r(24) = .56, p < .01$ . Exploratory factor analysis revealed two components that explained 56.8% of EMAS variance. The first one is called the Social-Experiential component (SEC), which explained 47.2% of variance and encompassed 7 out of 12 items. The second one was the Personal-Competence component (PCC), which accounted for 9.6% of variance and encompassed the other five statements. The two components were moderately correlated with each other ( $r = .62$ ); the EMAS as a whole was significantly positively correlated with the sense of purpose in life ( $r = .57$ ), life satisfaction ( $r = .35$ ), and mental health ( $r = .32$ ). A significant negative correlation was also found between EMAS and depressive symptoms ( $r = -.29$ ).

Eakman (2011) conducted validation retesting of the tool by electronic means, on a sample of 122 students: 71 women and 51 men ( $M = 27.1, SD = 8.0$ ). Apart from the EMAS questionnaire, participants completed the Psychological Needs Scale (PNS), which measures three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. They also completed the Sources of Meaning Profile (SOMP, an instrument that identifies the sources and measures the level of personal purpose in life), the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS-21, which measures three negative emotional states), and a short version of the Boredom Proneness Scale (BPS), which examines predisposition to experience boredom. The value of internal consistency for the EMAS (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) was .89. Positive correlations were found between the EMAS and personal purpose in life ( $r = .48$ ), competence need ( $r = .49$ ), autonomy need ( $r = .40$ ), and relatedness need ( $r = .32$ ) were obtained. Additionally, EMAS correlated significantly negatively with the predisposition to experience boredom ( $r = -.50$ ), depressive symptoms ( $r = -.40$ ), stress ( $r = -.28$ ) and anxiety ( $r = -.25$ ).

In a comparative study using the EMAS, devoted to the mental health of students who were Iraq and Afghanistan war veterans compared with non-veteran students, engagement in meaningful activities correlated positively with the sense of meaning of life ( $r = .50, p < .01$ ) and negatively with depressive symptoms

( $r = -.35, p < .05$ ) and posttraumatic stress ( $r = -.28, p < .05$ ) (Dutra, Eakman, & Shelly, 2016).

A Swedish version of the EMAS is currently being prepared (Brintnell, 2016, personal information).

### THE PROCEDURE OF ADAPTATION OF THE EMAS INTO POLISH

When designing the EMAS adaptation procedure, we drew on the article by B. Goldberg et al. (2002) in which the tool was published and described for the first time. We also referred to articles by Eakman et al. (2010) and Eakman (2011), who aimed to assess the psychometric properties of the questionnaire by testing a sample of Americans of various ages.

Initially, the entire measure was faithfully translated from English into Polish. Some modifications were introduced in order to avoid mistakes in the logic or meaning of the items. The translation was independently done by four psychologists with very good knowledge of English. As a result of group discussion, one Polish version of the tool was agreed on, which was then translated back into English by a professional translator. The comparison of both English versions led to the acceptance of the Polish measure in the present form.

The Polish version of the questionnaire thus obtained (Appendix) was used in the study whose aim was to assess its psychometric properties. We conducted the study between December 2015 and February 2016 on the following groups of employees: employees of cultural institutions doing creative work ( $n = 55$ ), employees of care associations ( $n = 56$ ), employees of corporations providing consultancy and recruitment services ( $n = 51$ ), and teachers of special schools and high schools ( $n = 75$ ). In total, the sample consisted of 205 women and 32 men, aged 21 to 64 ( $M = 36.7, SD = 9.98$ ), with work experience in the current position ranging between 2 months and 42 years ( $M = 10.7, SD = 10.04$ ).

In order to assess the psychometric properties of the tool, we computed internal consistency coefficients for the test as a whole as well as item-total correlations. We tested construct validity by performing explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis. The external validity of the tool was assessed with the following methods:

(1) The Psychological Meaningfulness Scale by D. Spreitzer and D. May, as adapted into Polish by E. Małopolska (2015). We used this instrument to measure the level of importance ascribed to work-related activities. The scale consists of

six items: half of them were taken from the Psychological Empowerment Scale developed by Spreitzer (1995) and were subsequently improved by May (2003, as cited in May et al., 2004). The internal consistency of the scale (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) was .90 (Małopolska, 2015).

(2) The Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) by A. Zalewska (2003). The scale consists of five items referring to the cognitive aspect of general job satisfaction. The internal consistency of the scale, Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .86. The construct validity of the scale is indicated by significant correlations with general job satisfaction

( $r = .65$ ), general life satisfaction ( $r = .35$ ), positive affect ( $r = .41$ ), and negative affect ( $r = -.37$ ) (Zalewska, 2003).

(3) The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) by E. Diener, R. A. Emmons, R. J. Larsen, and S. Griffin, as adapted into Polish by Z. Juczyński (2009). The scale consists of five items referring to satisfaction with one's own achievements and standards of living. The internal consistency of the scale, measured as Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , was .81. The construct validity of the scale is indicated by significant correlations with self-esteem ( $r = .56$ ), dispositional optimism ( $r = .45$ ), self-efficacy ( $r = .38$ ), and the level of perceived stress ( $r = -.58$ ) (Juczyński, 2011).

(4) The Purpose in Life Scale (PIL-6) by J. C. Crumbaugh, L. T. Maholick, as adapted into Polish by Z. Płużek (short version by J. Życińska and M. Januszek, 2011). We used this instrument to measure purpose in life. The internal consistency of the scale, measured as Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , was .85. The construct validity of the scale is indicated by significant negative correlations with scales measuring the level of depression (Beck Depression Inventory, BDI:  $r = -.64$ ; Geriatric Depression Scale:  $r = -.73$ ) and significant differentiation between volunteers and socially uninvolved persons.

#### PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE POLISH VERSION OF EMAS

In order to assess the psychometric properties of the EMAS/PL, we tested the reliability of the measure and its respective items. Next, we estimated the fit of the theoretical model to the empirical data through confirmatory factor analysis. We also assessed the convergent validity of the EMAS/PL.



### Reliability

We estimated the reliability of the EMAS/PL using the method of internal consistency (expressed as Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ).

Statistical analysis (chi-squared test) confirmed that the distribution of scores is close to normal (see Table 1). Item-total correlations were rather high, ranging from .48 to .73; however, the first item had a correlation of only .31 with the total score. The discriminatory power of individual items was between .86 and .89. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the EMAS/PL as a whole was .88 ( $M = 45.28$ ,  $SD = 6.36$ ). This result is comparable with the one obtained for the original scale (Eakman et al., 2010) and shows the high reliability of the test.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Coefficients of EMAS/PL*

| EMAS/PL item no. | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | Item-total correlation | Discriminatory power of items |
|------------------|----------|-----------|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1.               | 3.90     | 0.80      | .31                    | .89                           |
| 2.               | 3.98     | 0.76      | .53                    | .87                           |
| 3.               | 3.77     | 0.84      | .65                    | .87                           |
| 4.               | 3.82     | 0.83      | .73                    | .86                           |
| 5.               | 3.88     | 0.80      | .55                    | .87                           |
| 6.               | 3.40     | 0.78      | .49                    | .88                           |
| 7.               | 3.76     | 0.83      | .48                    | .88                           |
| 8.               | 3.87     | 0.74      | .70                    | .87                           |
| 9.               | 3.55     | 0.88      | .51                    | .88                           |
| 10.              | 3.81     | 0.83      | .68                    | .87                           |
| 11.              | 3.84     | 0.78      | .69                    | .86                           |
| 12.              | 3.71     | 0.80      | .63                    | .87                           |

### Validity

We assessed the construct validity of the questionnaire by means of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with VARIMAX rotation. First, we prepared a scree plot, which clearly indicated the unifactorial structure of the EMAS/PL. Next, we tested one-factor and two-factor models (Table 2). Factor loadings show the dominance of one factor; the first factor explains over 90% of variance and has more than 13 times larger input in the result than the other factor. Only in the case of item 7 is factor distinction clearly visible. The remaining items (including item 10, which has similar power as item 7) load the second factor and are clearly related to the first factor.

Table 2

*Loadings From Exploratory Factor Analysis of the EMAS/PL*

| EMAS item no. | Factor 1 |
|---------------|----------|
| 1.            | .33      |
| 2.            | .58      |
| 3.            | .69      |
| 4.            | .79      |
| 5.            | .59      |
| 6.            | .52      |
| 7.            | .51      |
| 8.            | .75      |
| 9.            | .54      |
| 10.           | .71      |
| 11.           | .76      |
| 12.           | .68      |

Next, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the one-factor and two-factor models. The obtained values of model fit to the data indicate that the two-factor model is slightly better fitted. However, after removing item 7, the one-factor model is clearly better fitted to the data (RMSEA = .076, CFI = .940, TLI = .925). It can therefore be concluded that the EMAS/PL is a one-factor scale and that the second factor is a fake factor created only by item 7. The results are concurrent with those of the validation analysis performed by the authors of the original version of the questionnaire.

Table 3

*Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis of the EMAS/PL*

| Indices                             | RMSEA | RMSEA<br>90% CI | CFI  | TLI  | SRMR | $\chi^2/df$ |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-----------------|------|------|------|-------------|
| 1-factor model*                     | .089  | [.072, .105]    | .907 | .887 | .049 | 2.837       |
| 2-factor model**                    | .083  | [.066, .100]    | .921 | .901 | .047 | 2.599       |
| 1-factor model<br>without item 7*** | .076  | [.057, .095]    | .940 | .925 | .043 | 2.337       |

Note. \*  $\chi^2(54) = 153.182$ ; \*\*  $\chi^2(53) = 137.751$ ; \*\*\*  $\chi^2(44) = 102.847$ ;  $p < .001$ .

In further analysis we decided to leave item 7, since it only slightly lowered the parameters of the scale.

In order to examine the external validity of the EMAS/PL, we used: the Psychological Meaningfulness Scale by G. Spreizer and D. R. May (Polish version by E. Małopolska, 2015); Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) by A. M. Zalewska (2003); the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) by E. Diener, R. A. Emmons, R. J. Larsen, and S. Griffin (Polish version by Z. Juczyński, 2009); and the Purpose in Life Test by J. C. Crumbaugh and L. T. Maholick (Polish version by Z. Płużek, short version by J. Życińska and M. Januszek, 2011). We predicted that engagement in meaningful activities would be positively related to variables measured by these instruments. The results of correlation analysis confirmed this hypothesis (Table 4). All correlation coefficients appeared to be positive and relatively high ( $p < .05$ ); there were positive correlations between engagement in meaningful activities and the meaning of work ( $r = .65$ ), job satisfaction ( $r = .65$ ), life satisfaction ( $r = .43$ ), and purpose in life ( $r = .41$ ).

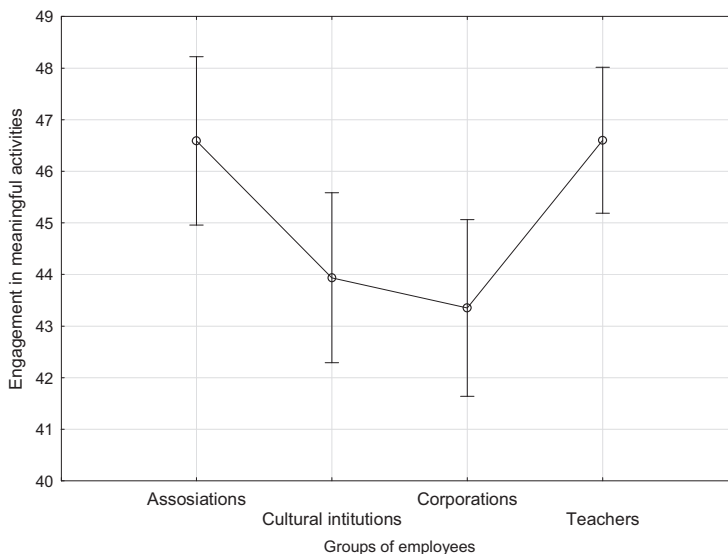
Table 4

*Correlations Between EMAS/PL and Related Variables*

| Method   | 1     | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5 |
|--|-------|------|------|------|---|
| 1. Engagement in Meaningful Activities Scale (EMAS/PL) | –     |      |      |      |   |
| 2. Psychological Meaningfulness Scale (PMS)            | 0.648 | –    |      |      |   |
| 3. Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS)                        | .653  | .649 | –    |      |   |
| 4. Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS)                 | .427  | .405 | .544 | –    |   |
| 5. Purpose in Life Scale (PIL-6)                       | .407  | .445 | .376 | .664 | – |

Note.  $p < .05$ .

We sought significant differences in the scope of engagement in meaningful activities between representatives of various professions using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results of the analysis (Figure 1) revealed significant differences in the dependent variable among the tested groups of employees,  $F(3, 233) = 4.46$ ,  $p < .005$ . Employees of care associations and teachers had a higher level of engagement in meaningful activities ( $M_{CA} = 46.59$  and  $M_T = 46.6$ , respectively) than employees of cultural institutions ( $M_{CI} = 43.94$ ) and corporations ( $M_C = 43.35$ ).



*Note.* .95 confidence intervals.

*Figure 1.* Mean scores on engagement in meaningful activities for different groups of employees.

## DISCUSSION

We found rather complex answers to the questions concerning: (1) sufficient psychometric properties of the Polish version of the EMAS; (2) the relations between engagement in meaningful activities and work meaningfulness, life satisfaction, and sense of purpose in life; (3) the character of engagement in meaningful activities depending on the type of work.

Our analyses showed that the Polish version of the EMAS was a method with high reliability and acceptable validity. The internal consistency of the Polish adaptation of the scale was similar to that of the original version. As regards the second research question, the results of correlation analysis confirmed the hypothesis. All correlation coefficients appeared to be positive and relatively high, as shown by the positive correlations of engagement in meaningful activities with work meaningfulness, job satisfaction (slightly lower), life satisfaction, and the sense of meaning in life. The significantly higher correlations with variables related to work rather than life might stem from the fact that the participants completed the questionnaire while at work and linked their EMAS/PL responses mainly, if not entirely, with work-related activities.

We obtained interesting results for the third question, since employees of care associations and teachers in special schools and high schools showed significantly higher engagement in meaningful activities than employees of cultural institutions and corporations. However, there were no differences between the latter two groups.

It is relatively easy to explain the high scores in the first group. Care association employees face many other people's problems every day. If they can solve these problems or improve their clients' standard of living even slightly, they gain a feeling of importance in what they do. As revealed by the study on engagement in meaningful activities conducted by May and colleagues (2004), of the three investigated factors (psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability of work) the first one is the most strongly related to work engagement. Moreover, teachers working in special schools and high schools face many difficult interpersonal situations every day, and in the course of their work they gain similar experience (see Tokarz & Trzebińska, 2012). In the two groups, interactions are similar: both a care client and a school pupil (especially a disabled one) are participants in social interaction aimed at improving the situation, with responsibility borne by those who provide assistance or teach. The results of short-term vs. long-term contact with subjects (beneficiaries) and the meaning of the diversity of social interactions in both instances should be examined.

The lack of difference in engagement in meaningful activities between employees of cultural institutions and corporations seems to be puzzling. The work of a recruitment specialist not only consists in conducting interviews, but it is mostly repetitive work based on specific procedures and requires a significant amount of time preparing documents on a computer. On the other hand, the work of a curator or a cultural manager is generally diverse and changeable and requires some innovativeness. However, as can be concluded from the presented research, the sense of meaning evoked by the two types of work does not differ significantly. It is possible there are other factors behind the similarity of beliefs in the two groups: for example, the organizational culture in the investigated corporations (two companies) which allowed their employees to shape their work and, consequently, to give it a personal touch. It is worth noting that, in contrast to the groups of caregivers and teachers, there are no interactions of great significance in this case. Contact with others is rather instrumental and usually brief; therefore, the consequences do not involve responsibility. Their success is somewhat determined by conscientiousness and, to some degree, by inventiveness. As regards the probable motives behind such activities, it can be surmised that the first group is driven by affiliative motivations or the need to maintain

social contacts, while the second group pursues motives of competence and power (McClelland, 1986; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). This is consistent with the specificity of activity and results in the disparity in feedback as well as different references to the sphere of values and to the self.

In the future, research should be conducted among other occupational groups, more varied in terms of gender (i.e., with more men). Due to the nature of the organizations in which we performed the adaptation of the scale, women constitute a significant majority of employees (GUS, 2014). Within the framework of repeated validation tests, the validity of the EMAS/PL in reference to the construct of *intrinsic motivation* should be investigated.

In research of the phenomenon of engagement in meaningful activities, it might be valuable to gather information about the relation of this variable to interpersonal relationships at work (e.g., social support), objective measures of employee productivity (e.g., absenteeism level), or other characteristics of work context (such as job demands and resources). The results of longitudinal research using EMAS/PL to determine if the level of engagement in meaningful activities can change over time might also be interesting.

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## APPENDIX

### ENGAGEMENT IN MEANINGFUL ACTIVITIES SCALE – POLISH VERSION (EMAS/PL) AUTHORS OF THE ORIGINAL ENGLISH VERSION: B. GOLDBERG, E. S. BRINTNELL, J. GOLDBERG

Poniżej znajdują się stwierdzenia dotyczące Twoich aktywności.

Proszę przeczytać każde z nich uważnie i zaznaczyć „X” w rubryce, która najlepiej wskazuje, w jakim stopniu te twierdzenia odnoszą się do Ciebie, gdy: 1 – „Nigdy”, 2 – „Rzadko”, 3 – „Czasem”, 4 – „Często”, 5 – „Zawsze”.

Nie spiesz się i postaraj się odpowiadać tak dokładnie, jak to możliwe.

1. Działania, których się podejmuję, pomagają mi zadbać o siebie (np. utrzymać higienę, planować wydatki).
2. Działania, których się podejmuję, odzwierciedlają to, kim jestem.
3. Działania, których się podejmuję, są wyrazem mojej kreatywności.
4. Działania, których się podejmuję, pomagają mi osiągnąć poczucie spełnienia.
5. Działania, których się podejmuję sprawiają, że czuję się osobą kompetentną.
6. Działania, których się podejmuję, są doceniane przez innych.
7. Działania, których się podejmuję, pomagają innym ludziom.
8. Działania, których się podejmuję, sprawiają mi przyjemność.
9. Działania, których się podejmuję, dają mi poczucie kontroli.
10. Działania, których się podejmuję, pomagają mi wyrażać cenione przeze mnie wartości.
11. Działania, których się podejmuję, dają mi poczucie satysfakcji.
12. Działania, których się podejmuję, są dla mnie odpowiednim wyzwaniem.