Universiti Utara Malaysia

SOFT HRM PRACTICES, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, WORK-RELATED SUPPORT AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT IN BANGLADESH BANKING SECTOR

ALIMA AKTAR

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA

March 2018

SOFT HRM PRACTICES, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, WORK-RELATED SUPPORT AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT IN BANGLADESH BANKING SECTOR

By

ALIMA AKTAR

Thesis Submitted to
School of Business Management,
Universiti Utara Malaysia,
in Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

ABSTRACT

Although employee engagement has got a great attention among the industry practitioners in recent times, it requires more considerations particularly in the academic literature. Due to the inconclusive results of previous studies on the antecedent factors of employee engagement, this study empirically investigate the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement among the banking employees. This study also determines whether organizational commitment can act as a mediator on HRM practices-employee engagement linkage and work-related support (i.e. supervisor, co-worker and organizational) can moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement. The research framework of this study is developed under the norms of social exchange theory (SET). Self-administered questionnaires are distributed to the banking employees who are working in Dhaka city in Bangladesh. A total of 383 banking employees are involved in this survey study confirming a response rate of 72%. This study utilizes the partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to analyze and establish the reliability and validity of measurement model and to investigate the relationships of structural model. The findings of this study show that all the HRM practices namely career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development are significantly and positively related to employee engagement. Furthermore, this study also found that organizational commitment partially mediates the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement. In addition, results of this study show that work-related support namely supervisor support and organizational support can moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement while co-worker cannot act as a moderator. This study further discusses the theoretical contribution and managerial implications for academics and professionals. The limitations of this study are also discussed and addressed with some valuable recommendations for further research directions.

Keywords: employee engagement, HRM practices, organizational commitment, work-related support, social exchange theory

ABSTRAK

Walaupun keterikatan pekerja telah mendapat perhatian yang banyak dalam kalangan pengamalan industri masa kini, hal ini memerlukan lebih banyak pertimbangan terutama dalam kesusateraan akademik. Disebabkan dapatan kajian lepas tentang faktor penyebab keterikatan pekerja yang belum muktamad, kajian ini menyiasat secara empirik hubungan antara amalan pengurusan sumber manusia dan keterikatan pekerja dalam kalangan pekerja bank. Kajian ini juga menentukan sama ada komitmen organisasi boleh bertindak sebagai pengantara dalam hubungan antara amalan pengurusan sumber manusia dan keterikatan pekerja; dan sokongan berkaitan kerja (penyelia, rakan sekerja dan organisasi) boleh menyerdehana hubungan antara komitmen organisasi dan keterikatan organisasi. Kerangka kerja kajian ini dibentuk berdasarkan teori pertukaran sosial (SET). Soalselidik dilaksana sendiri diedarkan kepada pekerja bank yang bekerja di Bandar Dhaka, Bangladesh. Sejumlah 383 pekerja bank terlibat dalam kajian ini, mengesahkan kadar respons 72%. Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah *partial least squares structural equation modeling* (PLS-SEM) untuk menganalisis dan menentukan kebolehpercayaan dan kesahan model pengukur dan menyiasat hubungan model struktur. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa semua amalan pengurusan sumber manusia, iaitu kemajuan kerjaya, penglibatan pekerja, jaminan pekerjaan, maklumbalas prestasi, ganjaran & pengiktirafan, latihan & pembangunan, mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dan positif dengan keterikatan pekerja. Selain itu, kajian ini juga mendapati bahawa komitmen organisasi separa mengantara hubungan antara amalan sumber manusia dan keterikatan pekerja. Tambahan lagi, hasil dapatan kajian menunjukkan sokongan berkaitan kerja, iaitu sokongan penyelia dan organisasi boleh menyerdehana hubungan antara komitmen organisasi dan keterikatan pekerja, manakala sokongan rakan sekerja tidak bertidak sebagai penyederhana. Seterusnya kajian ini membincangkan sumbangan teori dan implikasi praktikal untuk akademik dan professional. Kekangan kajian juga dibincangkan dan ditangani dengan beberapa cadangan yang berharga berkaitan halatuju penyelidikan seterusnya.

Kata kunci: keterikatan pekerja, amalan pengurusan sumber manusia, komitmen organisasi, sokongan berkaitan kerja, teori pertukaran sosial

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

xiii

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

HRM	:	Human Resource Management
OC	:	Organizational Commitment
WRS	:	Work Related Support
SS	:	Supervisor Support
CWS	:	Co-Worker Support
OS	:	Perceived Organizational Support
BBS	:	Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
CPD	:	Center for Policy Dialog
DSE	:	Dhaka Stock Exchange
DMA	:	Dhaka Metropolitan Area
SET	:	Social Exchange Theory
JD-R	:	Job-Demand Resource
PCBs	:	Private Commercial Banks
MBI	:	Maslach Burnout Index
PLS-SEM	:	Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling
AVE	:	Average Variance Extracted
HTMT	:	Heterotrait-Monotrait
HCM	:	Hierarchical Component Model

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present the background of the study, research problem and research questions, objective and scope of the study, significant of the study, and definition of key terms related to this research. The chapter concludes with describing the organization of the thesis.

1.1   Background of the Study

As employees with higher engagement at works can contribute more in organizational success and competitiveness (Al Mehrzi & Singh, 2016; Gruman & Saks, 2011), organizations need to emphasize on higher level of employees' engagement (Ugaddan & Park, 2017; Tummers et al., 2016; Meng & Wu, 2015). In addition, an ample of prior studies observed the positive effect of employee engagement on organizational performance (Hansen, Byrne & Kiersch, 2014; Agarwal, 2014; Mohamed & Yeo, 2014; Menguc, Auh, Fisher & Haddad, 2013; Li, Sanders & Frenkel, 2012; Dalal, Baysinger, Brummel & LeBreton, 2012; Chughtai & Buckley, 2011; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010; Saks, 2006), financial results (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009), return on assets and profitability (Macey et al., 2009), employees' job performance (Mackay, Allen & Landis, 2016; Bakker & Bal, 2010) and customer satisfaction (Salanova et al., 2005). This is imperative, thus, for organizations to focus on

1

the development of employee engagement for sustainable performances in the present highly competitive business environment (Rai et al., 2017; Macey et al., 2009).

Nevertheless, according to the Gallup's survey (2017) on 155 countries, average 15% employees are engaged at work, which, on the other hand, indicates that majority of the employees are disengaged around the world. Furthermore, 85% of global employees are not engaged at work which suggest that majority of the employees are in job with lack of motivation and are not putting their discretionary effort in organizational outcomes.

The region wise results in Figure 1.1 of the survey show a wide variation of the level of engagement among different country in South Asian region. Though there is no data directly related to the current study context like Bangladesh, but results show the level of engaged employees in the neighboring country like India and Pakistan. On average employees in South Asian countries like India and Pakistan have 12% and 5% engaged workers respectively. As disengaged employees are psychologically absent at works (Sonnentag, 2012), their disengagement may negatively affect their productivity. For example, disengagement of employees in USA leads loss of productivity which costs USD300 billion per year (Gallup survey, 2013). Therefore, employee engagement can be a critical issue in the context of an emerging South Asian country namely Bangladesh.
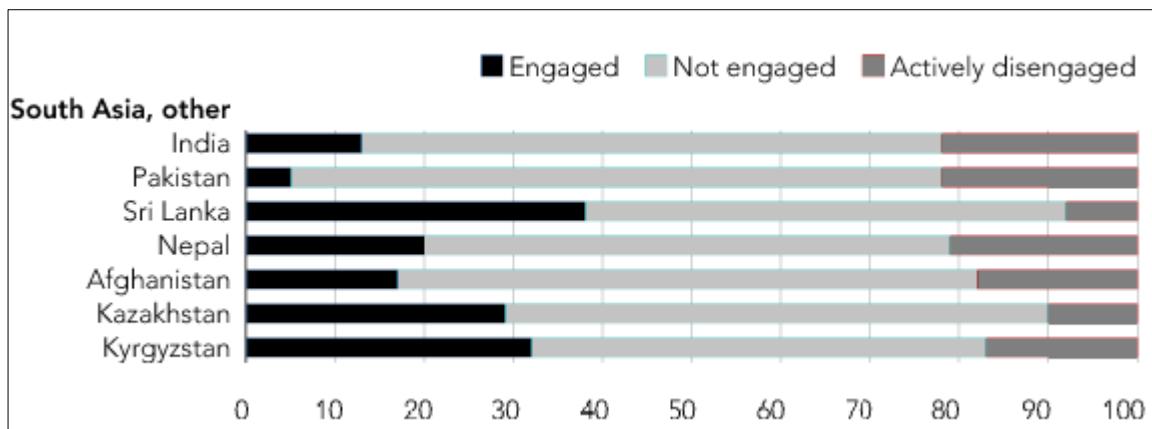
Figure 1.1
Employee engagement in Asia (in percent)

On contrary, engaged employees are energetically and effectively connected to their work (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007), which, in turn, positively affect organizational performance metrics such as customer satisfaction, loyalty, profitability and productivity (Harter et al., 2002). In addition, Holly and Clifton, (2009) commented on the results of Gallup's survey as even in the context of low level engagement, employee engagement leads to increased customer satisfaction, which leads to revenues and, eventually, more job opportunities for others. On the backdrop of crucial role of employee engagement along with the low level of engagement in organizations around the world, the critical issue can be identified as how to increase the level of employee engagement for better organizational performance.

1.2 Banking Industry in Bangladesh

Bangladesh is an over populated country where 45 percent of population are under the poverty line. Moreover, with the high unemployment rate (9.3%), the country is suffering from immense social, political, economic and environmental problems, which should be addressed properly for its overall development. However, the economic development is one of the major agendum that may improve the overall situation of the country (Rahman, Pervin, Jahan, Nasrullah & Begum, 2011). According to Rai et al. (2017), economic development is the raising of the productive capacity through the policies that will enhance the productivity of land, labor and capital, increase the living of standard and decrease or alleviate the poverty of the people of the country. For the developing economies, desired level of economic development is needed for various reasons. For instance, increasing population, limited resources, high rate of unemployment, low-level of living of standard and so on. In fact, a much-desired economic development can be attained by formulating capital through a healthy financial system. Bank plays a pivotal role for a well-organized financial system. According to Masum, Azad and Beh (2015), banks have the vital influences for the economic growth of Bangladesh. After achieving the independence in 1971, Bangladesh, as part of the adaption of socialistic economic framework, nationalized all private banks and form four state-owned banks. However, in the late 1980s, Bangladesh gradually started to reform its economy in line with capitalistic system, allowed to establish private banks. At present, there are about fifty local banks in Bangladesh, and most of them are private commercial banks and specialized banks except for four are nationalized commercial banks (Bangladesh Bank).

The banking industry in Bangladesh is not the same as seen in the other developed countries. This is one of the major service sector in Bangladesh, which contributes significantly to the national economy (Masum et. al., 2015). Moreover, bank is an organization that is wholly designated with the pure service and has some exceptional characteristics, which make it different from physical products (Zeithaml & Bitner 1996). As the banking sector is more about service oriented, the performance of banks depends not only on the available of physical resources but also on the quality and competence of their employees (Masum et al., 2015; Lee & Ok, 2013, 2014). According to Vargo and Lusch, (2004), under the Service-Dominant Logic, it has been documented that employees are the fundamental building blocks for the service organizations. The performance of the two banks may vary because of the utilization of the value of employees (Nguyen, Islam, & Ali, 2011; Quresh, Akbar, Khan, Sheikh, & Hijazi, 2010). In fact, for the service organizations, employees are the most significant variable for their success (Suan & Nasurdin, 2014; Musgrove et al., 2014; Slatten & Mehmetoglu, 2011; Chebat et al., 2003; Hartline et al., 2000). In fact, in the banking industry, banks will be able to make profitable banking operations and provision of better services from their employees by ensuring an effective set of human resource management (HRM) practices (Presbitero, 2017; Vemic´-Đurkovic´, Jotic´, & Maric´, 2013; Haines & St-Onge, 2012). Consequently, the employees will engage to the organization only when they feel comfortable at their work place (Shuck et al., 2014). However, despite the recognition of importance of HRM practices to foster employees' engagement towards their jobs, very little research has been conducted to establish the strong linkage of HRM practices and employee engagement in banking sector (Chen, 2017; Menguc et al., 2013; Ashill & Rod, 2011).

5

Bangladesh is a South Asian emerging economy has got attention of the global economy for its consistent growth for last two decades and banking sector is projected to contribute in this growth. Though Bangladesh adapted socialistic economic approach after its independence in 1971, it gradually transforms its economic policy in line with market-based economy. The banking industry in Bangladesh is one of the major service sector in Bangladesh that contributes significantly to the national economy (Masum et. al., 2015). As a bank-based economy, Bangladesh significantly depends on financial institutions to meet the increasing capital need for its expanding business and economic activities. As the banking sector is more about service oriented, the performance of banks depends not only on the available of physical resources but also on the quality and competence of their employees (Masum et al., 2015; Lee & Ok, 2014). Therefore, overall economic performance of Bangladesh importantly depends on efficient performance of banks to formulate and supply adequate capital to businesses. In addition, as banking sector is the highly human resource based industry, banks rely on the outcomes of its employees for their ultimate performance. Thus, it is an important issue to investigate employee engagement of the banks in Bangladesh.

1.3   Problem Statement

Though employee engagement, in the last decade, has got nascent attention in the literature of HRM field, little is known about the effect of organizational practices (e.g., HRM practices) on employee engagement (Chen, 2017; Karatepe & Demir, 2014;

6

Wollard & Shuck, 2011; Lee Whittington & Galpin, 2010). Moreover, previous research provides inconclusive results which are deficient in understanding about the role of various organizational practices to enhance employee engagement (Suan & Nasurdin, 2014; Reissner & Pagan, 2013). Inconclusive results of prior empirical studies (e.g., Suan & Nasurtin, 2014; Shuck et al., 2014; Karatepe,2013; Saks 2006) and thought provoking debates of extant conceptual papers (e.g., Brown et. al., 2013; Welch, 2011; Lee Whittington & Galpin, 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) warrant the further study about the factors affecting employee engagement. In the context of service organizations, more specifically, employee engagement is more critical because of the crucial role of organizational practices (i.e. HRM practices) (Yeh, 2013; Ashill & Rod, 2011). Therefore, a suitable question can be asked as what are the factors affect the level of employee engagement. Therefore, this study attempts to develop a theoretical model, under the Social Exchange Theory (SET), explaining the role of HRM practices, Organizational Commitment (OC) and Work-Related Support (WRS) on employee engagement.

According to Kahn (1990), when employees get clear benefits (i.e., psychological meaningfulness), protective guarantees (i.e. psychological safety), and resources to honor (i.e., psychological availability) from their organizations, they tend to engage more at work .Since HRM practices are considered critically to lead these psychological conditions (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994, Rousseau & Greller, 1994), an organization can enhance the extent of employee engagement by adoption appropriate HRM practices. Moreover, organizational factors are more critical to influence an individual's attitude (Huang, Ma & Meng, 2017; Salanova et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 1998). Scholars have

7

argued that organizational factors i.e. HRM practices play a key role to promote positive attitudes among employees (Huang et al., 2017; Othman & Nasurdin, 2013; Ashill & Rod, 2011; Zavyalova et al., 2011; Kusluvan et al., 2010), positively affect employee behavior and level of motivation that all are characterized by employee engagement (Huang et al., 2017; Karatepe, 2013; Christian et al., 2011; Salanova et al., 2005; Delery & Shaw, 2001). A possible link, therefore, can be expected between HRM practices and employee engagement. However, most of the previous studies considered job-related factors such as autonomy (Taipale, Selander, Anttila & Natti, 2011; Slattery et al., 2010), social support (Othman & Nasurdin, 2013; Taipale, Selander, Anttila & Natti, 2011), supervisory support (Othman & Nasurdin, 2013; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009), job control (Biggs, Brough & Barbour, 2014) and personal related factors such as self-efficacy (Lee & Ok, 2015; Chaudhary, Rangnekar & Barua, 2012), optimism (Innanen, Tolvanen & Salmela-Aro, 2014; Barkhuizen, Rothmann & Vijver, 2014), organizational-based self-esteem (Mauno et al., 2007) as the predictors of employee engagement. In addition, most of the prior research (e.g., Chen, 2017; Huang et al., 2017; Karatepe, 2013; Menguc et al., 2013; Azoury et al., 2013) considered HRM practices as a bundle of individual practices that are likely to use as a combined measure. Chen (2017), for instance, used training, promotion, security, appraisal and empowerment as an aggregate measure of HRM practices to examine as the predictor of employee engagement. Moreover, there is a scant research has been conducted to identify the individual impact of HRM practices on engagement (Saks, 2006; Suan & Nasurdin, 2014). Moreover, prior studies (Huang et al., 2017) considered AMO dimension of HRM practices by ignoring the dimension of soft HRM practices (Marescaux et al., 2012). Marescaux et al., (2012) noted that soft HRM practices emphasize on the development and empowerment of the employees to make a skilled

8

workforce who can ultimately help to enhance organizational performance. As such, soft HRM approach comprises the practices that help to create participative and proactive labor force (Stone et al., 2009) and accordingly, Marescaux et al., (2012) mentioned HRM practices that are considered as "soft" such as employee participation, career development, training, developmental feedback. Furthermore, Kusluvan et al. (2010) recommended that there is no single policy that establishes HRM practices for the service industry which suggested that HRM practices should be tailored for empirically testing in the context of different service organizations. In addition, scholars also pointed out that limited studies have conducted to examine the predictors of employee engagement in the context of service industry (Presbitero, 2017; Lee & Ok, 2015; Suan & Nasurdin, 2013; Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011; Karatepe, 2011; Kim et al., 2009). These despondencies of literature imply the limited implications of extant evidence on HRM-engagement linkage which, indeed, merits the further research on the relationship (Arrowsmith & Parker, 2013). The current study, thus, attempts to fill up these research gaps by conceptualizing the individual role of different soft HRM practices (Performance Feedback, Job Security, Career Advancement, Training & Development, Rewards & Recognition and Employee Participation) on employee engagement.

Though a number of substantial research focuses on the relationship between HRM practices and employee outcomes (Den Hartog et al., 2013; Boxall et al., 2011), the mechanisms and processes by which the relationship works has not been adequately addressed in the literature (Chen, 2017; Karatepe, 2013; Wright et al., 2003), which is termed as "black box" problem. Prior studies (e.g., Huang et al., 2017; Boon & Kalshoven,

9

2014; Menguc et al., 2013; Anitha, 2013; Alfes, Shantz, Truss & Soane, 2013; Wright et al., 2003), in consistent with the "black box" problem, found that the relationship between HRM practices and employee outcomes is not straightforward, and the relationship is supposed to be mediated by some mechanisms. In addition, some researchers (Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015; Biswas, Varma & Ramaswami, 2013; Bal, Kooijand Jong, 2013; Volpone, Avery & McKay, 2012) identified the HRM practices-employee performance relationship as a conditional relationship which depends on some other organizational-specific and/or employee-specific factors. In order to deepen understanding of the mechanisms inside the "black box" of the HRM-employee outcome relationship, this study theorizes the mediating role of Organizational Commitment (OC) in the relationship of HRM practices and employee engagement. Previous studies (e.g., Nasomboon, 2014; Lamba & Choudhary, 2013; Bal et al., 2013; Ram & Prabhakar, 2011; Zaitouni, et al., 2011), observed significant positive impact of HRM practices on OC, while some other studies (e.g., Yalabik et al, 2013; Shuck et al., 2011; Hakanen et al., 2006; Saks, 2006) found the positive association between OC and employee engagement. Although a set of prior studies (e.g., Sharma & Sharma, 2010; Mohapatra & Sharma, 2010; Papalexandris & Galanaki, 2009) concerned to treat employee engagement as a distinct concept than OC, Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) noted that academic scholars define employee engagement as a unique construct. According to Saks (2006), as employee engagement consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components related with individual role performance, it is notably distinguishable from OC. In addition, the 'discriminant validity' between these two constructs in prior research (Christian et al., 2011; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006) suggests employee entanglement as a distinct construct. However, the causal order between OC and engagement is not clear rather inconclusive (Hakanen &

10

Roodt, 2010). Though some previous studies (Nazir & Islam, 2017; Ghosh et al., 2016; Albrecht, 2012; Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011) considered employee engagement as the predictor of OC, other studies (Katou, 2017; van Gelderen & Bik, 2016; Yalabik, 2013, Shuck et al., 2011, Barnes & Collier, 2013) considered OC as the antecedent of employee engagement. Further, Scholars (Yalabik, 2013; Ibrahim & Falasi, 2014) pointed out two important reasons to consider the OC as an antecedent of employee engagement rather than outcome. First, as OC is treated as an antecedent of various forms of psychological or behavioral outcomes of employees (Zopiatis, Constanti & Theocharous, 2014; Kara, Uysal, Sirgyand Lee, 2013; Macey & Schneider, 2008), it might be the predictor of the employee engagement which, in fact, is one of psychological outcomes (Jose & Mampilly, 2014; Woods & Sofat, 2013; Leroy, Anseel, Dimitrova & Sels, 2013; Soane, Shantz, Alfes, Truss, Rees & Gatenby, 2013; Robertson, Brich & Cooper, 2012; Kahn, 1990). Second, since OC involves the emotional attachment of employees to an organization, it provides them the confidence to ask for necessary resources and exert energy towards their jobs, which in turn improves the level of employee well-being (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). In this vein, to address the above debates between OC and employee engagement, this study considers OC as an antecedent of employee engagement, and conceptualizes the mediating role of OC in the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement.

Though recent academic researchers (e.g., Karatepe & Demir, 2014; Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe et al., 2010; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009) have focused on predictors and mediators of employee engagement, the moderating impact of availability of supports

within the organization have been still elusive (Rai, Ghosh, Chauhan & Mehta, 2017; Lee & Ok, 2015; Rich et al., 2010). Parker and Griffin (2011) argued that low levels of HRM outcomes (i.e. OC) not necessarily always exert low levels of behavioral outcomes (i.e. employee engagement), because other resources in the organizations may buffer the relationship. Scholars argued that a moderating variable play an important role of buffering effect to modify the relationship (Hur, Han, Yoo & Moon, 2015; Emmerik, Jawahar & Stone, 2005; Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001). According to Shantz et al. (2014), employees with high level of behavioral outcome such as employee engagement may exert from different sources of Work-Related Support (WRS) such as Supervisor Support (SS), Co-Worker Support (CWS) and Organizational Support (OS). Moreover, prior research (e.g., Rai et al., 2017; Hur et al., 2015; Vera, Martínez, Lorente & Chambel, 2015; De Clercq, Bouckenooghe, Raja & Matsyborska, 2014; Showail, Parks & Smith, 2013; Alfes et al., 2013; Sawang, 2012) suggested that elements of WRS can play moderating role and create the buffering effect to reduce employees' negative behavior and increase their positive behavior (i.e. psychological outcomes) towards the organization. In order to illuminate the understanding of the relationship between OC and employee engagement, this study, thus, considers the moderating role of SS, CWS and OS in the OC-engagement linkage. Khan (1990) observed that supportive interpersonal relationship, group and intergroup dynamics as well as management style and process promote psychological safety, which, in turn, enhances employee engagement (Rana et al., 2014; Nahum-Shani & Bamberger, 2011). Indeed, psychological safety can be enhanced when the interpersonal relationship with peers, supervisors and organization are supportive and trustworthy (Burke et al., 2012; Khan 1990). In the empirical test of the model by Khan (1990), May et al. (2004) found that the CWS and SS positively affect

psychological safety and employee engagement. In a recent meta-analysis study of Ahmed et al., (2015) found the positive effect of OS on employee engagement. Some prior studies (e.g., Vera et al., 2015; Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015; Guchait et al., 2014; De Clercq et al, 2014; Sarti, 2014; Breevaart et al., 2014; Agarwal, 2014; Othaman & Nasurdin, 2013; Sulea et al., 2012), in the similar vein, identified the positive influence of SS, CWS and OS on employee engagement. For example, Sarti (2014), based on the study among employees in Italian context, found that CWS significant predictors employee engagement. Similarly, positive association between OS and engagement was also observed among Romanian employees (Sulea et al., 2012). With a sample of 510 employees, Agarwal (2014) explored the positive impact of SS on employee engagement which suggests that the supporting relationship with supervisors is considered as one of the main elements of employee's work environment (Van der Heijden et al., 2010) which may increase their employees' engagement as well (Blancero et al., 1996). In addition, workplace support can also play an extrinsic motivational role as a resourceful work environment (Caesens et al., 2014) which, in turn, increases the employees' engagement to work (Biswas, Varma & Ramaswami, 2013; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Moreover, according to Eisenberger et al., (2002), WRS is a social exchange construct, in which employees perceive the extent of support from their supervisors, co-workers and organizations. However, though prior studies considered different elements of WRS (such as SS, CWS and OS) as the predictors of employee engagement, limited research focused on the moderating role of WRS in the relationship of employee engagement with its antecedents (Rai et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2014). The current study thus, aims to fill up this research gap to theorize the components of WRS such as SS, CWS and OS as moderating factor in the relationship of OC and employee engagement. The possible results of this

13

study enhance our understanding about the dynamics of WRS in explaining the relationship between OC and employee engagement.

In the academic literature, engagement has been conceptualized based on the dominant framework of job-demand-resource (JD-R) model proposed by Bakker and Demerouti (2007). This model explained employee engagement based on job and personal related resources. Authors (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) incorporated physical, organizational, and social aspects of a job that could help to reduce job related demands and different physiological or psychological costs; give opportunity for learning and internal growth; and help to attain work objectives (de Lange et al., 2008). The JD-R model is a very influential framework to establish the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. However, JD-R model cannot explain the varying level of engagement among employees, and thus, research gaps still remain that needs to be addressed. For example, Saks (2006) argued that the more theoretical foundation has been found to explain employee engagement in the reciprocal norms of social exchange theory (SET), that describes the mutual relationship between two parties (Presbitero, 2017; Karatepe, 2011). Therefore, this study develops the framework to explain the relationship between soft HRM practices, OC, WRS and employee engagement under the tenet of SET.

Prior section of this study pointed out that the banking sector is one of the leading industries of Bangladesh that significantly contribute in its national economy. As a service industry, performance of banking industry crucially depends on availability of competent

14

human resources and the proper utilization of the human resources (Vemic´-Đurkovic´, Jotic´, & Maric´, 2013; Haines & St-Onge, 2012). In fact, managing human resources for the optimum performance is one of the major challenges faced by the banks in Bangladesh (Masum, et al., 2015). Furthermore, low level of employee engagement has been found among the South Asian countries, it is essential to conduct more research on this issue to enhance the understanding of factors that may improve the level of engagement particularly in South Asia. In addition, the unequal impact of HRM practices on banking employees' behavior (Majumder, 2012) indicates the inconclusive findings about the role of HRM practices in enhancing employees' outcomes. Thus, the current study focuses on the banking sector in Bangladesh to investigate the HRM practices-employee engagement relationship. While most of the existing research related to employee engagement focused on western countries (e.g., Rees et al., 2013; Alfes et al., 2013; Arrowsmith & Parker, 2013; Shantz et al., 2013), more attention is required in non-western contexts (Rai et al., 2017; Poon, 2013). The purpose of this study is to explore the role of soft HRM practices to make an engaged workforce, and to investigate the black-box mechanism through which HRM practices and employee engagement relationship exists in Bangladesh banking sector. Furthermore, this study also intends to explore the moderating role of WRS in OC-employee engagement link.

1.4 Research Questions

Although many organizations have started to consider employee engagement as a key performance indicator (MacLeod & Clarke, 2009; Rees et al., 2013), there is still little consensus about antecedents and consequences of the engagement (Fleck & Inceoglu, 2010). In addition, there is a huge scarcity of empirical research into how do organizations develop and implement HRM strategies for enhancing employee engagement (Arrowshmith & Prarker, 2013). In this regard, a growing number of studies (e.g., Rees et al., 2013; Yalabik et al., 2013; Kuhnel et al., 2009; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Saks, 2006; Maslach et al., 2001) identified employee engagement as a unique construct and recommended for further study. Therefore, the current study is another initiative intends to answer the following research questions derived based on research gaps identified in the prior section.
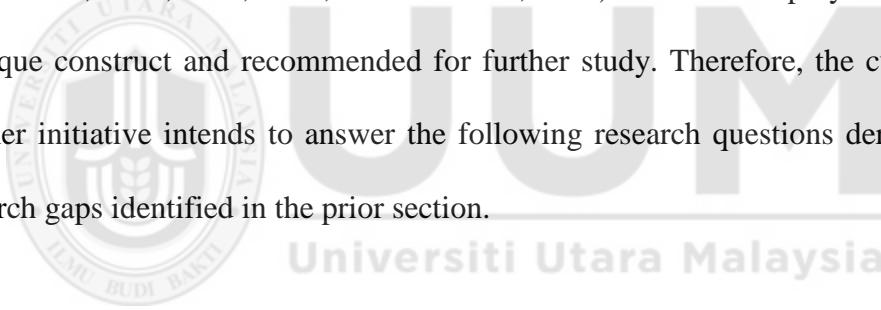
(a) Do HRM Practices (Performance Feedback, Job Security, Career Advancement, Training & Development, Rewards & Recognition and Employee Participation) related to employee engagement?

(b) Do HRM Practices (Performance Feedback, Job Security, Career Advancement, Training & Development, Rewards & Recognition and Employee Participation) related to organizational commitment?

(c) Does organizational commitment related to employee engagement?

(d) Does organizational commitment mediate the relationship between HRM practices (Performance Feedback, Job Security, Career Advancement, Training & Development, Rewards & Recognition and Employee Participation) and employee engagement?

(e) Does Work-Related support (WRS) (i.e. supervisor, co-worker and organizational support) moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement?

1.5   Research Objectives

In general, the purpose of the current study is to explore the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement through OC of banking employees in Bangladesh. Moreover, this study is also intended to examine the moderating effect of SS, CWS and OS on the OC-employee engagement relationship. Indeed, the above research questions lead the following research objectives of the current study as:

(a) To examine the relationship between HRM practices (Performance Feedback, Job Security, Career Advancement, Training & Development, Rewards & Recognition and Employee Participation) and employee engagement.

(b) To determine the relationship between HRM practices (Performance Feedback, Job Security, Career Advancement, Training & Development, Rewards & Recognition and Employee Participation) and organizational commitment.

17

(c) To examine the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement.

(d) To determine the mediating effects of organizational commitment on the relationship between HRM practices (Performance Feedback, Job Security, Career Advancement, Training & Development, Rewards & Recognition and Employee Participation) and employee engagement.

(e) To examine the moderating effects of work related social support (i.e. supervisor, co-worker and organizational) on the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement.

1.6   Scope of the Study

This study investigates the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement, including mediating impact of OC and moderating impact of WRS. To achieve the research objectives, the present study focuses on employees of Private Commercial Banks (PCB) in Bangladesh. The scope of the study will not cover the pubic banks, Islamic banks and foreign banks. Because these types of banks have different management philosophy and priority compare to PCBs (Mian, 2003). Particularly, different organizational and structural differences have found among public, private and foreign banks that affect in their organizational performance differently (Mian, 2003). Furthermore, Singh et al. (2016) identified that private sector banks are more efficient for formulating their strategies to develop human capital compare to public banks. Considering this phenomena, this study has considered only PCBs to maintain a

18

homogeneity among the samples. As Kupczynski (2015) mentioned that if data of a study suffers from sample homogeneity, then results of the study might not be trusted.

Moreover, since majority of employees of PCBs work in different branches in Dhaka city, this study specifically focuses on the employees work in Dhaka city. This study has collected the information regarding employees and branches of PCBs from banks' annual report and website and Appendix A shows that almost 20% branches of PCBs are situated in the capital of Bangladesh i.e. in Dhaka Metropolitan Area (DMA) that consists 29% of employees who are working in DMA. Thus, it would be logical to select the PCBs situated in DMA, as it covers highest percentage of PCBs. Moreover, Sekaran (2003) noted that it is not possible to cover all the elements in a study if they are geographically disbursed as costs and times are associated with this process.
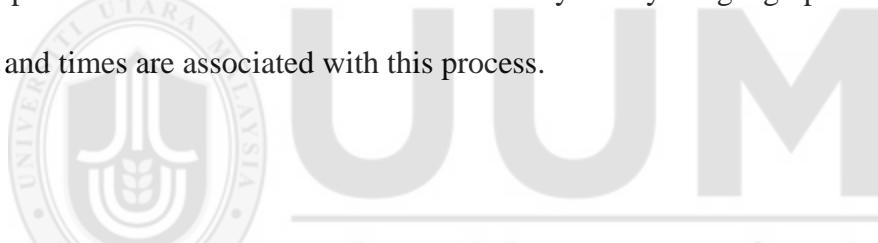
Since level of engagement is directly related to performance outcomes (Karatepe et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2013; Menguc et al., 2013; Yeh, 2013; Albrecht, 2012; Christian et al., 2011; Macey et al., 2009; Kahn, 1992), the present research concentrates on employee engagement as the outcome of the HRM practices.

1.7   Significance of the Study

The results of the proposed study have some empirical, theoretical, and practical implications. From the empirical perspective, the important contribution of the present

study is to extend the emerging literature on employee engagement by providing additional empirical evidence. For instance, the present study includes the both affective (i.e. OC) and cognitive (i.e. social support) behavior of employees as mediating and moderating variables in the research model particularly in the context of emerging economy like Bangladesh that is expected to contribute in the engagement literatures. In addition, this study incorporates six constructs of HRM practices, as the need for further investigation stated by Kusluvan et al. (2010), Arrowsmith and Parker (2013), that may broaden understanding of relevant factors affecting on the level of employee engagement. More specifically, Kusluvan et al. (2010) documented that more consideration is needed to tailor the HRM practices in the service organizations. Besides, the present study collects data on the basis of the employees' perceptions of HRM practices in banks to examine the level of employee engagement that is limited in the academic literature. Moreover, as there is a scarcity of empirical investigation on employee engagement, the findings of this study contribute to establish employee engagement as a worthy construct for further research (Timms et al., 2015; Karatepe et. al., 2014; Alfes et al., 2013; Slatten & Mehmetoglu, 2011; Kim et al. 2009; Kular et al., 2008; Saks,2006).

On the other hand, most of the literature showed the empirical work of employee engagement on the context of developed countries, like Europe, USA, Canada (Karatepe et al., 2014; Shuck & Reio, 2014; Taipale et al., 2011), and other developing countries like Malaysia, Taiwan, Japan (Suan & Nasurdin, 2014; Yeh, 2013; Li, Sanders & Frenkel, 2012). In the context of Bangladesh, more attention has been given to understand the employees' attitudes such as job satisfaction, commitment or turnover intention

(Talukder, Hossain & Hossain, 2014; Rahman, Uddin & Mia, 2012; Joarder, Sharif & Ahmmed, 2011) rather to identify employees' behavioral outcomes particularly employee engagement in Banks. Thus, the findings of previous studies may not be applicable for the context of Bangladeshi banks for the reason of the diverse research settings, varied culture and different practices in different locations with diversified nature of human resources (Kim, 2005; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Tsui, 2004). Furthermore, scholars still feel a strong need to evaluate the employee engagement construct in developing countries (Rai et al., 2017; Ghosh, Rai & Sinha, 2014; Agarwal, 2014). Hence, this study expects to meet this research gap and contributes in the existing knowledge in the context of Bangladesh in particular and Asia in general.
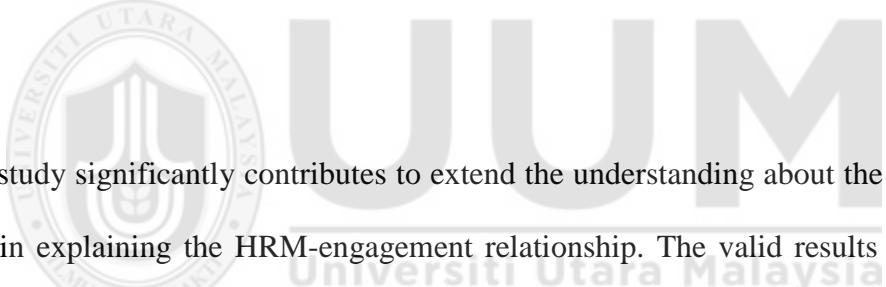
This study significantly contributes to extend the understanding about the application of SET in explaining the HRM-engagement relationship. The valid results of the current study enhance the existing knowledge of applying SET to explain the role of HRM practices in increasing employee behavioral outcomes i.e. employee engagement. Most interestingly, this study contributes, so far for the first time, in literature by examining how SS, CWS and OS moderate the relationship between OC and employee engagement through the application of SET. Indeed, the present study enhances the understanding about the importance of social exchange for employee engagement.

This study has important practical implications to managers and policymakers as well. More specifically, results of the current research enhance the understanding of managers

and policy makers of Bangladeshi banks about how to engage their employees with implementing appropriate HRM practices. Thus, this study considers as a strategic tool for the management of banks to understand that how to enhance the level of engagement among the employees. To date, as par the researcher best knowledge, this is the first empirical study is going to provide an empirical evidence on employee engagement of banking employees in Bangladesh.

1.8   Definition of Key Terms

Employee Engagement: Employee Engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, and work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli & Baker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002).

HRM practices: HRM practices termed as the policies or systems that have been settled by the organization to influence employees' attitudes, behaviors, and performance (Noe et al., 2010; Schuler & Jackson, 1987).

Organizational Commitment: OC is defined as the employees' psychological state of mind that help them to identify themselves within the organization and also help them to recognize a strong desire, need or obligation to identify themselves towards the organizational success (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Work-related Support (WRS): Work related social support refers to the availability of helping relationships from supervisors, management and co-workers in the workplace (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

1.9   Organization of Thesis

This chapter discusses the background of the study, problem statement, research questions and objectives. In addition, it presents the scope and significant of the study, and defines the relevant key terms. Following this, chapter two reviews the prior literature related to employee engagement, HRM practices, OC and WRS. In addition, it explains the hypothesis development and study framework. Furthermore, this chapter discusses underpinning theory i.e., Social Exchange Theory (SET).

Chapter three discusses the methodology of the study. It illustrates the operationalization and measurement of the study variables, population and sample, questionnaire development, data collection procedure and ends with the data analysis techniques and statistical packages are being used in this study. Lastly, it reports the reliability test of preliminary or pilot test.

Chapter 4 explains the statistical investigation of the collected data that includes data preparation, examination and screening. Then, it includes the analysis of measurement and structural model which are evaluated by PLS-SEM through SmartPLS3.0 software packages. Accordingly, the hypotheses of structural model have been examined and reported.

Finally, chapter 5 explains the findings of the study based on the research questions, objectives and the study hypotheses. In addition, this chapter describes the theoretical and practical implications of the study findings. It also describes the limitations and suggestions for the future research potential. This chapter ends with the conclusions of this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

This literature review chapter, primarily, presents the details of exiting literature related to employee engagement, HRM practices, OC and different WRS such as SS, CWS and OS. In addition, this chapter discussion the underpinning theory i.e., SET based on which the current study develops the hypothesis. Finally, this chapter summarizes the research hypothesis and presents the research framework.

2.2   Concept of Employee Engagement

The concept of engagement began to surface in the organizational and business literature around two decade ego (Ugaddan & Park, 2017; Simpson, 2009). Schaufeli et al. (2008) demonstrated that the concept of engagement has emerged from burnout literature as an effort to examine not only employees unwell-being but also to understand well-being of employees. In contrary to the employees who experience burnout, engaged employees feel capable enough to fulfill the assigned tasks as they are more energetic and connected to their work (Schaufeli et al., 2008). One of the challenges of defining engagement is the lack of a universal definition of employee engagement. In the existing literature, employee engagement is defined and explained by different individuals and organizations from

25

different perspectives. However, the concept of engagement has received a great lead of attention recently both in research and practice, different parties use different items and scale to measure the term (Robertson & Cooper, 2010). Therefore, we discuss these to understand the concept of engagement in a comprehensive way.

For the first time in the academic literature, employee engagement appears in an Academy of Management journal article as "Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work" (Kahn, 1990). He inspired by Goffman's (1961) sociology text "The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life" and suggested that "people act out monetary attachments and detachments in their role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). Kahn (1990) defined personal engagement as the "harshening of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance". On the other hand, personal disengagement refers to "the uncoupling of selves from work roles; in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performance" (p. 694). He identified three psychological conditions which stimulate employees to engage in their works by enhancing the contact between employees and their works. These are: psychological meaningfulness i.e., how meaningful is it for an employee to bring himself into the performance?, psychological safety i.e., how safe is it to do so?, and psychological availability i.e., how available is he to do so? Kahn (1990) further described that "personal engagement is the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's "preferred self" in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional) and active, full role

26

performances (p. 700). Thus, engaged employees are physically involved in their tasks, are cognitively alert and attentive, and are emotionally connected to their works and to others and in the workplaces. In other words, engagement refers to how psychologically present employees are behaving during certain moments in their role performances. According to Kahn (1990), individuals who are more likely to draw upon themselves within boundaries between them and their roles what they occupy to perform their jobs, they feel more inspire to perform their roles and more content they are to play those roles. Taken together from the work of Goffman (1961), Maslow et al., (1970), and Alderfer (1972), Kahn (1990) suggested that, to understand what makes a person engaged in their jobs, it is very important to understand the dimensions of meaningfulness (work elements), safety (social elements including management style, process and organizational norms), and availability (distractions) (p. 705). In summary, according to Kahn (1990, 1992), engagement means the individual who psychologically present at work when performing an organizational role.

May et al. (2004) empirically tested Kahn's (1990) model and found that all the three components of conceptualization of employee engagement were important in employee engagement. This study also posited that engagement is the combination of both cognitive and emotional work and work activities experiences which make an individual behave while performing a job (May et al., 2004). Rothbard (2001) extended Kahn's (1990) work and defined employee engagement as psychological presence of employees during performing their work. However, he extended the notion of prior definition by suggesting two critical components of engagement such as attention and absorption of employees.

27

Therefore, employee engagement defined as the psychological presence at a particular work role that involves attention and absorption (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Saks, 2006).

Another group of academic researchers focusing on burnout concept treat employee engagement as the opposite of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Maslach et al., 2001). They identified that core dimensions of burnout (exhaustion and cynicism) and engagement (vigor and dedication) are opposites of each other (Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006). Scholars state engagement as the opposite of three components of burnout dimensions: exhaustion, cynicism, and sense of inefficacy (Shuck, 2010; Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006). Therefore, burnout termed as "erosion of engagement with the job" (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 416) and burnout measurement scale called Maslach Burnout Index (MBI) can be used to measure the level of engagement. By using that scale, one can understand that how an engaged employee could be connected with their job positively and energetically and can handle the demands of their job (Schaufeli et al., 2002). However, although the definition of engagement has been developed by the burnout research, assuming that burnout and engagement are the two different side of a coin, may not be acceptable, and in other research, they conceptualized these two different concepts by using a single instrument i.e. MBI (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002). In line with this approach, Schaufeli et al. (2002, p. 74) define that employee engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Vigor means high level of energy and mental resilience of employees, while dedication refers to enthusiasm of employees. In addition, absorption means full

concentration of employees during the work. They also asserted that engagement is not a momentary state rather a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state.

There are numerous definitions of employee engagement have been derived by several scholars form different perspectives. For example, Harter et al. (2002) defined employee engagement as "the individuals' involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work (p. 269). Perrin's Global Workforce study termed employee engagement "as employees' willingness and ability to company success by incorporating discretionary effort into their work, in the form of extra time, brainpower and energy" (Towers Perrin, 2003, p. 1). Hewitt Associates LLC (2004, p. 2) cited it as "the state in which individuals are emotionally and intellectually committed to the organization or group, as measured by three primary behaviors: Say [...], Stay [...] and Strive". Institute of employment studies stated engagement as "a positive attitude held by the employee towards the organization and its value. An engaged employee is aware of business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organization. The organization must work to develop and nurture engagement, which requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee" (Robinson et al., 2004, p. 9).

In the academic literature, Saks (2006) provided an important bridge between previous theories of employee engagement, practitioner literature, and the academic community. He theorized the employee engagement through a social exchange model and was the first who separated employee engagement as job engagement and organization engagement.

Thus, Saks (2006) defined engagement as "a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components…...associated with individual role performance (p. 602). However, engagement is a psychological state or mood in which an individual is engrossed not with the organization but in a performance of the work role (Saks, 2006; Ferrer, 2005). Ferrer (2005) also noted that attitudes are constant or stable over time but psychological state or mood fluctuates. Another professional body, followed by Kahn's (1990) three dimensions of employee engagement as emotional engagement, "being very involved emotionally with one's work"; cognitive engagement "focusing very hard while at work"; and physical engagement "being willing to go the extra mile for your employer" (CIPD, 2006, p.2). They also summarize employee engagement as a psychological state, a "passion for work".
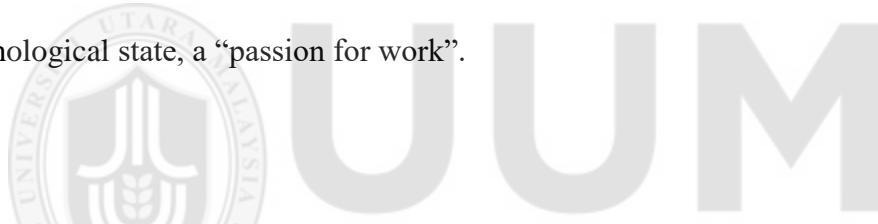
In 2008, the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) defined engagement as "employees who are mentally and emotionally invested in their work and in contributing to their employer's success" (Czarnowsky, 2008, p. 6). Another perspective of employee engagement has developed by Macey and Schneider (2008) by conceptualizing engagement as trait engagement, state engagement, and behavioral engagement. From their perspective, employee engagement is defined by suggesting that "job design attributes would directly affect trait management, the presence of a transformational leader would directly affect state management, and the presence of a transformational leader would directly affect trust levels and thus, indirectly affect behavioral engagement" (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 25). Compare to psychological and burnout perspective, Macey et al. (2009) promulgates a broader view of engagement

30

and defines employee engagement as an overarching umbrella which contains different types of engagement such as personality trait engagement, work involvement and organizational citizenship behavior. Robertson et al. (2012) argue that this perspective of engagement is much more inclusive and broader than the psychological view. In another study, Macey et al. (2009) posited engagement as "an individual's sense of purpose and focused energy, evident to others in the display of personal initiative, adaptability, effort, and persistence directed toward organizational goals" (p. 7). After the process of synthesizing definitions and conceptual frameworks of employee engagement, Schaufeli and Bakker (2010, p. 22) located engagement as a mediating variable in their job demands and resources model of work motivation and termed engagement as "the psychological state that accompanies behavioral investment of personal energy". According to Shuck and Wollard (2010), employee engagement is "an individual employee's cognitive, emotional, and behavioral state directed toward desired organizational outcomes" (p. 103). Albrecht (2010) has coined employee engagement as "a positive work-related psychological state characterized by a genuine willingness to contribute to organizational success" (p. 5). Scholars grounded employee engagement as an employee's unique experiences of work and behavioral aspects that include their cognitive and emotional interpretation of work-related environmental inputs and outputs (Shuck et al., 2011). A Gallup Management study described that engaged employees "are deeply committed to their employer, leading to key improvements in business outcomes, including reductions in absenteeism, turnover, shrinkage, safety incidents, and product defects" (Robinson 2012, p. 1). Furthermore, Alfes et al (2013) cited that work engagement is a "multi-dimensional latent motivational construct" (p. 261).

31

In brief, the literature review suggested that employee engagement has been conceptualized in many different ways. There is no universal definition that could define engagement because it is a multi-facet construct (Kahn, 1990). To determine the knowledge around employee engagement become very difficult because of various existing concepts of engagement, which have been derived under a different protocol, using different measures of engagement under different circumstances. For example, Kahn (1990), at first, termed employee engagement as the extent to which employees are physically involved, cognitively attentive and emotionally connected towards their work (p. 692). During the years, research on employee engagement have flourished concentrating attention on employees' engagement within organizational context. Rothbard (2001), likely Kahn (1990), defined employee engagement as psychological presence of employees during performing their work and suggesting two critical components of engagement such as attention and absorption of employees. Therefore, employee engagement defined as the psychological presence at a particular work role that involves attention and absorption (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008; Saks, 2006). In addition, May et al. (2004), conceptualized engagement as the combination of both cognitive and emotional work and work activities experiences which make an individual behave while performing a job. However, Schaufeli et al. (2002) have given the most prominent aspects of employee engagement and defined employee engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor (i.e. high level of energy and mental resilience), dedication (i.e. enthusiasm), and absorption (i.e. full concentration during work). These various perspectives, indeed, applied to define engagement create some critical confusions and debates about the concept of employee engagement in management literature. However, to understand the role of HRM practices, OC, and WRS

32

to enhance employee engagement, this study considers, based on Schaufeli et al. (2002), employee engagement as the psychological state of mind of employees manifested by full of energy (i.e., vigor), enthusiasm (i.e., dedication) and concentration (i.e., absorption) during role performance.

2.2.1 Importance of Employee Engagement

Rutledge (2009) in his book "Getting Engaged: The New Workplace Loyalty" explains that engaged employees are attracted, committed and fascinated to their work. Being attracted, when an employee would like to do a work with his full commitment and fascination, he can perform his organizational goal with his best effort, which, in turn positively affect organizational performance. As engagement influences on how employees perform their task, it provides benefits for both employees and organization (Kang & Sung, 2017; Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). Khan (1990) finds that the employee engagement positively affects the level of individual and organizational outcomes. In fact, Sonnentag (2003) asserted that highly engaged employees are ready "in taking initiative and pursuing learning goals" (p. 525). Employees with high level of engagement have the inspiration to develop new knowledge, respond to opportunities, go the extra mile, (Lockwood, 2007; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007), stand with the company and involved themselves in mentoring and volunteering activities. Moreover, engaged employees feel capable to meet the challenging goals and have passion to succeed as they feel more satisfied with their works and feel more committed to their organization

(Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). As noted by Bakker and Leiter (2010) that engaged employees are highly involved with their job roles and go through their job in details. They also added that high level of engagement helps employees to go beyond the job description, to think dynamically and help them to arrange their jobs in such a way that will fit with this competitive work environment (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). According to Bakker and Leiter (2010), engaged employees always hold a positive attitude which encourage the integrative and creative perception to create value to the service enterprises.

Existing literature demonstrates several reasons why an engaged employee can perform better than disengaged one. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) presented four critical reasons which are discussed in this study. Firstly, as engaged employees hold positive emotions (Bindl & Parker, 2010) which enhance their confident and optimistic attitude towards work (Cropanzano & Wrigth, 2001), they may perform better (Bakker et al., 2012). In addition, according to broaden-and-build theory, positive emotions like joy, interest and contentment of employees help to "build their personal resources (i.e., physical, intellectual, social and psychological)" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 216) through widening the array of thoughts and actions (Fredrickson, 2001) which, in turn, may positively affect employees' outcomes. Schaufeli et al., (2002) cited that "work engagement is a positive experience in itself". Secondly, engaged employees have more physical resources which lead better performance than dis-engagement counterparts. Prior research also shows the positive impact of engagement on physical resources. For example, Schaufeli et al. (2008) found that engaged employees have lesser psychosomatic complain that disengaged ones. In addition, Hakanen et al. (2006) explored the positive

34

relationship between work engagement and workability among Finnish teachers. Several researchers have found that there is a positive relationship between engagement and employee health (Schaufeli et al., 2008; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006). For example, Parzefall and Hakanen (2010) demonstrated that employee engagement fully mediated the effect of psychological contract fulfillment on mental health. Moreover, Gallup organization reported that around 62% engaged employees told that work had a positive impact on their physical health, 54% reported that negative influence on their health and 51% cited that work had a negative effect on their general well-being (Crabtree, 2005). Scholars also stated that employees are more likely to have meaningfulness in their jobs (Towers Perrin, 2003; Maslach et al., 2001; Kahn, 1990) and lack of meaningfulness make employees isolate and detach from their jobs and consequently they feel less committed and motivated to their works (Aktouf, 1992). On the other hand, meaningful jobs may enhance the employee engagement by creating a perception of benefits from works (Britt et al., 2001). Kahn (1992) conceptualized that high level of engagement has a positive impact on the quality of individual's work and work-related experience which will affect the organizational level performance such as growth and productivity. This suggestion was supported by Salanova et al. (2005) provided evidence that engaged employees perform better. Thirdly, according to social exchange theory, when employees receive economic and socio-emotional resources from organization, they realize an obligation to respond in kind and repay the organization due to the "rules" of exchange philosophy (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Saks (2006) argued that one way for employees to repay their organization by higher level of engagement. Therefore, when the psychological contact of employees has been fulfilled (Khan, 1990), their obligation towards organization lead them engage more in work to perform at higher level. The study of HR

35

consultancy firm Towers Perrin established a link between employee engagement and employee retention. Their survey results showed that around 66% of highly engaged employees had no plans to quit their jobs, 36% of moderately engaged and just 12% of the disengaged employees (Towers Perrin, 2003, p. 21). Another survey results found that around 37% engaged employees are willing to promote their organization as well as their products and services (CIPD, 2006). In their study, Harter et al. (2002) posited that employee engagement had a positive impact on customer satisfaction-loyalty which was supported by Salanova et al. (2005) argued that engaged employees influence service climate which in turn affect employee performance and finally it will make customers satisfied and loyal. Similarly, employees with high level of engagement are very flexible to cope with the organizational change and spontaneous to adapt the changing environment (Graen, 2008). Fourthly, engaged employees are capable to transfer their level of engagement from one employee to another (Demeruuti & Cropanzano, 2010), which will increase the company performance as organizational performance depends on a combined effort of all the individuals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In fact, empirical studies have confirmed the transferable relationship of engagement from individual to team (Bakker et al., 2006; Salanova, Agut & Peiro, 2005). Westman (2001) defined that engagement could be transferred through the transfer of positive or negative emotions and experiences of employees. In conclusion, engaged employees had positive impact on their colleagues and ultimately, they may enhance the firm performance by working as a team.

2.2.2 Prior Studies Related to Antecedents of Employee Engagement

The search for the antecedents of employee engagement is relatively new (Presbitero, 2017; Slatten & Mehmetoglu, 2011; Macey et al., 2009). Researchers have identified that employee engagement has come from practitioner and consultant but still a dearth of academic research of employee engagement has been realized (Presbitero, 2017; Robinson et al., 2004). Though various studies trying to find out the understanding of what drives employee engagement, the literature on antecedents or drivers of employee engagement does not represent a lot of empirical research (Saks, 2006). This section presents the current thinking and evidence of the catalyst for employee engagement.

To identify the possible antecedents of engagement, Saks (2006), based on the models by Kahn (1990) and Maslach et al. (2001), considers job characteristics, Perceived Organizational Support (POS), perceived supervisory support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice and distributive justice as the antecedents of engagement. Further, Saks (2006) found a distinction between two types of engagement, job engagement and organization engagement in which the antecedents might differ. Jobs which are high on the core job characteristics give individuals with the room and motivation to bring themselves more into their work or to be more engaged (Kahn, 1992). Saks (2006) took a sample of 102 employees working in different jobs and organizations in Canada and the experience in their current job an average of four years. Results showed that job characteristics was significant predictors of job engagement where OS had the

significance influence on both job and organization engagement but procedural justice was the significance predictor of organization engagement. However, Shantz et al. (2013) have tried to ascertain the drivers of employee engagement with a sample of 283 employees in the UK by incorporating the Hackman and Oldham's (1980) classic Job Characteristics Model (JCM), that identified five core job features as motivational properties of job: task variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. Findings demonstrated that task variety was the strongest determinant of employee engagement. Moreover, autonomy, feedback and task significance had a positive association to engagement, but task identity was not positively related to engagement. Further Ghosh et al. (2014) extended the antecedents-consequences model proposed by Saks (2006) incorporating distributive, procedural and interactional justice as predictors of employee engagement considering both job engagement and organization engagement. In their study, they found distributive justice and interactional justice as significant antecedents for both job and organization engagement, while procedural justice was the significant predictor only for organization engagement. On the other hand, Findley et al. (2014) suggested that organizational strategic profit emphases affect job and organization engagement. They proposed that employees who think that their organization is providing supportive and work-related resources i.e. revenue enhancement strategic profit emphasis, they will be more engaged and dedicated to the work in repay of that. Alternatively, employees with inconsistent quality service i.e. cost containment strategic profit emphasis, will be less engaged (Ye et al., 2007). Results showed that both revenue enhancement and cost containment were significantly related to job engagement. While revenue enhancement was the stronger predictor of organization engagement, cost containment had no significant effect on organization engagement. Another study by Lee

et al. (2014) observed that internal branding consisting three components: internal communication, training and reward might predict job and organizational engagement. Because employees will get clear guidance and direction to deliver brand messages and meaning to the customers through internal branding (Choi, 2006; Keller, 2003). Lee et al. (2014) suggested that employees with internal branding have a positive influence on how employees feel about their job. Based on the data collected from 367 services employees of hotels in South Korea, they found the significant and positive effect of internal branding on job and organization engagement. According to Lee et al. (2014), companies could achieve employee engagement through internal branding by improving the quality of internal communication, giving more training or rewarding the employees so that they will motivate to enhance their performance. Karatepe (2013) also argued that the high-performance work practices manifested by training, empowerment and rewards would create synergy in the organization and ultimately trigger the employee engagement. In the study with a sample of 110 full-time hotel employees in Romania, Karatepe (2013) found that training, empowerment and rewards were significantly and positively influenced work engagement.

Likely Saks (2006), Trinchero et al. (2013) examined that relationship of perceived organizational support (POS), training & development and discretionary power with employee engagement based on a sample of 826 nurses in Italy. Findings showed that all the constructs were the important drivers of engagement which confirmed the importance of workplace relationships in enhancing engagement as well. On the other hand, Brunetto et al. (2013) examined the workplace relationships namely POS, supervisor-nurse

relationships and teamwork on engagement of 510 nurses from Australian and 718 nurses from USA hospitals. Their study found that though POS and teamwork were significant predictors of employee engagement for both Australia and USA, supervisor-subordinate relationships affected engagement in Australia, but not in USA. They argued that the relationships increased the discretionary power and thus supervisor had a greater influence on nurses' outcomes in Australia but the reforms had opposite effect on the outcomes of nurses in USA. In addition, Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013) examined POS and person-organization fit as the antecedents of work engagement with the sample of 246 Indian managers, and found that both POS and person-organization fit would be the significantly correlated with employee engagement. In another study by Caesens et al. (2014), based on 343 PhD students, suggested that due to the lack of WRS such as OS may create harm for the students' psychological and physical health.
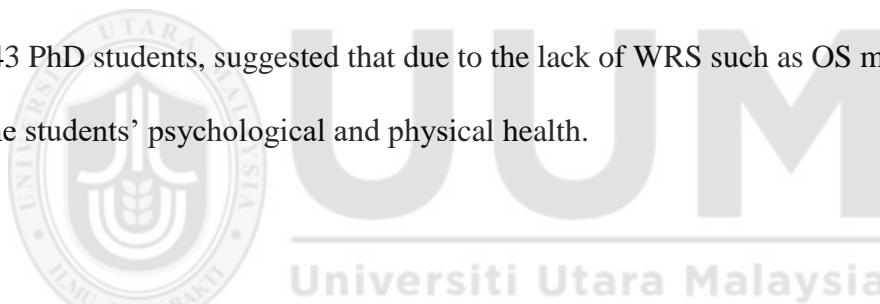
In the academic literature, job factors such as job demands and job resources have come on the focus as the antecedents of employee engagement. Prior studies demonstrated that specific job characteristics could motivate individuals to be more engaged in their job. For example, Sarti (2014) with the sample of 167 caregivers in Italy revealed that learning opportunity was the significant and strongest driver of engagement, while financial rewards and feedback had no relation to work engagement. In addition, decision authority negatively but co-worker and supervisor support significantly associated with employee engagement. On the other hand, Albrecht (2012) incorporated three types of resources i.e. organizational, team and job resources in line with the job-demand resources model of work engagement by Bakker and Demerouti (2007) to examine their impact on

engagement among 3437 employees of a multinational mining company. They found that organizational culture, team climate and job resources of supervisor coaching, career development, role clarity and autonomy had positive direct influence on employee engagement. These results suggested that the provision of job resources could work as an intrinsic motivation of employees and increased positive affect towards their work. Another study led by Taipale et al. (2011) among 7867 employees who were working in different sectors in 8 different European countries in 2007 and ascertained that job demands and resources predicted job engagement. Results pointed out that demands had lower negative impact on engagement for Finland, Sweden, Germany and Hungary, but no impact for Bulgaria, the Netherlands, Portugal and the UK. Work autonomy and social support were the strong predictors of work engagement, except for Bulgaria and Finland where social support had relatively low influence on engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) focused on the predictors of engagement and its negative antipode- burnout comprised a sample of 1698 employees working in four independent sectors. Findings indicated that both job demands as well as inadequate resources were the antecedents of burnout whereas only job resources were the driver of engagement. These results also supported by Gan and Gan (2014) which indicated that job demands were strongly correlated to burnout than engagement where job resources predicted both burnout and engagement. According to Sulea et al. (2012), job characteristics could be distinguished by job demands and job resources based on JD-R model. In their study, they included sample of 258 employees from three organizations in Romania to examine whether job resources i.e. POS, interpersonal conflict at work as job demands and personal resources such as conscientiousness might work as antecedents of work engagement. Results demonstrated that engagement anticipated by interpersonal conflict at work directly but

41

negatively whereas POS and conscientiousness were positive predictors of engagement. Although many studies conceptualized job demands as a stressor had negative influence on engagement, Sawang (2012) identified job demands as a positive driver of work engagement among 307 IT managers in Australia which suggested that workers with high demand of work will engage them more, in contrary, undemanding work levels likely to be bored and disengaged.

Previous research has confirmed that job characteristics especially employees with more autonomy reports higher levels of engagement (Taipale et al., 2011; Slatten & Mehmetoglu, 2011; Slattery et al., 2010). In line with these findings, Xu and Thomas (2010) argued that senior positions in organizations have greater autonomy which will make greater association with work engagement. They also suggested that leadership behavior namely relationship and task oriented behavior could affect engagement. Results of their study showed that leadership position, supports team, performs effectively and displays integrity had influence on engagement. On the other hand, Papalexandris and Galanaki (2009) worked on the leadership practices included good manager/mentor and vision articulation among 51 CEO's and their subordinates. Research found that good manager/mentor and articulating vision both were good predictors of engagement whether the CEO was entrepreneur or professional. Jorge and van Dierendonck (2014) cited on their article that servant leadership is the feelings that one wants to serve first. They conducted a research on 1107 people of two merging Portuguese companies and found that servant leadership had a positive significant relation to work engagement under a high uncertainty. Similar to this view, De Clercq et al. (2014) investigated servant leadership-

engagement relationship in the context of Ukraine with a sample of 263 employees and suggested that employees who perceived higher level of servant leadership in their supervisor showed stronger engagement at their work. The study of leadership-engagement relationships has been accompanied by Zhang et al. (2014), within 439 retail employees in Australia. Results posited that visionary and organic leadership style had a positive association to engagement whereas transactional and classical leadership negatively related to engagement. Sarti (2014) examined 251 workers in Italy and identified that participative and instrumental leadership styles were significant predictor of engagement. Many authors also identified that transformational leadership had positive and significant impact on engagement in different context such as Australia, South Africa, Korea (Breevaart et al., 2014; Yasin et al., 2013; Vincent-Hoper et al., 2012; Hoon Song et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2009).

However, predictors of engagement were not limited to job characteristics (Parker & Griffin, 2011). Gan and Gan (2013) recommended that incorporating the effects of personality would provide greater insight into the dynamic development of engagement. The purpose of their study was to examine the effect of personality trait i.e. neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness on engagement along with job characteristics. Findings indicated that extraversion and conscientiousness were positive but neuroticism was negative predictors of engagement. Similarly, Woods and Sofat (2013) also noted that engagement was highly influenced by assertiveness and industriousness and neuroticism had a negative impact on engagement in the perspective of 238 workers in UK. Kim et al. (2009) confirmed that conscientiousness was the strongest driver of engagement among

43

all the five dimensions of personality traits. In addition, agreeableness was positive and neuroticism was negative antecedents of engagement.

In addition to job characteristics and personal traits, organizational level resources like HRM practices are also vital antecedents of engagement as these practices are able to assist employees to accomplish their work and reduce job demands. Findings from a recent empirical study by Karatepe (2013) consisted 110 frontline employees from eight Romanian hotels demonstrated that HRM practices were significant predictors of engagement. Moreover, authors reported that individual perceptions of HRM practices may vary. Alfesa et al. (2013) pointed out that perceived HRM practices had significant positive impact on engagement. Suan and Nasurdin (2014) revealed that HRM practices specifically service training and performance appraisal had more significant association to work engagement among 438 hotel employees in Malaysia. Consistent with this view, another study done by Suan Choo et al. (2013) with a sample of 97 employees of electronics manufacturing firms in Malaysia. Findings of this study showed that employee development and reward & recognition were the strongest antecedents of employee engagement but interestingly, employee communication had negative impact on engagement. Authors argued that if employees will not be properly communicated the company messages may elevate pressure which may lead to disengagement. Azoury et al. (2013) revealed that compensation and psychological climate had significant association with work engagement but communication was insignificant in family and non-family firms. Scholars asserted that performance appraisal is one of the most important HRM practices as it is directly related to outcomes of the organization (Jawahar, 2007; Steensma

44

& Visser, 2007; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995;). Volpone et al. (2012) suggested that by increasing transparency in the performance appraisal process may help to increase employee engagement. In this regard, Gupta and Kumar (2012) conducted a research on 323 professionals working in Indian private and public sector to explore the performance appraisal justice paradigms to employee engagement. Results of this study indicated that distributive justice and informational justice were the strongest drivers of engagement compare to procedural and interpersonal justice. Similarly, Agarwal (2014) also found that procedural and interactional justice were not significant predictors of engagement among the managers of manufacturing and pharmaceuticals firms in India. On the other hand, Strom et al. (2014) have identified that procedural and distributive justice positively related to work engagement under the conditions of low transactional leadership rather high among 348 employees in USA. To discover the predictors of employee engagement, Sharma and Sharma (2010) have focused on a set of HRM practices using a sample of 116 executives of manufacturing firms in India. Results showed that compensation and benefit, performance management, learning and development and job content were critical drivers of engagement. Similarly, other studies (e.g., Chen, 2017; Huang et al., 2017; Presbitero, 2017) also found a positive significant relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement.

In summary, previous studies examined diverse set of antecedents of employee engagement which can be categorized into organizational practices, job characteristics and personal traits. The above discussion indicates that the relationship of different antecedents and employee engagement are varied for different studies, nature of

45

organizations and countries which suggests the inconclusive findings of prior research on antecedents of employee engagement. In addition, these results also highlight the critical role of the nature of organization and country context in predicting the relationship of various antecedents with employee engagement. Moreover, organizational factors such as HRM practices has the crucial role in service organizations to enhance employee engagement (Yeh, 2013; Ashill & Rod, 2011). Therefore, the current study, based on SET, aims to examine the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement of banking employees in the context of Bangladesh.

2.3 Underlying Theory

2.3.1 Social Exchange Theory (SET)

This study positioned within the context of social exchange perspective to explain the conceptual framework since it has the most influential theoretical paradigms to understand workplace behavior. Indeed, social exchange have been used in this study because of its nature to explain the employee behavior and the relationship of two parties including employee and employer (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). Within SET, theoretical rationale for explaining employee engagement has been found (Saks, 2006). According to SET, a reciprocal relationship could be found through a series of interactions between two parties who are in a state of reciprocate interdependence and felt obligated. Cropanzano and Mictchell (2005) noted that when organization provide economic and socio-emotional

46

resources to their employee, employees will also feel obligated in kind and want to give something in return to their organization. The similar view has been given by Robinson et al. (2004) explaining engagement as a two-way communication between employer and employee. Saks (2006) argued that the level of engagement of an employee may depend on the extent to which they feel obligated to their organization and repay to the organization. More specifically, the degree to which an employee will be engaged will depend on the resources they receive from the organization. Therefore, SET could give the theoretical foundation to explain the variability of employees' level of engagement i.e. why people engage more or less to their work.

Although different views of SET have emerged, several theorists agreed that SET consist a set of interactions that involves in a process of obligation (Emerson, 1976). According to Blau (1964), social exchange involves such interactions which are seen as interdependent and conditional that may affected by the action of opposite person (Wiesner et al., 2007; Jordan et al., 2006; Cole et al., 2002; Burgess & Huston, 1979). Social exchange also emphasizes on the obligation, which arise in the exchange process, that an individual may hold expectations for future return in the time of doing favor on another person yet the time of return or the form of return is not clear. Base on this view, scholars have defined social exchange as the undeclared obligations and trust (Tansky & Cohen, 2001). Blau (1964) also defined social exchange as a reciprocity process which is the norms that a recipient of benefit holds and feels obligated to repay to the benefactor in some way (Gouldner, 1960). Foa and Foa (1975) further argued that in a social exchange relationship, human interactions is not only limited to tangible resources, rather it could

be also social resources such as information, respect or status. However, Eisenberger et al. (1986) reported that an individual with high exchange norms is more likely to give good deed in return compare to the person who has low level of exchange norms. Later, various scholars have focused on different social exchange norms i.e. exchange interactions could be positive or negative (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003; Perugini & Gallucci, 2001). In their experimental researches, authors argued that a person's interchange preference have an impact on behavioral and informational choices (Gallucci & Perugini, 2003; Perugini et al., 2003).

Within SET, it has been found to be theoretically rationale for explaining employee engagement (Saks, 2006). Based on SET, a reciprocal relationship could be found through a series of interactions between two parties who are in a state of reciprocate interdependence and felt obligated. SET further argued that the exchange relationship of the interested parties may abide by some certain "rules" to build a more trusting, loyal and mutual commitments over time (Farr-Wharton & Brunetto, 2007; Cropanzano & Mictchell, 2005; Cole et al., 2002). In these rules of exchange, parties should maintain the rule of reciprocity or repayment in which one party's action or response may depend on the other party's action or response. Cropanzano and Mictchell (2005) noted that when organization provide economic and socio-emotional resources to their employee, employees will also feel obligated in kind and want to give something in return to their organization. The similar view has been given by Robinson et al. (2004) in their study by explaining engagement as a two-way communication between employer and employee. In their study, Saks (2006) argued that the level of engagement of an employee may

depend on the extent to which they feel obligated to their organization and repay to the organization. More specifically, the degree to which an employee will be engaged will depend on the resources they receive from the organization. Employees who are fully involve with their work roles and devoted to work with the high level of cognitive, emotional and physical resources is a very effective way to respond towards their organization's actions. However, the level of employee job performance often varies as it is evaluated by organization and used as an instrument to provide them compensation and other form of benefits. In fact, employees show their extent of engagement towards the organization is subject to how much resources and benefits they are given by their organization. According to Kahn's (1990) and Maslach et al.'s (2001) model, employees may have the need of economic and socio-economic to fulfill the conditions of engagement which can be described in the context of SET by arguing that when employees will get these resources from their organization, they will feel indebted to repay by giving higher level of engagement. Indeed, engagement is the process by which employees feel obliged to involve themselves more intensely into their work roles as to reciprocate the resources they have received from their employer (Kahn, 1990). Consequently, the degree of cognitive, emotional and physical resources that an employee will keep during their role performances is more likely to contingent to the economic and socio-economic resources they have given by their organization.

Furthermore, within the tenets of SET, scholars suggested it as the most significant and descriptive theory which can explain contextual value of workplace and workplace behavior. For example, several empirical studies like Demerouti et al. (2001), Menguc et

al. (2013) and Simpson (2009) give support for describing that employees with higher level of organizational factors (i.e. HRM practices), such as job autonomy or performance feedback, will be reciprocated by showing high level of engagement. Giving emphasis on this study framework, theorized within SET, we proposed that when employees perceive that they are supported in the work context, i.e. organization invests in HRM practices for their well-being, employees will feel obligated and show high level of engagement as repayment. Considering the context of SET, supportive work-related factors (i.e. work practices) help to send important messages to employees that their organization gives value their effort (Lee & Bruvold, 2003) and encourage employees to devote themselves towards the organization i.e. engagement (Presbitero, 2017; Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Wayne et al., 1997). Furthermore, within the rule of SET, scholars have suggested that high commitment HRM practices may help to enhance employees' positive experiences in the workplace, which in return show in the form of increasing organizational performance (Ferris et al., 1999). In addition, Takeuchi et al. (2007) noted that investing on high performance work practices help employees to feel themselves as expressing, appreciation, caring and recognition, as a result they perceive themselves in a social exchange, and they will reciprocate their obligation accordingly in their attitudes and behaviors. In line with this theorizing, academics such as Nishii et al. (2008) and Koys (1988, 1991) identified that healthy work practices had a positive influence on employee outcome.

In accordance with the exchange relationship of employee and employer, an employer should realize the efforts of an employee by giving appropriate opportunities and benefits,

in turn, an employee should feel indebted to give in return and become more committed towards the organization (Tansky & Cohen, 2001). Similarly, Eisenberger et al. (1986) utilized social exchange structure to explore that an employee who get more support from their organization is more likely to feel obligated, which in turn, help them to make more committed to the organization. They also posited that employees build some general beliefs about their organization that to which extent their organization give values for their effort and consider their well-being.

However, authors also defined SET as the relationship at the workplace where the quality of friendly membership and interpersonal addictiveness are encouraged by the group of people and have an influence on the social interactions and interpersonal care for the work procedure (Young-Ybarra & Wiersema, 1999; Berscheid, 1985). On the basis of social-interaction oriented SET, it is defined as the social exchange relationship between a supervisor and their fellow members by considering the respective status among the group members (Liden et al., 1997; Dansereau et al., 1973). Several studies have used SET to explain the workplace relationship involving employees and their supervisor (Lee & Cadogan, 2009), co-workers (Deckop et al., 2003; Flynn, 2003; Ensher et al., 2001), organization (Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011; Moorman et al., 1998), customers (Grandy et al., 2011; Sheth, 1996) and suppliers (Perrone et al., 2003). To explain the relationship between organization and employee, Cropanzano and Mictchell (2005) suggested that when organization fulfills the need of employees' work-related resources, consequently, employees feel obliged to their organization and want to give in return as a beneficial. For instance, Lee and Cadogan (2009) pointed out that managers who are supporting and

caring to their salesperson, they will repay to managers in the form of loyalty and competence. In their research, Othman and Nasurdin (2013) explained the relationship between social support and engagement on the tenet of SET. They showed that when nurses of public hospitals realize their supervisors are responsive and caring for their need and giving essential information and providing valuable feedback, they feel indebted to reciprocate by showing a favorable attitude in the form of work engagement. Similarly, Saks (2006) also revealed that employees who have higher level of social support from their organization may become highly engaged to the organization as the part of fulfilling reciprocal rule of SET to accomplish organizations objectives.

2.4 Concept of Human Resource Management Practices

The term Human Resource Management (HRM) has started to emerge in the academic literature over the last few decades. The functions of human resource managers have experienced a considerable change after the industrial revolution (Li, 2003) to fulfill the needs for the development of organizational science, law, and human relations which have created the force to shape HRM (Vosburgh, 2007). In 1930s to 1950s, human resource managers realized the need to develop strategies to cope with the changing roles and to build professional relationship by establishing professional organizations (Narsavage, 2008; Ritzer & Trice, 1969). Legge (1975) stated that the professionalism should incorporate an expertise that could "be demonstrated as relevant and useful in performing the personnel function" (p. 61). Human resource managers felt difficulties to manage the

52

issue regarding government legislation in the decades of 1960s and 1970s. Conner and

Ulrich (1996) noted that increased government regulation and changes in laws were the

reason in "equal employment opportunity, occupational safety, and health and pension

reform" (p. 29). For human resource managers, they found themselves as an

administrative or compliance officer (Morley et al., 2006) because organizations felt the

need to develop such programs which will help to enhance workers commitment to

encourage employee involvement (Walton, 1985). In the 1970s, there was a strong debate

about the role of human resource managers. Although scholars have evidenced the role of

human resource managers by expanding their role to internal consultants, providing legal

and technical support, but the job was still ambiguous (Legge, 1975). In the early 1980s,

many organizations have come to realize the importance of the term "Human resource

management" (HRM) and felt the need to establish a separate specialized department for

Human resource managers (Vosburgh, 2007; Li, 2003; Conner & Ulrich, 1996). This was

the era for Human resource managers to adapt with the changing roles and to face the

challenges regarding competitive pressures, quality, productivity and emphasis on

customers benefit (Laabs, 2000; Treen, 2000; Conner & Ulrich, 1996). Eventually, Human

resource managers were started to take part into the decision making process by making

policies and procedures to address these organizational changes (Payne, 2005). In this

time, scholars have much dedicated to demonstrate the strategic role of HRM in

organizations because it was considered as a unit which was more responsible to deal with

the activities of managing workers, whether these activities were actually designated to

achieve organizational goals (Guest, 1997;1990; Armstrong, 1991; Miller, 1987). With

this strategic view, many authors took into account that HRM is an important measure for

the organizations by which they can capitalize their human resources in fulfilling

organizational objectives (Kamoche, 1996; Mueller, 1996; Lado & Wilson, 1994; Wright et al., 1994). Basically, in the early of this era, organizations could understand that workers or personnel were no longer a cost rather they were the asset for the organizations which may need to develop and maintain. According to Beer et al., (1984), who were originally advanced the thinking and philosophy of HRM that people should be treated as assets and not variable costs. As a result, academic literature has led researchers to develop soft versus hard approaches of HRM. In the soft approaches, workers are the valuable assets for the organizations which could help the organizations to accomplish their goals and objectives, whereas, hard approaches thought human resources as variable input that are provided and deployed as needed. Gill (1999) noted hard approaches by defining people as the factors of production cost which can be cut when needed. On the other hand, Legge (1995) described soft approaches as the "developmental humanism" that emphasizes "human" aspects of managing. Scholars like Ishak et al. (2011) and Zheng (2009) established a direct link between turnover rate and hard or soft approaches. Authors further argued that turnover rate above 15% or 20% is directly related to hard approaches of HRM. Many scholars also tried to explore the factors such as employees who felt stress at work are more likely to have intentions to leave (Ryan et al., 2011). Studies also found that psychological nature or levels of job satisfaction are the factors for high turnover rate (Gallardo et al., 2010; Martin et al., 2006). In addition, Yang and Fu (2009) identified that organization's recruitment methods have a direct link on hard or soft approaches of HRM. Particularly, innovative recruitment systems (i.e. through internet or HRM agencies) are mostly the part of soft approaches of HRM (Zheng, 2009).

The concept of HRM has come into existence initially in the United States particularly after facing a strong competition by Japanese companies and then increasingly being adapted by the larger organizations across developed economies (Storey, 1992; Guest, 1987; Walton, 1985). Beside the soft or hard approaches of HRM, many scholars tend to realize the shift from old term of "personnel management" to more symbolic term "human resource management". However, literature indicates that many scholars have conceptualized HRM in different ways as it has been challenging to try to properly conceptualize HRM as a theory, ideology or discourse (Legge, 2006; Taylor, 2005). For example, Beer et al. (1984) termed HRM as incorporating all kind of managerial decisions and actions which would have the impact on the relationship between employer and employee- its human resources. More specifically, human resource management is a system that has a set of distinct but interrelated activities, functions, and processes which are directed to attracting, developing and maintaining (or disposing of) a firms human resources (Lado & Wilson, 1994). According to Ferris et al. (2004), they have conceptualized HRM in the context of USA as "both the science and practice that encompasses both the employer/employee relationship as well as its relevant actions, decisions and issue" (p. 231). Storey (1995) referred HRM as people management approach which considered workers as credential assets that have an influence on that organization. Author also described various interrelated activities HRM such as acquiring, developing, managing, motivating and gaining commitment from employees. Storey (1995) also noted that HRM is an idiosyncratic approach of management to reach a competitive advantage by incorporating a strategic improvement with a highly quality work-force. However, Zakaria et al. (2011) argued that HRM is a set of activities which include HRM planning, staffing, training and development, performance management,

55

compensation management, safety and health and employee relations. Consistently, many scholars also described that HRM is an approach to manage and utilize a pool of human resources for the fulfillment of organizational goals (Wright & Snell, 1991; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Schuler & MacMillan, 1984). On the other hand, Ahmed (1999) conceptualized HRM as a strategy of acquiring, developing, managing, motivating and gaining commitment of the employees.

However, a significant trend to conceptualize HRM is to make its functions more supportive of organizational strategies (Liu et al., 2007), and has been shifting from human resource management into strategic human resource management. According to Jinzhao (2007), the role of HRM would be more strategic to become a successful organization. The literature indicated that human resource managers should have the awareness about their people management i.e. how workers will be utilized toward the end and how they will be affected by the overall strategic plan. More specifically, HRM policies and procedures should be aligning with the strategic business planning (Legge, 1995). It has been evidenced that organizations that have focused only new products innovation and technological capabilities by ignoring their human resources were no longer be successful in the global market. So organization should invest in developing talents and skills of human resources in the organization are required. Moreover, academics also initiate a new approach of managing employees by comprising autonomy, trust, flexibility, openness and transparency to make sure that people will be highly committed and engaged to fulfill the organizational goals and objectives. As noted by Jackson and Schuler (1995), organization should develop such a HRM system that values workers as a vital asset in

the organization which in turn enhances the quality of performance of the employees. In other words, mangers should consider their people while making the overall business plan. Indeed, when the organization think about to expand their businesses, they should also have to take into account that how their human resources could be facilitated in the expansion process such as employer should plan, maintain, assess and fairly treat their people to meet the goals and objectives. Many authors have demonstrated the importance of developing such a strategic business plan which may include their people in that overall business strategy as they have the vital contribution to organizational effectiveness (Guest, 1990, 1997; Frederickson, 1986).

From the above discussions, we have found that scholars hypothesized HRM as s system of managing people in the organization by comprising some interrelated activities. These activities could help to ensure the interest of employees from hiring to discontinue the employment. Even countries like Malaysia, there are a legal obligation that organization should make a severance pay and displaced alternative employment in the case of restricting process. For this reason, organization should deploy a bundle of activities to protect the employees right in order to achieve organizational goals and activities (Wright & Kehoe, 2008) and this bundle of interrelated activities were called as HRM practices by Dyer and Reeves (1995). Noe et al. (2010) treats HRM practices as the philosophy, policy, system and practices that have an influence on employees' behavior, attitudes and performance. According to Snell and Bohlander (2007), HRM practices are the process by which organization could manage their human capita to accomplish organizational objectives. Specifically, HRM practices are the fundamental activities by which the

57

organization can develop and shape the skills, abilities and behavior of the employees to do their job successfully and focused to meet the targets i.e. organizational goals. Many scholars defined HRM practices as the additional values which are designed in such a way that consistent with their internal system and have a link with organizational competitive advantage (Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Milgrom & Roberts, 1995; Cappelli & Singh, 1992; Wright & MacMahan, 1992; Butler et al., 1991; Ulrich & Lake, 1990). Bowen and Ostroff (2004) suggested that a set of HRM practices and processes help to communicate proper messages to their employees so that they can form their potentials and interpretations of organizational expectations and rewards.

Furthermore, Collins and Clark (2003) explored that HRM practices should be more specific and target oriented rather general practices through which they can develop and enhance their human talent and appropriate HRM practices may depend on the firm's competency (Snell et al., 1996). For example, in their study, Dyer and Reeves (1995) revealed that several reinforcing practices such as rigorous selection mechanisms and monetary and non-monetary rewards might help to enhance employee performance. Scholars like Delery (1998) argued that organization should design their HRM policy by combining a set of HRM programs to define the "best HR practices". With this view, Delery and Shaw (2001) suggested that it is difficult to enhance employee performance by introducing individual HRM practices, even though it seems to be superior to others. On the other hand, researchers have categorized HRM practices into three groups such as KSA-enhancing practices, motivation-enhancing practices, and empowerment-enhancing practices based on the academic literature (Wright & Kehoe, 2008; Liu et al., 2007).

58

Activities like recruitment, selection, training and so on which may have the positive impact on workplace competencies are called KSA-enhancing practices. A set of HRM practices that are positively related to employee motivation such as incentive compensation like stock options, individual or group performance bonuses, profit sharing are called motivation-enhancing practices. Baird and Meshoulam (1988) noted that organization should introduce compensation system that might align with their overall HRM strategy and also supported by their business strategy. Authors argued that motivation-enhancing practices not only help the employees to perform well in their job but also help to enhance their skills and abilities in their position. More specifically, KSA-enhancing practices are more rigid to the organizations, which are not transferable, but internal mobility i.e. internal promotion is likely to be motivation-enhancing practices that reduces turnover intention of employees (Pfeffer, 1998). For instance, Delaney and Huselid (1996) identified that availability of internal promotion had a positive association on perceived performance. Lastly, empowerment-enhancing practices are the degree to which an employee has a discretionary power to influence decisions including participation, grievance, flexible job design are some forms of practices.

As HRM practices critically affect the psychological conditions of employees (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994, Rousseau & Greller, 1994) and influence an individual's attitude (Salanova et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 1998), an organization can enhance the level of employee engagement with appropriate HRM practices. Therefore, the following part of this study hypothesizes the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement.

2.4.1 HRM practices and Employee Engagement

HRM practices involve in different activities associated with the management of human resources in an organization (Boxall & Purcell, 2008). Combs et al. (2006), in a meta-analysis, indicated that HRM practices are significant and relevant to enhance different performance measures. However, prior studies considered various HRM practices from different perspectives as the predictors of different employee outcomes (Chen, 2017; Ugwu & Okojie, 2016; Suan & Nasurdin, 2014; Jørgensen et al., 2014). For example, some studies (e.g., Huang et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2012; Wright & Kehoe, 2008) categorized HRM practices as skill-enhancing practices, motivation-enhancing practices and opportunity-enhancing practices to examine their relationship with different employee performances. On the other hand, some other researchers (e.g., Edgar & Geare, 2005; Mathews & Shepherd, 2002; Legge, 1995; Gill, 1999) focused on the soft versus hard approaches of HRM practices to identify the link with employee performances such as turnover intention, job satisfaction. Legge (1995) described soft HRM approach as the "developmental humanism" that emphasizes managing of "human" aspects of employees, while hard HRM approach define people as the factor of production cost (Gill,1999). Soft HRM practices focuses on human aspects of employees to fulfill their needs, which in turn generate favorable employee outcomes (e.g., OC and employee engagement). In addition, a general consensus has risen in the HRM literature (Marescaux et al., 2012; Katou, 2011) that soft HRM practices affect organizational performance through employee outcomes (Paauwe, 2009). Moreover, prior studies (e.g., Huang et al., 2017; Boon & Kalshoven, 2014; Suan Choo et al., 2013; Karatepe, 2013; Shuck et al., 2011;

Saks, 2006) observed significant role of different HRM practices to enhance employee engagement. Therefore, this study considers a set of soft HRM practices such as performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development, job security, career advancement, employee participation to theorize their relationships with employee engagement.

This relationship could be explained in the concept of SET through which all the forms of gaining within an organization could be established through an exchange process between two parties namely employers and employees (Emerson, 1976). In essence of SET, the workplace behaviors (i.e. employees' engagement) are affected by the individuals (i.e. interpersonal relationship within the organization) and the organization itself (e.g. HRM practices) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976). In an empirical study based on SET, Suan Choo et al., (2013) observed the significant role of different HRM practices in improving employee engagement, and suggested the strategic role of organization in HRM literature by fostering different HRM practices to enhance employee engagement. Based on the previous research and theoretical backdrop of SET, the possible link, thus, could be established between HRM practices and employee engagement, and this study proposes the first hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1   :   HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards and recognition, training and development) are significantly associated with employee engagement.

2.4.1.1 Career Advancement and Employee Engagement

Career advancement is the process by which an organization create prospect for the advancement of employees' career (Herzberg, 1986). Scholars (e.g., Bristol & Tisdell, 2010; Wiley, 1997) asserted that career advancement opportunity is one of the most important motivational factors that may positively influence employee behavior. When an organization introduces career advancement opportunities, employees acknowledge the organizational concern for their well-being which, in turn, reduced their burnout (Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015; Chuang & Liao, 2010). Since proper career advancement practice intrinsically motivates employees and abates burnout, it may lead higher employee engagement (Albrecht, 2012). In addition, a set of prior empirical studies (e.g., Huang et al., 2017; Ugwu & Okojie, 2016; Alias et al., 2014; Sarti, 2014; Batista et al., 2013; Bal et al., 2013) found career advancement as the significant predictor of employee engagement. However, Tan and Nasurdin (2011) observed the insignificant relationship between career advancement opportunities and employee engagement. However, Mohapatro and Sharma (2010) argued that employees who do not get a proper career path within the organization, are more likely to be de-motivated during role performance, resulting a low level of engagement at their job. Moreover, according to the tenet of SET, when employees perceive the high-performance work practices like career advancement in their organization to improve their well-being, they feel obligated and want to reciprocate by contributing in the organization with positive attitude (Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015). Therefore, this current study, in line with SET, postulates the positive association between career advancement and employee engagement.

62

Hypothesis 1a : Career advancement is positively related to employee engagement.

2.4.1.2 Employee Participation and Employee Engagement

Employee participation is the extent to which employees get the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process of an organization (Heery & Noon, 2001). According to Cheung and Wu (2011), employee participation is very crucial for achieving organizational goals. If employees perceive the participative decision-making process within the organization, their behavioral outcomes such as OC and employee engagement can be enhanced (Cantor et al., 2012). Previous empirical research (e.g. Cooke et al., 2016; Ugwu & Okojie, 2016; Marescaux et al., 2012) found the significant effect of employee participation on employee engagement, and recommended that employees must get to involve in the organizational decision-making process to make them understand the basic need of creativity and to build appropriate attitude required for better performance (Kingir & Mesci, 2010). Moreover, participative decision-making process serves as a sense of belongingness between management and employees (Breland et al., 2011; Noah, 2008) that may help to create a healthy work environment by reducing work stress which may positively affect employee engagement (Benn et al., 2015). However, though Benn et al. (2015) found positive association between employee participation and performance in the context of service sectors employees, the relationship is insignificant in case of manufacturing employees (Estrin et al., 1987). In addition, inconclusive results have been

63

observed in the same industry such as Cooke et al. (2016) identified the significant association between participation and employee engagement for banking employees whereas employee participation was found as insignificant predictor of organizational performance for same industry (Delery & Doty, 1996). However, Gollan (2005) stated that high quality employee participation facilitates positive employee behavior to achieve organizational effectiveness. In this vein, employees with higher participation in decision making process feel their importance in the organization for which they reciprocate with positive attitude and behavior towards their job (Gould-Williams, 2007). This study, thus, hypothesizes the positive association of employee participation with employee engagement.

Hypothesis 1b   :   Employee participation is positively related to employee engagement.

2.4.1.3 Job Security and Employee Engagement

Job security is the degree to which an organization can offer a stable employment opportunity to their employee (Herzberg, 1968). More specifically, job security is the extent to which an employee could expect to continue his/her job in that particular organization for a specified time period (Delery & Doty, 1996). Employees with poor feelings of job security are highly correlated with poor mental and physical health (Strazdins et al., 2004; Chirumbolo & Hellgren, 2003; Hellgren & Sverke, 2003) and

psychological distress and burnout (Probst, 2003; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995). Moreover, Gabris and Simo (1995) indicated that job security acted as a motivational factor for employees i.e. employees with high level of job security will show the high level of performance and low level of job security result in less motivated in terms of employee outcome (Miller et al., 2001). In another word, as soon as the employees start to worry about their job loss, their behaviors automatically start to go bad (Boya, et al., 2008; Domenighetti et al., 2000). Previous empirical studies (Chen, 2017; Ugwu & Okojie, 2016; Senol, 2011; Poyraz & Kama, 2008; Boya, et al., 2008; Kraimer et al., 2005; Sverke et al., 2002) also found job security as one of the most powerful motivational tools for encouraging employees in their job performance by changing the negative work attitudes. In addition, Chirumbolo and Areni (2005) reported that job security provides employees with high motivation which positively affects employee outcome. However, Arabi et al. (2013) did not find the job security as a significant motivational factor to enhance employee attitude towards their work. In addition, Selenko et al. (2013) empirical found that the employees with high level of job insecurity intend to perform in a better way to protect their jobs. Thus, prior literature indicates the debate about the role of job security in employee outcomes. However, Chang (2005) suggested job security as the tool by which organizations show their commitments to their employees and in return employees reciprocate it in the form of positive attitude in the workplace. This is reflected by the paradigm of SET, and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Therefore, this study theorizes the following hypothesis as the positive association between job security and employee engagement.

65

Hypothesis 1c : Job security is positively associated with employee engagement.

2.4.1.4 Performance Feedback and Employee Engagement

Performance feedback is extent to which employees have the opportunity to get the useful information of their performance that may help them to improve, learn and develop while performing the job (Zhou, 2003). Scholars (Volpone et al., 2012) claimed that favorable performance feedback processes will create favorable psychological climate which will improve the level of employee engagement. In their study, Latham and Mann (2006) have suggested that performance evaluation and feedback should be fair and unbiased. Moreover, Coetzer and Rothmann (2007) stated that employees with positive feedback are more likely to have greater level of engagement while negative feedback may lessen it. Based on the norms of SET, Macey and Schneider (2008) explored that when employees will be rewarded (intrinsically or extrinsically) in a fair way by their superior or manager, they will reciprocate by investing more time, energy or personal resources (engagement) to their organization which, in turn, enhance their level of engagement. However, previous empirical studies provided contradict results on the relationship between performance feedback and employee engagement. For instance, Menguc et al. (2013) and Van den Broeck et al. (2008) found the significant positive relationship between employee engagement and performance feedback, while Sarti (2014) identified the relationship is insignificant. Notwithstanding, as fairness perception about performance feedback may reduce different employee burnouts such as psychological

66

distress, anxiety and depression (Spell & Arnold, 2007), regular performance feedback can play a vital role to reduce theses burnouts which, indeed, can increase the level of engagement (Freeny & Tiernan, 2006). Therefore, this study, based on the reciprocity process of SET, proposes the positive relationship between performance feedback and employee engagement which leads the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1d : Performance feedback is positively related to employee engagement.

2.4.1.5 Rewards & Recognition and Employee Engagement

Rewards and recognition are important resources offered by the organization that motivate employees to accomplish organizational goal. According to Karatepe (2013), adequate reward can motivate employees to provide outstanding services to customers. In addition, employees often place their view about employer via reward and recognition system that they receive from that company (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009) and lack of reward may lead to an unpleasant environment that will reduce work efforts caused by withdrawal of job (Lytle, 1997). However, in their study, Suan and Nasurdin (2014) found that reward was insignificant to engagement. Authors argued that the reason could be the perception of employees that their reward is not justifying their performance. On the other hand, Breevaart et al. (2014) asserted that as organization treats reward as the appreciation tool for better employee performance, reward may affect employees' behavior positively to

67

enhance their engagement at work. Suan Choo et al. (2013) also support the view and considered reward and recognition as the predictor of employee engagement. Previous empirical studies (e.g., Presbitero, 2017; Alias et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2013; Maslach & Leiter, 2008) support the view that rewards are one of the important elements of work life which may motivate employees to improve their engagement. On the other hand, another set of prior studies (e.g., Sarti, 2014; De Gieter et al., 2008; Saks, 2006) observed the insignificant influence of rewards & recognition on employee engagement. Sharma and Sharma (2010) reported that reward & recognition had limited capacity to explain the adequate variance related to employee behavior i.e. engagement. However, Karatepe (2013), based on SET, found that when employees receive appropriate rewards and recognition from their organization, they feel obligated to their organization which, in turn, lead the higher level of employee engagement. Robinson et al. (2004) also observed the reflection of reciprocity behavior of employees that the extent of employee engagement depends on the rewards employees receive from their organization. Moreover, employees with appropriate socio-emotional resources i.e. reward & recognition feels obliged to repay their organization and show higher level of engagement (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Therefore, this study assumes the positive association of reward & recognition with employee engagement promulgates the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1e   :   Rewards & Recognition is positively related to employee engagement.

2.4.1.6 Training & Development and Employee Engagement

Training & development is the organizational investment to develop the appropriate skills and abilities of employees so that they can perform better to achieve organizational goal. According to Yang and Fu (2009), training and development programs are designed by the organization to enhance employees' job-related skills and abilities, which may help employees to handle different, complicated organizational situations (Karatepe et al., 2007; Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991). In fact, HRM literature has identified training and development as one of the most important predictors of employee behavior and employee performance (Huang et al., 2017; Goh & Pavic, 2013; Schuler & MacMillan, 1984). For instance, Kahn (1990) stated that organizations can provide resources to their employees through training and development program to make them feel that they have the capability to perform in a better way which, in turn, helps to enhance the level of engagement. In addition, training & development program may help to build employees confident towards their work that ultimately helps to increase the feelings of availability (Presbitero, 2017; Gruman & Saks, 2011). Moreover, previous empirical research found that training has positive association with psychological health of employees (Luthans et al., 2008), and better psychological health of employees can lead to an increasing level of employee engagement (Gruman & Saks, 2011). This positive relationship between training & development and employee engagement can also be explained under the tenet of SET stated that employees with proper training & development will feel that their organizations are investing lot for their development and reciprocate by showing a high level of engagement at their work role (Suan & Nasurdin, 2014). However, some other studies

69

showed the insignificant relationship between training and employee positive attitudes (Batt, 2002) arguing that the possible reason for such type of results could be the improper training program that actually is not improving the employee skills related to job. Thus, it can be observed that there is a lack of clear understanding about the role of training & development to enhance employee engagement which may lead the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1f : Training & development is positively associated with employee engagement.

2.5 Organizational Commitment

OC has become the important topic for scholars as well as practitioners in 1960s and 1970. It has evidenced that OC is one of the most comprehensively investigated issue in the prior literature (Sikorska, 2005). Scholars also asserted the importance of OC in the academic literature because of its relationship with individual and organizational performances and effectiveness (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). OC has largely been used as the key factor in the relationship with individuals and organizations (Laka-Mathebula, 2004). According to Allen and Meyer (1997), various researchers have been studied different work attitudes variables, but only job satisfaction has received more research attention than OC (p. 286). Researchers also identified that highly committed employees are more likely to have less intention to leave the organization; in fact, they are devoted to achieve organizational goals and objectives (Meyer et al., 1989; Mowday et al., 1982). Porter (2006) cited that understanding the OC is very critical for an organization as it affect the success or failure of the organization, perhaps these findings lead researchers to

go further study of commitment (Jamaludin, 2009). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) posited that a large number of studies give attention to OC as it has an influence on employee attitude and behaviors in the workplace (Koch & Steers, 1978; Porter et al., 1974). In addition, Batemen and Strasser (1984) identified several reasons for studying OC such as, employee behavior and attitudes, performance effectiveness, job satisfaction, employee characteristics like age, job tenure.

In the academic literature, multiple definitions of OC have been derived by industrial and organizational psychology (Cohen, 2003). For example, Porter at al. (1974) defined commitment as the employees feeling of obligation which exerts the efforts towards organizations goals. They also stated that OC is the employees' identification with and involvement to the organization which may help them to come with organizational values (Porter et al., 1974). Johnston et al. (1990) conceptualized commitment as a combine function of employees' behavior and attitudes. Scholars defined OC as the psychological state of mind that helps employees to identify themselves in the organization and help them to realize a strong desire, a need or an obligation to come out with organizational success (George et al., 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Blau & Boal, 1987). Later, Ferris and Rowland (1996) theorized OC by incorporating three elements i.e. (a) employees should keep belief in organization's goals and values, (b) should have the ability to give high contribution and effort for the organization, and (c) should have the strong desire to maintain the organizational membership. Furthermore, authors termed OC as "a work attitude that is directly related to employee participation and intention to remain with the organization and is clearly linked to job performance" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Northcraft and Neale (1996) asserted that commitment is an ongoing process by which organization members can build loyalty and express their concern for the organization's success and well-being. However, Meyer and Allen (1997) described commitment in a general view that OC is "a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization" (p. 252). Consequently, Spector (1997) cited that OC is the degree to which an individual devoted to their organization. In this view, Swailes (2002) demonstrated that OC can be achieved by integrating an individual's values and beliefs with the organization and by doing this, employees will ensure that they will grow and learn from their job which in turn, increase the level of commitment to stay with that particular organization (Opkara, 2004). Researchers also cited that OC is a personal attempt through which an individual can protect the harmony between their identity and identity that others see in them (Lee & Olshfski, 2002; Burke & Reitzes, 1991). Meyer et al. (2006) viewed OC as "a force that binds an individual to a target (social or non-social) and to a course of action of relevance to that target" (p.666). Apart from these definitions, Suliman and Isles (2000) noted that although there are plenty of studies have tried to conceptualize OC, yet this issue is "ill-defined" and "ill-conceptualized".

A meta-analyses study has been conducted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) to examine the antecedents, correlates and consequences of OC. At the early stage, scholars identified two distinct form of commitment namely, attitudinal (Mowday et al., 1979) and calculative or behavioral (Becker, 1960). Later, Suliman and Iles (2000) divided commitment into four models that conceptualized commitment specifically the attitudinal

72

models, behavioral model, normative model, and multidimensional model. According to attitudinal model of Porter et al. (1974), OC is the strength of an employee to identify and involve in an organization which was supported by Mathieu and Zajac (1990). In this view, Mowday et al. (1982) asserted that committed employees will give effort in success of the organization and keep a strong desire to be a member of this organization. On the other hand, behavioral model emphasized on the employees' loyalty to their organization as they invested time, friendship or pension (Suliman & Iles, 2000). The foundation of behavioral model come from side-bet theory of Becker (1960) identified that employees will retain with the organization if they realize the cost of leaving of that particular organization (Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Zangaro, 2001). Consistently, Kanter (1968) defined OC as the profit associated with continued participation of employees and cost related to leave that organization. The normative model conceptualized by Weiner (1982) posited that the OC is the totality of normative pressures to act in a way to meet organizational goals. Further, he clarified that employees will be highly committed to their organization if they feel that this is right and moral thing to do. In fact, OC can be achieved by incorporating employee's goals and values with organizational aims (Suliman & Isles, 2000).

The more recent multidimensional model initiated by Meyer and Allen (1991) has recognized that component of commitment is more complex than emotional attachment, perceived cost or moral obligation. In very early, Kelman (1958) proposed the multidimensional model consisting compliance, identification and internalization and the attitudinal change as the constructs of commitment which was confirmed by O' Reilly and

73

Chatman (1986). In their study, Meyer and Allen (1991) introduced three component models of commitment to explore all the forms of underlying mind-set to attach with the organization. They identified three types of commitment such as, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment to explain the behavior of employees. This conceptual model is widely accepted and widely used as theoretical framework in several studies (Gunlu et al., 2010; Joolideh & Yeshodhara, 2009; Allen & Meyer, 1996). Affective commitment defined as the positive emotional attachment to the organization and also has the identity and strong feelings with the organization (Manion, 2004; Laschinger et al., 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1991). In this view, they suggested that affective commitment consisted personal characteristics, organizational structure and work experiences. In another study, Meyer et al. (1993) ascertain that employees with affective commitment want to continue their job with the existing organization not because of only they need an occupation rather they want to (p. 539). Continuance commitment is the "knowledge of the costs associated with leaving the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In other words, continuance commitment is the willingness of an employee to remain with the organization because of the "non-transferable" investments such as, retirement, relationship with other employees, etc. (Reichers, 1985). In addition, normative commitment termed as a "feeling of obligation to continue employment" (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Randall and Cote (1991) argued that employees feel obligation to their organization if the organization has invested (i.e. spent time and money in training and development) on them. Scholars also noted that this type of commitment varies from person to person based on their sense of duty and obligation to the work in their organization (Jaros et al., 1993).

2.5.1   Prior Studies Related to Organizational Commitment

Several past studies (e.g., Fazio et al., 2017; Yoon, Jang & Lee, 2016; Srivastava & Dhar, 2016) suggested OC had a significant direct influence on employee performance and there were differences between antecedents and consequences of commitment (e.g., Katou, 2017; Sharma & Dhar, 2016; Chang et al., 2016). For example, Sharma and Dhar (2016) surveyed 349 nursing employees of healthcare organizations and found that OC had a positive association with nurses' job performance. Vandenberghe et al. (2004) showed a mixed result of commitment and performance i.e. commitment to supervisor had a direct link to performance but OC had insignificant relation to performance. Authors also found a negative correlation between intention to quit and OC. Yoon et al. (2016) cited that OC had a positive relation to employees' positive behavior such as organizational citizenship behavior. Another study of Srivastava and Dhar, (2016) revealed that OC and employee performance are strongly related and OC can mediate the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance.

Moreover, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) demonstrated that three-component model of commitment had a negative impact on turnover intention. The correlation analyses, of survey data gathered from a sample of 191 employees in the USA, revealed that OC was significantly related to employee performance (Dalal et al., 2012). In a more recent study of Ibrahim and Falasi (2014) postulated that employee loyalty namely, affective commitment and continuance commitment were significantly related to employee

engagement among 50 managerial employees in UAE. They also noted that affective commitment was more important predictor of engagement than continuance commitment. Moreover, Albrecht and Andreetta (2011) found that employee empowerment enhanced the affective commitment which in turn, reduced the turnover intention. Later, study pointed out that work engagement was better predicted by affective commitment than job satisfaction for the low contact services employees (Barnes & Collier, 2013). Karaa et al. (2013) investigated 443 employees of five-star hotels in Turkey and suggested that quality of work life positively influenced the affective commitment, and affective commitment enhanced the life satisfaction. Further, Yalabik et al. (2013) examine the relationship between affective commitment and job performance incorporating a sample of 167 employees working in the UK bank. Findings indicated that affective commitment was positively related to work engagement and work engagement acted as a mediator between the effect of affective commitment on job performance and intention to quit.
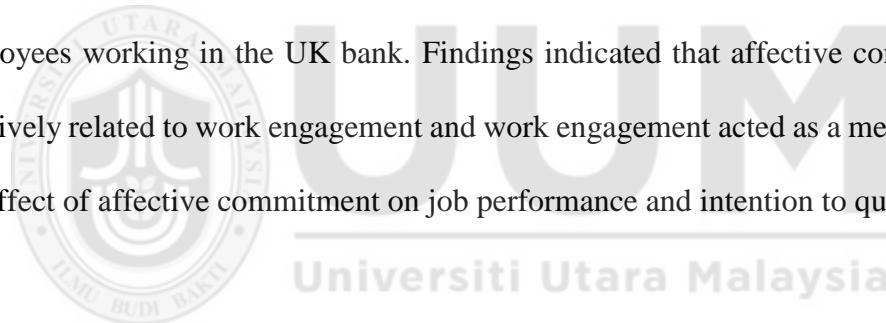
However, various researches have conducted to identify the factors that affect OC. For instance, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) examined the gender effect on commitment and found that women were more committed than men. Later, scholars found that personal characteristics like gender had no relation with commitment (van der Velde et al., 2003; Kacmar et al., 1999). Kacmar et al. (1999), and Mathieu and Zajac (1990) identified higher levels of commitment among married workers than unmarried workers because married employees had a greater financial responsibility. Consistently, higher educated employees were found to have less OC because of their alternative job opportunity or higher expectations (Grau et al., 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). However, Papalexandris and

76

Galanaki (2009) conducted a research with a sample of 51 CEO's and their subordinates. Findings indicated that good management or mentoring significantly predicted OC. In addition, Batista et al. (2013) conducted a research to investigate the implications of quality management systems practices on employees' attitudes and found that among all the variables only responsibility and team work, and improvement and problem prevention were positively correlated with OC. The multiple regression analyses revealed that organizational climate had a strong impact on commitment than job content among 116 executives of a manufacturing organization (Sharma & Sharma, 2010). Authors importantly noted that among all the variables of organizational climate only compensation and benefit, learning and development, and performance management were the critical predictors of commitment. Later, Fairlie (2011) suggested that meaningful work characteristics positively related to employee outcome such as, OC.
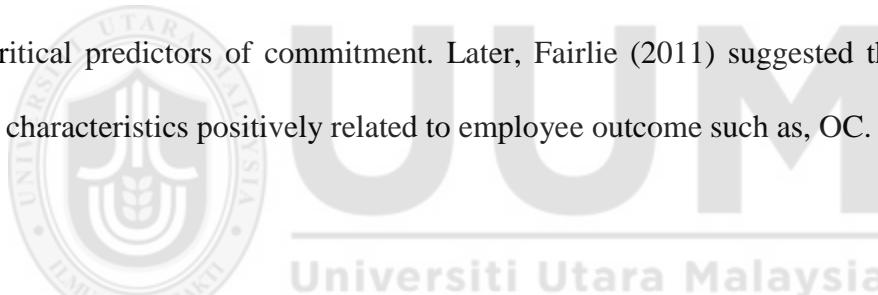
Various existing studies showed the significant positive relationship between HRM practices and OC. For instance, Bal et al. (2013) claimed that developmental HRM and accommodative HRM positively affect affective commitment. Boon and Kalshoven (2014) also identified that high commitment HRM was positively related to OC. Another study revealed that OC was positively predicted by POS (Brunetto et al., 2013). In the study of Saks (2006) documented that job characteristics, POS, supervisory support, reward & recognition, procedural and distributive justice were the antecedents of OC. On the other hand, Albrecht (2012) found the positive impact of organizational culture and team culture on commitment through employee engagement. Karatepe (2013) showed that work engagement had a direct positive impact on OC and perception of organizational

77

politics indirectly predicted commitment through engagement. Another study of Karatepe et al (2014) also confirmed the positive impact of work engagement on affective commitment where work engagement fully mediated the relationship between challenge stressors and commitment. Similarly, Barkhuizen et al. (2014) investigated that work engagement had a mediating effect of the relationship between job resources and OC. The structural equation modeling confirmed the relationship between interpersonal leadership and OC among 451 full-time employees (Hansen et al., 2014).

2.5.2 Mediating role of Organizational Commitment

According to Allen and Mayer (1996), OC is the psychological relationship between employees and organization for which employees are less likely to leave their organization voluntarily. There are three components of OC such as affective, normative and continuance commitment (Mayer & Allen, 1991, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). HRM practices play critical role to influence psychological state to build OC in order to avoid the high cost of turnover (Wijnmaalen et al., 2016; Lee Whittington & Galpin, 2010), and to increase job satisfaction (Misra et al., 2013; Chen, 2004). However, previous studies observed the inconclusive and contradict results on the role of HRM practices to enhance OC. For example, Zaitouni et al. (2011) found that HRM practices such as autonomy and rewards are statistically significant with commitment whereas recognition has been found as an insignificant predictor of commitment. Another set of studies (e.g., Currall et al., 2005; Tekleab et al., 2005; Trevor et al., 1997) identified that different

rewards to employees negatively affect their OC since employees perceived it as unfair practice among peers. Nevertheless, several studies (Thompson, Buch & Kuvaas, 2017; Aladwan, Bhanugopan & D'Netto, 2015; Batista et al., 2013; Purang & Sharma, 2007; Agarwala, 2003) found a significant positive relationship of different HRM practices such as compensation (Chong & Law, 2016; Mohapatra & Sharma, 2010; Singh et al., 2011); performance appraisal (Chang, 2005; Sharma & Joshi, 2001); promotion and career development (Sturges et al., 2002; Wayne et al., 1997); rewards system (Srivastava & Dhar, 2016; Bartlett, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997); job security (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and benefits (Fabi, Lacoursière & Raymond, 2015; Mohapatra & Sharma, 2010) with OC. More specifically, Lamba and Choudhary (2013) found the significant positive influence of compensation, job security and job performance on affective commitment, but insignificant impact on continuance or normative commitment. Similarly, Lewicka and Krot (2015) identified significant positive relationship between HRM practices and OC. However, Tansky and Cohen (2001), in line with SET, stated that if HRM practices reflects the employees' well-being, employees feel obligated and want to reciprocate by increasing the level of commitment towards the organization. This study expects that employees' level of commitment is the outcome of the HRM practices, and, therefore, suggests the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2 : **HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards and recognition,**

training and development) are significantly associated with Organizational Commitment.

Hypothesis 2a : **Career advancement is positively related to organizational commitment**

Hypothesis 2b : **Employee participation is positively related to organizational commitment**

Hypothesis 2c : **Job security is positively associated with organizational commitment**

Hypothesis 2d : **Performance feedback is positively related to organizational commitment**

Hypothesis 2e : **Rewards & recognition is positively related to organizational commitment.**

Hypothesis 2f : **Training & development is positively associated with organizational commitment.**

According to Suliman and Al-Junaibi (2010), employees with high level of commitment have strong feelings to stay with the organization. Thus, OC is treated as one of the key factors to achieve organizational success (Suliman & Al-Junaibi, 2010; Suliman & Iles, 2000), and organization should understand the way by which they can improve the level of employees' commitment to enhance the employees' on-the-job positive behavior (Albrecht, 2006; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Notwithstanding the overlapping and direction of relationship debate related to OC and engagement, some previous studies (e.g., Katou, 2017; van Gelderen & Bik, 2016; Yalabik et al., 2013; Sparrow & Balain, 2010; Hakanen

80

et al., 2006; Demerouti et al., 2001) considered OC as the antecedent of employee engagement to examine the OC-Engagement relationship. Yalabik et al., (2013) found that employee engagement mediated the relationship between OC and performance. Similar results have been found in the study of Barnes and Collier (2013) revealed that employees with high level of OC have high level of engagement during their role performance. Furthermore, Ibrahim and Falasi (2014) identified the significant and positive relationship of affective commitment with employee engagement. Therefore, this study considers OC as the antecedents of employee engagement, and assumes the positive relationship between OC and employee engagement.

Hypothesis 3   :   Organizational Commitment is positively associated with employee engagement.

Furthermore, several prior studies (Fazio et al., 2017; Srivastava & Dhar, 2016; Yoon, et al., 2016; Zopiatis et al., 2014; Theriou & Chatzoglou, 2009) found that OC significantly mediates the relationship between its antecedents and consequences. For example, Fabi, Lacoursière & Raymond, (2015) conducted a research on 730 employees in Canada and revealed that employees who are highly satisfied in their job are likely to have high level of commitment that lead to a lower intention to leave their job. Similarly, Jaiswal and Dhar (2016) suggested that employees who have a positive perception about HRM practices within the organizations are considered to be highly committed towards their organizations and exhibit a prominent extra role behavior in the organization. However,

81

none of the previous study conceptualizes OC as the mediator between HRM-engagement linkages. Therefore, given the HRM practices are expected to positively relate with OC, and OC is positively related with employee engagement, this study posits that OC may mediates the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement.

Hypothesis 4 : **Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between HRM practices and Employee Engagement.**

Hypothesis 4a : **Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between career advancement and Employee Engagement.**

Hypothesis 4b : **Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Employee participation and Employee Engagement.**

Hypothesis 4c : **Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Job Security and Employee Engagement.**

Hypothesis 4d : **Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Performance Feedback and Employee Engagement.**

Hypothesis 4e : **Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Reward & Recognition and Employee Engagement.**

Hypothesis 4f : **Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Training & development and Employee Engagement.**

2.6   Work Related Support

Social support is defined as the mutual exchange of resources between two employees who perceive that the well-being of the recipient will be enhanced (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984). Typically, social support refers to the helping relationship and the quality of the relationship (Leavy, 1983). Further, Karasek and Theorell (1990) defined social support as the positive or helpful social interactions available from supervisors, management and co-workers in the workplace. On the other hand, authors considered social support as a process in which the support provider invests resources such as time, energy, money or goods so as to "bring about a constructive change" in the recipient (Bacharach et al. 2000, p. 705).

In the academic literature, researchers identified that social support could be work-related (i.e. supervisors, co-workers and management) or non-work related (i.e. family, spouses, and partners) (Seiger & Wiese, 2009) and also could be in different forms (Glazer, 2006). According to Langford et al. (1997), an individual could find social support in four areas, firstly, emotional support which is made of caring, empathy, trust; secondly, instrumental support comprising tangible aid or goods; thirdly, informational support embedded by assisting in problem solving; fourthly, appraisal support might be affirmation or communicating self-evaluation (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000). Kossek et al. (2011) demonstrated generic workplace support as the supervisory or organizational support within the workplace which may affect the employee well-being. Recent studies suggested

that employees who received social support may have stronger psychobiological systems which may help to enhance work recovery process of employees (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). With this view, Arbuckle (2008) posited that WRS could improve emotional labor by decreasing emotional exhaustion and could enhance job satisfaction and performance. Later, Burke et al. (2012) showed that higher level of social support may help to improve employee well-being. Unlikely, Hombrados-Mendieta and Cosano-Rivas (2013) suggested that the negative impact of job burnout on work and life satisfaction was moderated by social support. Consequently, Lin et al. (2014) hypothesized that social support had a moderating effect on the negative relationship between job burnout and well-being and the positive relationship between leisure participation and well-being. The hierarchical regression analysis conducted by using a sample of 236 hotel employees in Turkey and revealed that social support (namely, SS and CWS) was positively related to employees' psychological safety and service recovery performance (Guchait et al., 2014). Nahum-Shani and Bamberger (2011) showed the moderating effect of social support on the relationship between work hours and psychological health and well-being. Their empirical data confirmed that the adequate amount of social support not only reduced the harmful effects of long work hours on employee well-being, but could help to improve the employees' health and well-being in the context of longer hours at work. The structural equation modeling, data of 380 service workers, examined the relationship between job support (SS and CWS) variables and work-to-leisure conflict interface and found that only SS had significant and direct effect on work-to-leisure conflict (Wong & Lin, 2007). More interestingly, only CWS but not SS had the moderating effect on the relationship between job demands and work-to-leisure conflict.

Although, research identified that there are multiple sources of social support exists, the present study places its focus on WRS i.e. SS, CWS and OS. Sundin et al. (2010) noted that SS, CWS and OS are the important sources of WRS as those support could help to cope with work-related stress and employee well-being (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986) which ultimately has positive impact on professional growth and career development (Halbesleben & Rotondo, 2007). In this line, Thoits (2011) stated that social relationships at the workplace had a positive influence on worker well-being by increasing the perception of availability of social support.

2.6.1   Supervisor Support
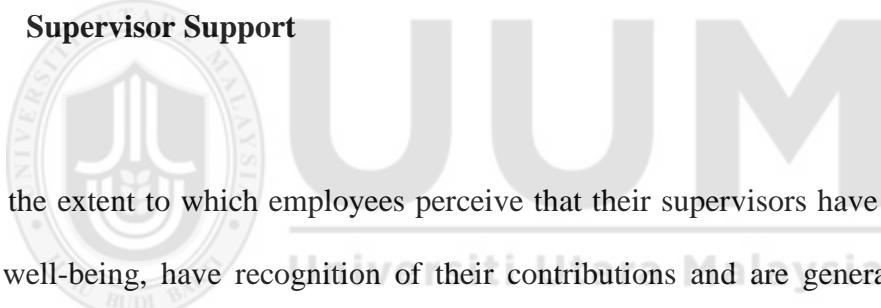
SS is the extent to which employees perceive that their supervisors have concern about their well-being, have recognition of their contributions and are generally supportive (Eisenberger et al., 2002). With this view, Kottke and Sharafinski (1988) defined supervisory support as the degree to which they are valued for their work and get attention to maintain the employee well-being by the supervisors, consequently, workers also share their views in the way that to which extent the entity is committed to them (Sora et al., 2011). This is consistent with the social exchange theory posited that employees are more likely to develop the relationship between both the organization and the supervisors (Settoon et al., 1996). Several empirical studies (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002; Thomas & Ganster, 1995) demonstrated that employees with high SS would experience less work-family conflict. Researchers identified that supportive supervisors are ready to give help,

information and constructive feedback, and make employees feel that they will be facilitated for their further development (Langford et al., 1997; Blancero et al., 1996). Employees perceived that supervisors are acted as an agent of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002) who implemented the organization's policies and practices to create a favorable workplace for them, which in turn, enhance their emotional and psychological resources by reducing the strain created from work demands (Luk & Shuffer, 2005; Frye & Breaugh, 2004). In their study, Selvarajan et al. (2013) identified that supervisory support had a negative impact on work conflict by using two large random sample (N=1130, N=2769). These findings also supported by Karatepe and Kilic (2007) identified that SS mitigated frontline employees' conflict in the work-family interface which might enhance their job satisfaction by using a sample of 296 frontline hotel employees in Cyprus. Another study showed the mediating effect of perceived SS on justice and trust paradigm (DeConinck, 2010). Results posited that supervisory support acted as a mediator between the relationship of interactional justice and supervisory trust. Moreover, distributive justice had a direct and indirect relationship with organizational trust through supervisory support. Prior studies showed that SS may affect employees' outcome in a various way, for example, level of SS have positive association to job satisfaction and negatively related to burnout and intention to quit (Kalliiath & Beck, 2001; Hatton and Emerson, 1998; Munn et al., 1996). Research provided evidence that the support from the immediate manager was crucial for employees' positive behavior during their role performance (Ling Suan & Nasurdin, 2016; Maertz et al., 2007; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Maertz et al., 2003). Consequently, Dawley et al. (2008) conducted a research by incorporating a sample of 346 employees working in the USA manufacturing firms, and the survey data revealed that SS was the important predictor of OC and

employee job search intentions. The survey data from a sample of 304 full-time employees in Turkey, found that perceived SS moderated the negative relationship between OS and turnover intentions (Kalemci Tuzun & Kamelci, 2012). Moreover, several studies (Chauhan, Ghosh, Rai & Kapoor, 2017; Rai, Ghosh, Chauhan & Mehta, 2017; Singh & Nayak, 2015) noted that supervisor support can act as a moderator to buffer the relationship between the independent and dependent constructs.

2.6.2   Co-Worker Support

According to Babin and Boles (1996), CWS is the degree to which an individual feel that co-workers are helpful, are available when needed and are concerned to solve work-related problems. CWS termed as the assistance form co-worker at their workplace when needed by giving encouragement and support as well as sharing knowledge and expertise (Zhou & George, 2001). Susskind et al. (2003) defined CWS as "the extent to which employees believe their co-workers are willing to provide them with work-related assistance to aid in the execution of their service-based duties" (p. 181). Moreover, CWS helps employees to do the things possible by providing emotional support, consideration, useful customer information, and directive guidelines (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Woodman et al., 1993) and supportive colleagues also may help to create an encouraging environment where individuals can share their new ideas or discuss about their mistakes freely (Joiner, 2007). Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) stated that support from co-workers had a positive influence on individual employee which may help them to cope with the

organizational practices such as, work-team arrangement and the shift of job content to more complex and collective tasks. Scholars also suggested that the role of CWS not only limited to task related information and helping, but extended to employees' socio-emotional support for example, providing care, empathy and love (Rousseau et al., 2009). In addition, Susskind et al. (2003) argued that CWS is a critical construct for employees to accomplish a work-related task as it had a positive association with employees' overall morale. Various studies have showed that employees with high CWS are more likely to have ability to deal with work-related stress, to solve customer problems, to improve service performance and finally have less intention to quit the job (Tsai et al., 2009; Cho & Johanson, 2008; Tsai et al., 2007) which may encourage employees to handle customer requests and complaints effectively and efficiently (Karatepe, 2011). In fact, supportive peers' environment at the workplace create such a context where employees feel that they get help from others and they share all the information which will enhance the learning opportunity at their jobs (Van der Heijden et al., 2010). Prior studies showed that emotional support from co-workers had a direct association with employees' happiness and could reduce the level of negative emotion and exhaustion (Sloan, 2013; Pugliesi, 1995; Turner & Marino, 1994; Menaghan, 1991; Loscocco & Spitze, 1990). CWS may help to show the internalization of the behaviors of employees, through which they feel psychological identification with their jobs at the workplace (Nugent & Abolafia, 2006). Furthermore, research suggested that co-workers can provide support for each other to deal with the work-related emotional experiences such as emotional labor (Korczynski, 2003; Lively, 2000) or feelings of anger (Lively & Powell, 2006; Sloan, 2004) created by workers for others at the workplace. Study also supported that congenial relationship between co-workers might increase the positive and reduce the negative emotions in the

88

workplace (Sloan et al., 2013). According to Menguc and Boichuk (2012), CWS had a positive and significant relation with unit identification. In their study, they revealed that CWS acted as a moderator between customer orientation dissimilarity and sales unit identification. They posited that customer orientation dissimilarity was negatively and significantly related to sales unit identification when the level of CWS was low. Empirical studies suggested that the employees' social exchange relationships with coworkers had positive influence on employees' attitudes and performance (Sherony & Green, 2002). In this regard, various studies found that CWS had a positive association with job satisfaction, job involvement, work engagement, and OC (Karatepe et al., 2010; Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). The longitudinal study by Loi et al. (2014) documented that coworker support was positively related to employees' pro-motive voice and negatively related to psychological stress. Furthermore, Xanthopoulou et al. (2008) suggested that peer support had an indirect relation with job performance which was mediated by work engagement among European flight attendants. Similarly, Chen and Kao (2012) found that colleague support had a positive impact on flight attendant performance. In a more recent study, by Chen and Kao (2014), revealed that social support (namely, CWS) had a direct influence on flight attendants service performance and also had an indirect impact on the relationship between proactive personality and service performance.

2.6.3 Organizational Support

OS is defined as the degree of extent to which employees believe that their organization give values to their contribution and have cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 2004). In other words, OS is the social exchange relationship between employer and employee. Scholars identified OS as important construct since it has the positive impact on the quality relationship of management-employee (Wayne et al., 1997), employee engagement (Kinnunen, Feldt, & Makikangas, 2008; Saks, 2006), OC, organizational citizenship behavior and retention (Eisenberger et al., 2002) and has the negative impact on turnover intentions and deviant behavior (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). More specifically, organizations that give more support and care for their employees, they feel reciprocate and want to show more obligation towards their organization under the norms of SET (Rhoades et al., 2001, Cialdini, 2001; Gouldner, 1960). Researchers argued that when employees perceived that their organization treated them fairly, they will show strong engagement towards their organization (Saks, 2006) and show negative attitudes towards the deviant behavior (Loi et al., 2006). In the study of Sulea et al. (2012), found that employees with higher level of OS showed more organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, several studies (Rai, Ghosh, Chauhan & Mehta, 2017; Jin, McDonald & Park, 2016; Hur, Han, Yoo & Moon, 2015) have also evidenced that OS has the buffering effect on the relationship between antecedent variables and outcomes variable.

90

Prior studies showed the relationship between WRS and employee engagement in different dimension. For example, Vera et al. (2015) identified social support (SS and CWS) as an important predictor of work engagement and SS could moderate the relationship between job autonomy and work engagement but CWS could not. Another study of Kalemci Tuzun and Kalemci (2012) showed that employees with high SS but low OS will show a low level of positive attitudes towards the organization. Furthermore, the multilevel modeling analyses revealed that supervisory support had a positive influence on employee engagement under the context of high perceived autonomy by using the data from 482 service employees (Menguc et al., 2013). In their study, De Clercq et al. (2014) collected data from 263 employees of four IT companies to examine the moderating effect of leader-follower social interaction on the relationship between antecedents and consequences. Results of this study indicated that servant leadership could improve work engagement when leader-follower social interaction was high. Moreover, they noted that in a three-way interaction, with high level of social interaction between leader and their follower, goal congruence had the higher moderating effect on the relationship between job autonomy and work engagement. However, Brunetto et al. (2013) suggested that POS has a positive impact on employee engagement. On the other hand, Sarti (2014) found both the support from supervisor and co-worker were statistically significant predictors of work engagement. Saks (2006) also found POS to be a strong predictor of both job engagement and organizational engagement. Sawang (2012) cited that only SS, not peer support, could moderate the relationship between job demands and engagement with a sample of 307 managers working in technical IT firms. A recent study by Breevaart et al. (2014) noted that transformational leadership and contingent reward were the crucial predictors of social support and social support was positively related to work engagement.

91

In addition, social support acted as a mediator between transformational leadership and work engagement. The longitudinal study reported a reverse relationship between work engagement and social support over time, such as, work engagement predicted both supervisor and CWS (Biggs et al., 2014). Another study of Othman and Nasurdin (2013) postulated that only SS could predict work engagement, whereas, colleague support had no effect on engagement. Taipale et al. (2011) conducted a research based on a survey data from Bulgaria, Finland, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and the UK. Results supported that social support could enhance work engagement in each country but in Bulgaria and Finland, the effect is relatively low. However, Shantz et al. (2014) found that POS moderated the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intentions and deviant behaviors with a sample of 175 employees, working in UK. Authors argued that employees show low level of turnover intentions and deviant behavior because POS has compensated for relatively low level of employee engagement.
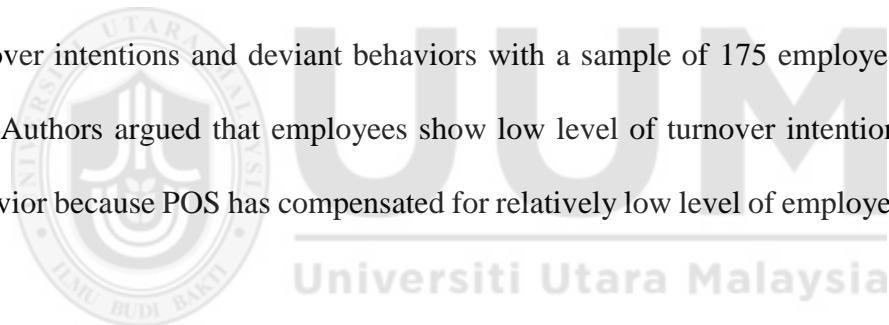
2.6.4 The Moderating effect of Work Related Support (WRS)

WRS is the insightful helping relationships available within an organization (Leavy, 1983), which may reduce the stressful work environment and employee deviant behavior (Halbesleben, 2006; Hobfoll et al., 2003). Indeed, employees seek for different WRS such as SS, CWS and OS if they feel stressed in their workplace to cope with those job stresses (Murrell et al., 1992). Prior research (e.g., Rai, Ghosh, Chauhan & Mehta, 2017; Chiu, Yeh & Huang, 2015; Beehr et al., 2010; Schat & Kelloway, 2003; Kirmeyer & Dougherty,

1988) found that different WRSs have buffering effect on the relationship between stressors like tension, depression, and job dissatisfaction and employee outcome like employee engagement. In addition, Beeble et al. (2009) noted that WRS had the strong moderating effect on the relationship between psychological abuse, frustration and quality of life, while Viswesvaran et al. (1999) found the weak interaction effect. Another study by Vera et al., (2015) found the significant moderating role of SS on the relationship between job autonomy and work engagement, while the role CWS was insignificant. Likely, Sawang (2012) showed the weak moderating role of WRS on the linkage of job demands and employee engagement. However, some studies (e.g., Hur et al., 2015; Singh & Nayak, 2015; Bakker et al., 2005; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker et al., 2003) identified significant buffering effect of WRS on the relationship between job demand and psychological outcomes i.e. employee engagement. These inconclusive results of moderating role of WRS on the relationship between employee engagement and its antecedents warrant the need of further conceptualization.

This study, therefore, hypothesizes the complementary relationship between WRS and OC, i.e., when employees perceive higher level of WRS, OC leads the employee engagement at higher level. Employees with high level of WRS may exert low level of deviant behavior towards the organization (Chiu, Yeh & Huang, 2015; Shantz et al., 2014; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2006). In another word, Bowling and Eschleman, (2010) stated that high level of WRS could have the ability to enhance the employees' positive behavior. Moreover, Bakker et al. (2007) found the positive relationship between WRS and employee engagement. Therefore, with higher level OC under the condition of higher

93

WRS, employees will be able to engage more at work. This suggests that the present of WRS will strengthen the relationship between OC and employee engagement. Thus, this study postulates the following hypotheses as:

Hypothesis 5a : **Supervisor support moderates the relationship between OC and Employee Engagement.**

Hypothesis 5b : **Co-worker support moderates the relationship between OC and Employee Engagement.**

Hypothesis 5c : **Organizational support moderates the relationship between OC and Employee Engagement.**

2.7   Summary of Hypothesis Development

The summary of the hypothesis developed for the current study is as follows:

Hypothesis 1	:	HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) are significantly associated with employee engagement.
Hypothesis 1a	:	Career Advancement is positively related to Employee Engagement.

Hypothesis 1b	:	Employee Participation is positively related to Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 1c	:	Job security is positively associated with Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 1d	:	Performance Feedback is positively related to Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 1e	:	Rewards & Recognition is positively related to Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 1f	:	Training & Development is positively associated with Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 2	:	HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) are significantly associated with Organizational Commitment.
Hypothesis 2a	:	Career Advancement is positively related to Organizational Commitment
Hypothesis 2b	:	Employee Participation is positively related to organizational commitment
Hypothesis 2c	:	Job Security is positively associated with Organizational Commitment
Hypothesis 2d	:	Performance Feedback is positively related to Organizational Commitment
Hypothesis 2e	:	Rewards & Recognition is positively related to Organizational Commitment.

Hypothesis 2f	:	Training & Development is positively associated with Organizational Commitment.
Hypothesis 3	:	Organizational Commitment is positively associated with Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 4a	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Career Advancement and Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 4b	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Employee Participation and Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 4c	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Job Security and Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 4d	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Performance Feedback and Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 4e	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Reward & Recognition and Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 4f	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Training & Development and Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 5a	:	Supervisor Support moderates the relationship between Organizational Commitment and Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 5b	:	Co-worker support moderates the relationship between Organizational Commitment and Employee Engagement.
Hypothesis 5c	:	Organizational support moderates the relationship between Organizational Commitment and Employee Engagement.

2.8 Research Framework

Based on prior literature, this study has selected the independent, mediating, moderating and the dependent variables for the present study that is graphically presented in the figure 2.1 of research framework. This study framework has been grounded by the Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) to explain the theoretical philosophy of this study. The basic norms of this theory have recently been widely used in organizational settings to explain that how organizational supports for the employees help to create obligation towards the organization. This theory is specially based on the reciprocate (Gouldner, 1960) relationship of employee and employer by which employees will feel obligated for getting supports and reciprocate positive behavior in return to the organization.
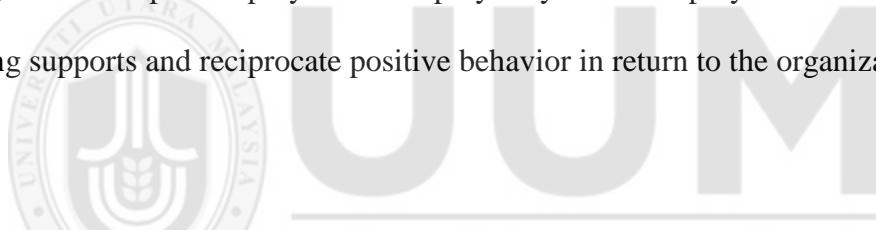
The study framework suggests that the perceptions of banks employees towards the HRM practices of that particular bank have the direct impact on OC. This hypothetical statement is also supported by the previous studies of Allen et al. (2003) suggested that higher level of perceptions of HRM practices will show the higher level of OC and OC will positively influence employees' positive behavior such as engagement (Shuck et al., 2011).

Moreover, this study also proposed that OC acts as the mediator between HRM practices and employee beahvior like engagement. The mediating variable helps to understand the relationship between predictor and outcomes that why such an effect might take place (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Researcher (Matheieu & Zajac, 1990) theoretically argues that

employees' attitudes may mediate the impact of HRM practices on employee behavioral outcomes. However, it is also proposed the buffer effect of WRS (i.e. SS, CWS and OS) on the relationship between OC and employee engagement. Literature showed that higher level of WRS from supervisor, co-worker and organization can strengthen the relationship between OC and employees' behavioral outcome i.e. engagement (Beehr et al., 2010).
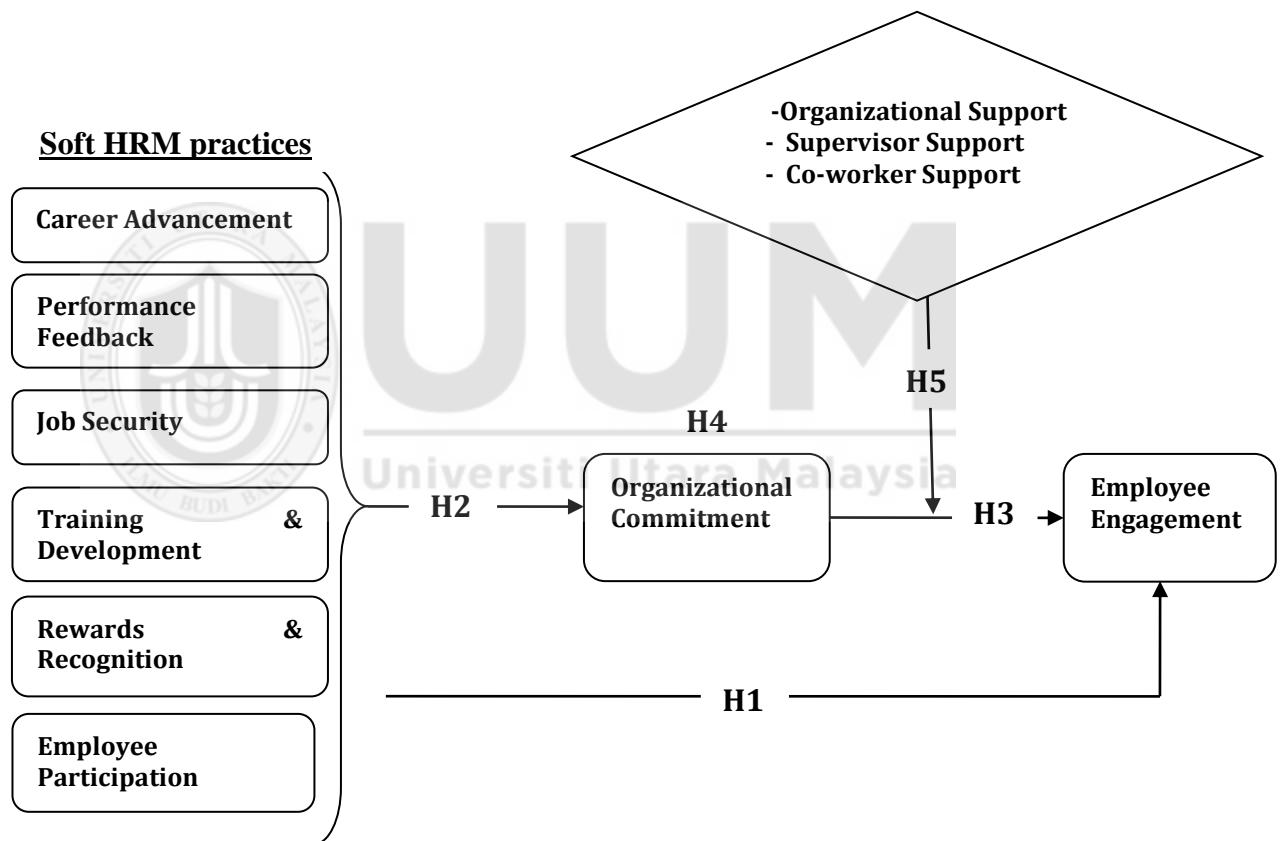
Figure 2.1
Research Framework of this study

2.9   Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed about the concept of study variable includes employee engagement, HRM practices, OC, SS, CWS and OS, and subsequently develop the research hypothesis for the purpose of this study. This chapter, more specifically, explores relevant literature surrounded study variables to provide better backdrop for hypothesize the relationships among these variables and to justify the research framework.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

In the previous chapter, relevant literatures on HRM practices, employee engagement, OC and WRS have been discussed along with developing hypothesis and presenting research framework. Indeed, a research project should incorporate that what is to be done throughout the entire process of the research and how the outcomes will be used (Yin, 2003). This chapter, therefore, discusses the detail methodology of the study. Following the discussion of philosophical position of the study, this chapter presents the research design, population and sample, measurement of variables, data collection, questionnaire design, pilot study, data analysis technique. Finally, this chapter is ended with chapter summary.

3.2   Philosophical position of the study

Scholars reported that successful empirical study of social science mostly starts from a properly articulated philosophical base (Blaikie, 2007; Trigg, 1985). In the philosophy of science, there are two most important concepts have been found, one is ontology and another one is epistemology. The concept of ontology included questions like, "what is reality and what is it form and nature?" (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988) on the other hand,

epistemology tries to discover about the nature of the relationship between the knower and the issue that can be known (Carson et al., 2001). In fact, epistemology is the theory of knowledge i.e. what is knowledge and how one can justify the knowledge. Moreover, one should fulfill the criteria in order to be called knowledge rather than beliefs that are thought to be unscientific (Blaikie, 2007). Therefore, in the field of social science research, the questions related to ontology and epistemology do not give simple, straightforward answers rather it includes several school of thoughts to defend their philosophical paradigm.

In the academic literature, there are two dominants but opposing in nature philosophical paradigms can be identified such as positivism and interpretivism that are associated with their own ontological and epistemological ideologies. In the positivist ontological view, the world is thought as an external (Carson et al., 1988) and it is thought that there is a single objective reality in any research phenomenon or situation irrespective to the researcher's perspective or belief (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). As a result, they have adapted a controlled and structural approach to conduct a research by finding a practical research topic, which incorporate a constructive research hypothesis and an appropriate research methodology (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2010; Carson et al., 2001). According to Blaikie (2007, p. 95), "for the positivist, science is an attempt to gain predictive and explanatory knowledge of the external world" (Keat & Urry, 1975, p. 4). There is another important aspect for positivist researchers; they make distance from the participants of the research to keep a neutral judgment about the reason and feeling (Carson et al., 2001). Author also argued that positivist researchers always make a distinguish between fact and

101

value judgment as they continuously seek for the objectivity and consistently make a rational and logical approach to research (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988; Carson et al., 2001).

In contrast, interpretivism has been found just an opposite concept of positivism which believe that reality is multiple and relative (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). Further, authors reported that these multiple realities are also depends on the other forms of methods to understand the meanings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), in fact, which make it even more difficult to understand in terms of fixed realities (Neuman, 2000). In the ontological point of view, "social reality is the product of processes by which social actors together negotiate the meanings for action and situations; it is a complex of socially constructed meanings" (Blaikie, 2007, p. 96). On the other hand, epistemologically researchers defined knowledge as the engagement with everyday perception and meanings. Academics noted that "the social researcher enters the everyday social world in order to grasps the socially constructed meanings and then reconstructed these meanings in social scientific language" (Blaikie, 2007, p. 96). In summary, the aim of an interpretivist research is to understand the meanings with an emergent and collaborative approach rather than to generalize and predict causes and effects (Neuman, 2000).

In brief, quantitative approach related with the social science research is considered into positivist ideology paradigm while interpretivist philosophical paradigm is found to be qualitative approach. Thus, the present study is logically placed under the positivist tradition.

102

3.3   Research Design

A research design is a master plan by which a researcher can implement specific methods and procedures to collect and analyze the needed data on the selected population to obtain the solution related to the problem statement (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2010; Blumberg et al., 2008). In other words, it is a framework or blueprint that help researcher to conduct the research project. According to Sekaran (2003), a research design is a detailed work that suggests how to carry out the research and it includes several methodological steps such as purpose of study, types of investigation, extent of researcher interference, study setting, time horizon, unit of analysis and so on.

In addition, Sekaran (2003) reported that a study could have a number of purposes, for example, an exploratory research conducted to explore a phenomenon; an aim of a descriptive study to describe a situation, an explanatory research has a purpose to test some hypotheses. An exploratory study is concern to broadly figure out the nature of the problem as the knowledge is limited within the existing area whereas the objective of a descriptive research is to establish and narrate the characteristics under which the study is going on, for instance, calculating the frequencies or percentages. Lastly, an explanatory research gives focus to reveal the nature of the relationship within the social context. In this regard, the present study belongs to an explanatory research since it attempts to investigate the hypotheses to confirm the relationship between and among the interested variables (Cassell & Symon, 1994, p. 2). More specifically, this study intends to explore

the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement through OC and how WRS make the interaction effect on the relationship between OC and employee engagement. Moreover, to test these hypotheses, the present study fits in to the deductive approach by which the study hypotheses are being tested to validate and confirm the applicability under some certain theories.

Based on the type of investigation, literature suggested that the study could be causal and correlational in nature to fulfill the research objectives. The study is called causal when it finds the cause of the relationship i.e. why a social thing happens, on the other hand, when a study intends to explore the association among the variables is called correlational. With this view, the present study is correlational rather causal. As, this study does not attempt to reveal the cause and effect relationship rather it has the focus to examine the association among the variables such as HRM practices, OC, WRS and employee engagement. Therefore, the present study is correlational in nature.

However, there is a close link between type of investigation and the extent to which a researcher has interference with the normal flow of events. Since, the nature of the present study is correlational; the interference of a researcher with the natural flow of events is limited to distribute the questionnaire except an intentional motive of researcher to manipulate or modify the work process. In a research process, researcher uses questionnaires as a technique to gather and collect data that initiate a controlled measure. Another issue that should be addressed in the research process is the research setting which

may be contrived or otherwise. The present study is non-contrived in nature because the study is conducted within a normal work context in where work proceeds naturally. A research setting is called contrived when a researcher normally conducted a research in a lab-like environment where a researcher has the discretionary power to manipulate the environment to establish a cause and effect relationship. The present study focuses on the listed private commercial banks in Bangladesh to conduct a survey and only respondents are asked to complete the questionnaire that does not create disturbance at any means in the way of their work. Indeed, they (respondents) are requested to fill the questions at their convenient time.

Furthermore, a cross-sectional survey design is being adopted to conduct this study and the survey instrument is self-administered questionnaire that is the most popular method to collect data in a survey research (Bourque & Fielder, 2003). Thus, the data is collected once during the entire period of the research work by ignoring any further changes across time and places. After preparing the questionnaire, this study collects data by considering all the modifications that needs to be incorporated in the final study. As a result, it considers as a cross-sectional rather a longitudinal in which data is collected more than once throughout the study period (Sekaran & Bougie, 2003).

Scholars (e.g., Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2010) noted that a researcher must give a clarification about their unit of analysis to achieve a solution to their problem statement. The present study complies an individual level of analysis to analyze the data.

105

Neuman (1997) define unit of analysis as the type of unit by which a researcher can measure and explain the study variables (Sekaran, 2003). In other words, it refers to what are the objects that will be analyzed in the study. Thus, the individual data is collected from every respondent who participate in the survey considered the unit of analysis. Then the sum of all individual data considers as an aggregate so that the respondent's identity cannot be traced directly. By taking this measure, researcher can protect the participant identity that are taken to meet the ethical requirements and standards during the survey process which also help to make the participants ease while fulfilling the questionnaire that their identity remains confidential and encourage them to respond honestly into the survey method (Crow & Wiles, 2008; Whelan, 2007).
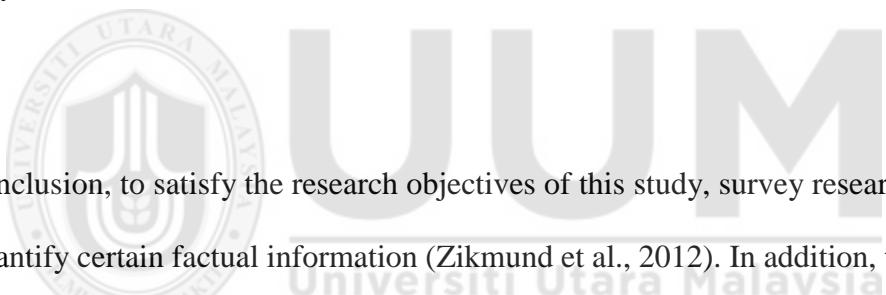
In conclusion, to satisfy the research objectives of this study, survey research is designed to quantify certain factual information (Zikmund et al., 2012). In addition, the researcher, in designing the survey, is able to reach a higher number of companies that are geographically scattered (Sekaran, 2003; Babbie & Benaquisto, 2002) with relatively low costs (Zikmund et al., 2010). In fact, no other method of observation but only survey method could have the general capability to describe the characteristics of a large population. However, in this study a survey method is implemented to explore the relationship between HRM practices, OC, WRS and employee engagement by using questionnaires. For this study, survey research design is suitable as the purpose of this study is to demonstrate the phenomenon of employee engagement by considering the general opinion and perceptions of the respondents who are working in various listed private commercial banks in Bangladesh.

106

3.4 Population and Sample

In order to determine the respondents for this study, there is the need to identify the population and the sample to be selected.

3.4.1 Population

The population is defined as those people, events, or records that contain the desired information and have the ability to answer the measurement question (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). As the present study intends to explore the banking employees' perception about HRM practices within their banks, it includes only full-time employees working at different branches of private commercial banks mainly located in Dhaka city, Bangladesh. The present study considers only those employees who are working more than two years i.e. who have completed their probationary period in that particular organization. In the context of Bangladesh, according to Banking Company Act (1991), employees should be in two years' probation period to enjoy the full-time employee status. According to Price (2001), employees who are considered as full-time employees are expected to build long term relationships with the organization. Furthermore, scholars (De Cuyper et al., 2009) also pointed out that organizations feel more concern to the full-time employees since full-time employees are more dedicated towards the organization compare to part-time or contractual employees. In fact, studies found that transition of workers form temporary to permanent will increase their level of engagement (De Cuyper

107

et al., 2009). This research also excludes top management (i.e. branch managers) because top managers are considered as the agent of that organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002) who normally develop the policies of human resources to be translated into practices, thus, it is deemed not be appropriate to collect their opinions about the practices being implemented, since they could be biased in their views.

According to Dhaka Stock Exchange (DSE) report (2015), there are 30 private commercial banks in countrywide. However, the current study only considers the branches of those banks that are situated in Dhaka Metropolitan Area (DMA) as all the bank's head offices and branches are in Dhaka city. Thus, the highest number of branches are covered in this study. However, in considering the time and cost, it does not incorporate all the branches of 30 commercial banks that are located in various parts of the country. More specifically, it is near to impossible to cover all the elements of the population in survey study (Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund, 2003). According to Talukder et al. (2014) and Afroj (2012), all the banks in Bangladesh have their head offices in Dhaka and most of the HRM related strategic decisions have been made by the head offices of that particular organization. From each bank's website and annual report, it is identified that there are 27,161 full-time employees working in different banks within Dhaka city. Therefore, the population of the study is 27,161 full-time employees. All the branches of 30 commercial banks are located in different areas in DMA. Table 3.1 (see Appendix A) describes the number of employees and branches located in the Dhaka city.

108

3.4.2 Sample and Sample Size

It is very important to choose a right sample that is always crucial for the success of any research. Sampling is the process by which some elements are selected from the population to represent the whole population (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Sekaran (2003) defined sample as a subset of a population that comprise some selected members of that particular population. Some scholars noted that sampling is necessary for practical reasons i.e. in case of big and scatter population it is viable to make a sample so as to save money, time and effort that is also helpful to reduce errors especially when one has to deal with a large population (Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2012). The most important issue to be considered in sampling, that how big the sample size should be taken by a researcher, to generalize the findings of the population and thus interpreting the results with a degree of confidence. Sekaran (2003) also argued that researcher can produce more reliable results for the study by choosing an appropriate sample from the population. In addition, scholars also have the little consensus about the sample size but they have agreed at one point that generally a sample should be bigger since a smaller sample may have tends to produce unreliable correlation coefficient and results in statistical insignificant (Pallant, 2007; Zikmund et al., 2012).

According to Roscoe (1975), following the general rule of thumb, the sample size should be in between 30 and 500, could be accepted depending on the type of sampling design and research question investigated. Roscoe (1975) (referenced in Sekaran, 2003) further

argued that, in terms of multivariate studies, the sample size should be several times larger (preferably 10 times or more) than the variables of the study to reach statistical significance. Since, present study has used 11 study variables, the required sample size should be 110 or more.

Another popular method for determining the sample size is Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sampling table used by various studies that assumes the alpha value of .05 and an accuracy level of .05 (Bartlett et al., 2001; Cohen, 2003, Research Advisors, 2006). In the present study, the target population is 27161 and based on the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table, the sample size should be around 379 for the population of more than 20000 and less than 30000. However, sample size determination table, given by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), is also compared to a more recent method called G-Power.
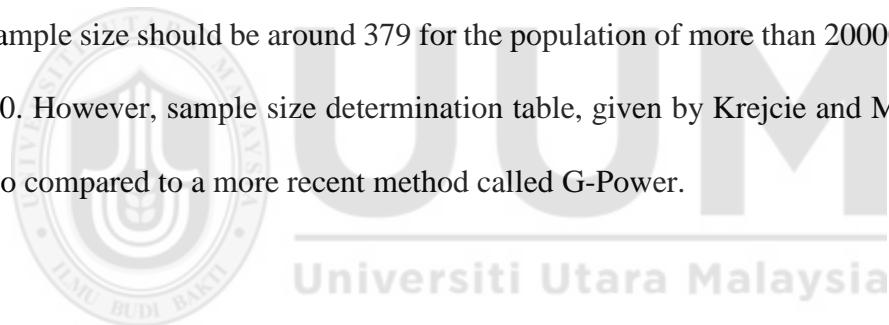
In their study, Prajapati et al. (2010) described that G-Power is a process, mainly used in social science studies, by which a researcher could be capable to compute five different types of power analysis. One of the most important power is priori power that is more relevant for determining sample size since it comprised specified power, alpha level and effect size which are required to determine a sample size. Cohen (1992) noted that it is important to identify the statistical power for determining the probability to reject a false null hypothesis (H_0) which is also known as Type II error. In addition, Cohen (1992) argued that statistical power usually should be set at 0.80 or 80% to ignore of engaging in Type II error. In other words, there is a 20% chance that a researcher may accept null

hypothesis (H_0) i.e. beta is 0.20 or 20% (Prajapati et al., 2010). Cohen (1992) also pointed out that a sample size should not be too smaller that will lead to a Type II error or should not be too large that will exceed scholar's resources (p. 156). In this regard, a researcher should set their alpha value at .05 that represents the level of risk to reject a true null hypothesis (H_0). Bartlett et al. (2001) also suggested that in general, an alpha level of 0.05 is acceptable in most social science research (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1996).

Another element of G-Power should be considered to calculate sample size is the effect size. It is the degree to which a researcher believes that null hypothesis (H_0) is false (Cohen, 1992), that is set against an alternate hypothesis (H_1). According to Cohen (1992), effect size is the extend that H_0 is false and is indexed by the discrepancy between H_0 and H_1 (p. 156). Unlike, other statistical test index, he proposed a scale to develop the effect size index by setting the effect size values conventionally at small (0.10), medium (0.30) and large (.50) to test the significance of a sample. In the present study, the effect size value was set at 0.10, statistical power was 0.95 (1-β err prob), alpha was 0.05, predictors were set as 6 as there are six HRM practices and response variable was set as 1 as dependent variable is employee engagement. By incorporating all the values, the sample size has been calculated was 215 for the present study.

Apart from the G-Power calculation, there is another approach called Dillman's (2011) formula also applied for determining the sample size. The formula is shown below,

$$N_s = \frac{(N_p)(p)(1-p)}{(N_p - 1)\left(\frac{B}{C}\right)^2 + (p)(1-p)}$$

Where,

N_s= Expected sample size

N_p= Total size of the population that is 27161

P= the proportion of population that is expected to choose from two response criteria is   50% or 0.5

B= sampling error at ±5% or .05

C= Z statistical confidence interval level at .05 is 1.96

Thus, the calculation of sample size is as follows,
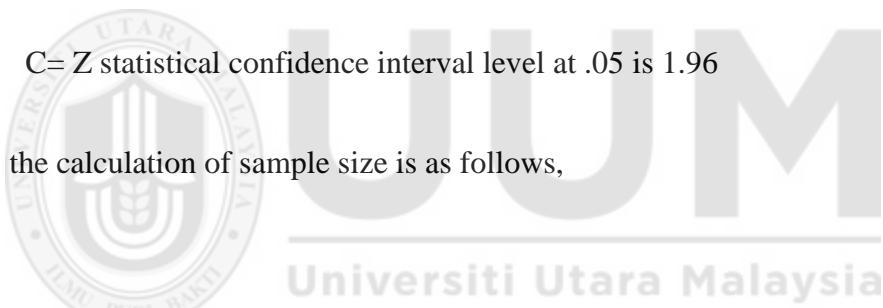
$$N_s = \frac{(N_p)(p)(1-p)}{(N_p - 1)\left(\frac{B}{C}\right)^2 + (p)(1-p)}$$

$$= \frac{(27161)(.5)(1-.5)}{(27161-1)\left(\frac{.05}{1.96}\right)^2 + (.5)(1-.5)}$$

$$N_s = \frac{6790.25}{17.93} = 378.68$$

By giving all the relevant values in the above equation, it has got a sample size of 378.68 that approximately 379.

In conclusion, based on the G-Power calculation and Dillhum's (2011) formula, this study has got the sample size of 215 and 379 respectively that are not more than the sample size given in Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table. Therefore, present study considers a sample size of 379.

3.4.3 Sampling Technique

In quantitative research, it is important to make a sample that is representative of a large population to enhance the generalizability of findings (Bryman, 2003) through an appropriate sampling design (Singleton & Bruce, 2005). In general, there are two types of sampling design, one is probability sampling and another one is non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is a process in which all the elements of a population have the equal chance of being selected randomly in the sample whereas, in the non-probability sampling, there will be no equal chances to select in the sample i.e. the selection of the cases will not be picked randomly (Singleton & Straits, 2005). More specifically, non-probability sampling may have the chance of biasness in the sample selection process and hence, it could be invalidated to generalize the study findings. On the other hand, in probability sampling, all the elements in the population have a known chance of being included in the sample. Moreover, scholars also suggested that non-probability sampling has the limitation to explain the application of mathematical probability theory to estimate sample accurately (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Thus, the data will be collected through non-probability sampling design will not be fitted to analyze parametric test such as regression

analysis (Sekaran, 2003). Therefore, the present study chooses probability sampling to avoid the limitations of non-probability sampling.

In case of probability, there are four types of sampling technique such as simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling and systematic sampling. Simple random sampling denotes that all the objects have the equal possibility to select from the entire population to make any combination of elements. In stratified random sampling, the entire population has been divided into different strata or division and an independent sample will be randomly selected from each stratum. For the cluster sampling, a researcher has divided the target population in different groups or areas known as clusters and randomly selects a cluster as the sample. Systematic sampling is a process by which an element of a sample could have selected from a sampling frame and each object have the equal opportunity of being selected i.e. researcher follows the simple random sampling process within a given sampling frame. However, non-probability sampling includes convenience, purposive and quota sampling technique. Convenient sampling technique is used when a researcher selects the elements that are conveniently available and cannot use the findings for the basis of generalizing. Purposive sampling comprises the care selection of subjects that will represent a specific dimension of that particular population. In quota sampling, the elements of a sample are divided into different strata and then select non-randomly to fill the allocated quotas.

For the purpose of the present study, it employs multistage cluster sampling to obtain a representative sample from the target population. Zikmund et al. (2012) suggested that the aim of multistage cluster sampling technique is to make a sample economically and to ensure that clusters will be selected randomly. Cohen and his colleagues (2011) stated that multi-stage cluster sampling is an extension of cluster sampling by adding two or more phases while selecting a sample. Similarly, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) argued that multi-stage cluster sampling is a development of cluster sampling. This technique includes modifying a cluster sample by adding at least one more stage of sampling that also involves some form of random sampling and sampling procedures at each stage may differ. It is not necessary that the sampling procedures at each stage be the same (Daniel, 2011).
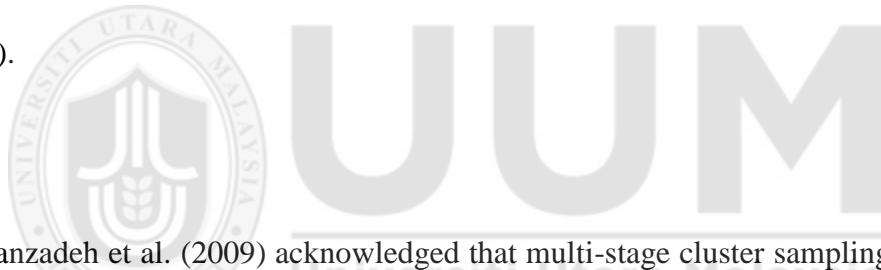
Hassanzadeh et al. (2009) acknowledged that multi-stage cluster sampling is like cluster sampling, but incorporates selecting a sample within a chosen cluster, rather than including all units in the cluster. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) stated two reasons for using multistage cluster sampling, if there is a proportionately larger population or its members are not easy to identify. One of the most important characteristics of cluster sampling is to have the homogeneity of the cases among the clusters that will represent all the clusters within the population. In fact, the subjects of each cluster have the similar characteristics such as background, attitudes, behavior (Gay & Diehl, 1992). In this study, clusters considered the banks located in DMA as the employees working in the banks are similar to each other in terms of background, working condition, job performed etc. Thus,

115

to achieve the research objective, multistage cluster sampling technique is an appropriate approach to use.

In this study, Dhaka city is chosen in the early stage based on the criterion of geography. In the current study, majority of the banks are located in capital city, Dhaka, as it is the economic hub in Bangladesh. The second stage is chosen based on the criterion of location by dividing the entire Dhaka Metropolitan Area (DMA) in fourteen major commercial zones that are called clusters. After determining the number of clusters for this study, simple random sampling is being performed to get one cluster among 14 clusters and Mirpur area of DMA is being randomly selected. The selected area consists 75 branches of 30 private commercial banks that incorporates a total of 2391 banks employees (see in Table 3.2). As the sampled elements are geographically dispersed in Mirpur area, the third stage is chosen based on the criterion of highest number of banks' branches located in different three locations in Mirpur namely, Pallabi, Mirpur Sector-1 and Begum Rokeya Sarani.

Table 3.2
Major commercial areas in Dhaka City and No. of branches of PCBs

No.	Major commercial areas in Dhaka City	No. of Branches of PCBs	No. of elements in per cluster
1	Banani	30	956
2	Baridhara	48	1530
3	Dhanmondi	54	1721
4	Gulshan	46	1466

5	Old Town	130	4144
6	Jatrabari	36	1148
7	KawranBazar	42	1339
8	Malibagh	77	2455
9	Mohammadpur	44	1403
10	Motijheel	86	2742
11	**Mirpur**	**75**	**2391**
12	Ramna	80	2550
13	Tejgoan	35	1116
14	Uttara	69	2200

Source: Annual reports of 30 private commercial banks in year 2015

Sampling enables the researcher to study a proportion of all the possible members of a population in order to generalize the findings of a research (Ary et al., 2009). Thus, to obtain the desired sample size of the target population and to determine the proportion of each area of Mirpur in sample size, sampling ratio is applied. In this study, since the number of elements in this cluster is 2391 banking employees and the sample size based on Dillhum's (2011) formula is 379, so the sampling ratio is 379/2391=.158 or 15%. Then, this study draws the proportion of each area based on sample size. The expected proportion of samples from each area is calculated by the following formula.

$nz = (Nz / N) \times n$

Where nz is the sample size for each area, Nz is the population size for each area, N is total population size for this cluster, and n is total sample size. Table 3.3 shows the

distribution of each area's proportion within the target population. Therefore, 379

questionnaires are prepared and administered to the respondents based on the proportion

for respective areas.

Table 3.3
Proportionate Sample Size Computation

Selected States (z)	No. of Branches of PCBs	Number of Elements (Nz)	Total Population (N)	Number of Elements Divide by Total Population (Nz/N)	(Nz / N) x n	Proportionate sample (nz)
Pallabi	24	765	2391	0.320	121.28	121
Begum Rokeya Soroni	31	988	2391	0.413	156.65	157
Mirpur Secotr 1	20	638	2391	0.267	101.07	101
Total	75	2391				n = 379

3.5   Operational Definitions and Measurement of variables

Operational definitions referred to the concepts that are solely depended in terms of the

operations which help researcher to measure the constructs used in the study. All of the

variables used in the research framework that are conceptualized as followings.

118

3.5.1 Employee Engagement Measures

The dependent variable of this study is employee engagement defined as the positive, fulfilling, and job-related position of mind that is manifested by three dimensions such as vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). This study adopted three dimensional 17 items (see in Table 3.4) scale from Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) to measure employee engagement includes vigor (6 items), dedication (5 items) and absorption (6 items). Prior studies (De Braine & Roodt, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) confirmed the adequate reliability (Cronbach's alpha values varying from .70 to .91) of this 17 items engagement instrument. The respondents are requested to rate their level of agreement or disagreement of the given engagement statements through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.
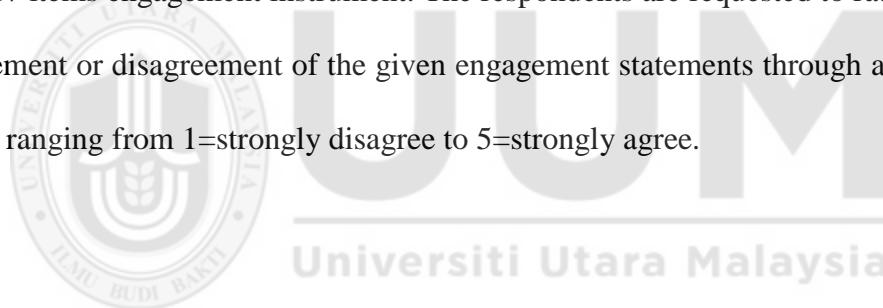
Table 3.4

Employee engagement measures

Dependent Variable	Operating Definition	Dimensions	Codes	Items Description	sources
Employee Engagement	A positive, fulfilling, and work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption	Vigor	EE1	At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy.	Schaufeli & Baker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002
			EE2	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	
			EE3	Time flies when I'm working.	
			EE4	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	
			EE5	I am enthusiastic about my job.	
			EE6	When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	
		Dedication	EE7	My job inspires me.	
			EE8	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	
			EE9	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	

119

	EE10	I am proud of the work that I do.
	EE11	I am immersed in my work.
	EE12	I can continue working for very long periods at a time.
	EE13	To me, my job is challenging.
	EE14	I get carried away when I'm working.
Absorption	EE15	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.
	EE16	It is difficult to detach myself from my job.
	EE17	At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.

3.5.2 HRM practices Measures

As mentioned earlier, HRM practices are the independent variables in this study, and it includes performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development, job security, career advancement and employee participation. There is a minor change has been made in the adapted scale where the word organization has been replaced with a word of bank. The details of all the items descriptions of each variable along with the adopted sources is given below in Table 3.5.

The first component of HRM practices is performance feedback that is operationalized as the extent to which employees have the opportunity to get useful information from their supervisors that may help them for further development at their job (Zhou & George, 2001). In this study, performance feedback is measured with a total of 3 items scale that is adapted from Zhou and George (2001) and previous research confirmed the reliability

for this variable i.e. Cronbach's alpha value ranging from .80 to .86 (Menguc, et al., 2013; Joo & Park, 2010; Zhou, 2003). The respondents are requested to rate their level of agreement or disagreement of the given performance feedback statements through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

Rewards & recognition operationalized as the extent to which employees get different types of outcomes for doing well in their job (Saks, 2006). This study incorporates 7 items to measure rewards and recognition adapted from the study of Saks (2006) and several studies (Bhatnagar, 2014; Saks, 2006) confirmed the reliability value ranging from .76 to .80. The respondents are requested to rate their level of agreement or disagreement of the given rewards and recognition statements through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.
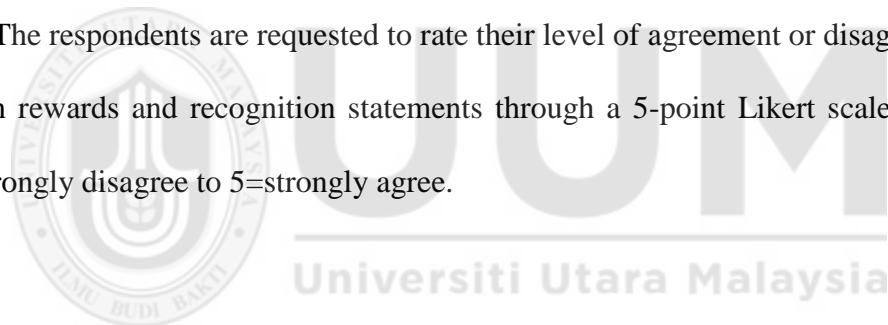
Training & development operationalized as the extent to which organizations provide training for their employees' skill development within the organizations (Delery & Doty, 1996). A total of 4 items instrument is considered to measure this variable adapted from Delery & Doty (1996). Additionally, Akhtar et al. (2008) have used this scale and confirm the internal consistency and reliability value at .83. Respondents give their opinion on 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

121

According to Delery and Doty (1996), job security is the extent to which an employee wants to continue his/her job for an extended period of time. Similarly, Davy et al. (1997) defined job security as the perceptions of stability and continuation of one's job as well as its features for continuing the job. In fact, job security is the extent to which organizations give their employees a stable employment (Herzberg, 1968). Measurement instrument for this construct is adapted from Delery and Doty (1996). Prior studies (Gong & Chang, 2008) found the internal consistency value for job security is .77. The items are rated through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

Career advancement on the other hand refers as the degree to which an employee has the professional opportunity or chances to move upward within the organization (Delery & Doty, 1996). Measurement instrument is adapted from Delery and Doty (1996). Prior studies (Gong & Chang, 2008) found the internal consistency value for career advancement is .82. The items are rated through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

Lastly, employee participation operationalized as the extent to which employees has the right to give input for doing their work (Delery & Doty, 1996). The 4 items measurement scale is adapted from Delery and Doty (1996) to measure employee participation. The study of Akhtar et al. (2008) have used the same scale and recorded an internal consistency value of .81. A sample item is "Employees in this bank are allowed to make many decisions". The respondents are requested to rate their level of agreement or disagreement

122

of the given employee participation statements through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from

1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

Table 3.5
HRM practices measures

Independent Variables: HRM Practices	Operational Definition	Codes	Items Description	Sources
Career Advancement	The extent to which employees perceive that their organizations give them a clear career path	CA1	I have clear career paths in this bank.	Delery & Doty, 1996
		CA2	I have a very strong future within this bank.	
		CA3	My career aspirations within this bank are known by immediate supervisors.	
		CA4	Employees in this job who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.	
Employee Participation	The degree to which organizations allow their employees to give the input for their work.	EP1	Employees in this bank are allowed to make many decisions.	Delery & Doty, 1996
		EP2	Employees in this bank are often asked by their supervisor to participate in decisions.	
		EP3	Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done.	
		EP4	Superiors keep open communications with employees in this bank.	
Job security	The extent to which an employee can continue the job in that organization for an extended time period.	JS1	I can stay in the bank for as long as I wish.	Delery & Doty(1996)
		JS2	It is difficult to dismiss employees from this bank.	
		JS3	Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this bank.	
		JS4	If the bank were facing economic problems, employees in this job would be the last to get cut.	
Performance Feedback	The degree to which employees get useful information from their supervisors that helps them (employees) to learn, develop and improve at job.	PF1	My manager gives me sufficient information about work Goals.	Zhou, 2003
		PF3	My manager gives me feedback on my performance.	
		PF2	My manager gives me feedback on how I can improve my performance.	

Rewards & Recognition	The extent to which employees receive the various forms of outcomes for their better job performance.	RR1	Employees in this bank receive a pay raise for improving the level of performance.	Saks, 2006
		RR2	If I improve the level of performance, I get more freedom to do my work in this bank.	
		RR3	If I improve the level of service to the bank, I get more challenging work assignments.	
		RR4	People I work with in this bank show a respect for better performance.	
		RR5	If I improve the level of job performance, I receive a praise from my manager	
		RR6	Employees in this bank receive a public recognition (e.g. employee of the month/year) for their excellent job performance	
		RR7	Employees in this bank receive a token of appreciation (e.g. lunch) for improving the level of service to the bank.	
Training & Development	The extent to which organizations provide training, both formal and informal, to their employees in a job.	TD1	Extensive training and development programs are offered by the bank to improve my job skills.	Delery & Doty (1996)
		TD2	Employees in this bank normally go through training programs every few years.	
		TD3	There are formal training programs to teach new hires the skills they need to perform their jobs.	
		TD4	Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this bank.	

3.5.3 Organizational Commitment Measures

OC is the mediating variable for this study. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), OC is

the extent to which employees feel a strong desire, need or an obligation to stay or identify

themselves towards the organization. A total of 24 items instrument is chosen to measure

124

OC comprising three dimensions such as affective commitment (8 items), continuance commitment (8 items) and normative commitment (8 items) adapted from Allen and Meyer (1990). Minor changes have been made by replacing the word organization with bank. A sample question of affective commitment includes "I would be happy to spend rest of my career with this bank", for continuance commitment, "It would be too costly for me to leave my bank now" and for normative commitment "Jumping from bank to bank seems unethical for me". Study (Allen & Meyer, 1990) results confirmed the internal consistency values are .86, .82 and .73 for affective, continuance and normative commitment respectively. The respondents are requested to give their opinion through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. All the items details are given below in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6
Organizational commitment (OC) measures

Mediating Variable	Operating Definition	Dimensions	Codes	Items Description	sources
Organizational Commitment	Employees' strong desire, need or an obligation to stay and identify themselves in a particular organization.	**Affective commitment**	OC1	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this bank.	Allen & Meyer (1990)
			OC2	I enjoy discussing about my bank with people outside it.	
			OC3	I really feel as if this bank's problems are my own.	
			OC4	I think that I could not easily become attached to another bank as I am to this one.	
			OC5	I feel like 'part of the family' at my bank.	
			OC6	I feel 'emotionally attached' to this bank.	
			OC7	This bank has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	
			OC8	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my bank.	

125
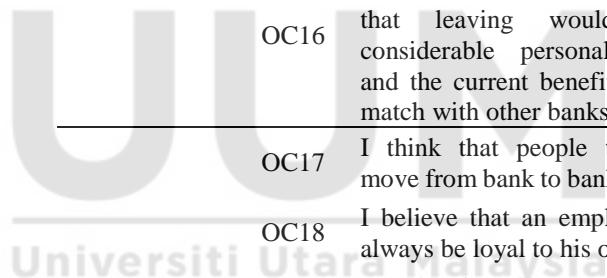
	OC9	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
	OC10	It would be very hard for me to leave my bank right now, even if I wanted to.
	OC11	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decide I wanted to leave my bank now.
	OC12	It would be too costly for me to leave my bank now.
Continuance commitment	OC13	Right own, staying with my bank is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
	OC14	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this bank.
	OC15	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this bank would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
	OC16	One of the major reasons I continue to work in this bank is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice and the current benefits may not match with other banks.
	OC17	I think that people these days move from bank to bank too often.
	OC18	I believe that an employee must always be loyal to his or her bank.
	OC19	Jumping from bank to bank seems unethical for me.
	OC20	One of the major reasons I continue in this bank is that loyalty is important, and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.
Normative commitment	OC21	If I got another better offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my bank.
	OC22	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one bank.
	OC23	Things were better in days when people stayed with one bank for most of their careers.
	OC24	I think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible.

126

3.5.4 Work Related Supports Measures

In this study, three types of Work Related Supports (WRS) such as supervisor support (SS), co-worker support CWS) and organizational support (OS) are used as moderating variables. According to Eisenberger et al. (2002), SS is the extent of perceptions of employees that their supervisors are concerned for their employees' well-being. This study measures SS with 4 items scale (e.g. my immediate supervisor in this bank demonstrates trust and confidence on me) that is confirmed a Cronbach's alpha value of .89 (Saks, 2006). OS on the other hand is operationalized as the extent of general beliefs of the employees that their organizations recognize their contributions and aware of their well-being (Rhoades et al., 2001). The instrument measured by 8 items short form of the survey of OS (SPOS) used by Saks (2006) adapted from Rhoades et al. (2001) and found an adequate Cronbach's alpha value of .89 (Saks, 2006). CWS is operationalized as the extent to which employees perceive that collogues help them in solving problem and get them available when required (Karasek, 1985). A total of 4 items scale (e.g. the people I work with in this bank are helpful in getting the job done) used by Vera et al. (2015) that is adapted from Karasek (1985). The Cronbach's Alpha is ranging from .79 and .81 (Vera et al., 2015; Karasek, 1985). For all the adapted instruments, minor changes have been made by replacing the word organization with bank. All the items are rated by using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. Table 3.7 is given below incorporates all the items of each construct.

Table 3.7
Work Related Support (WRS) measures

Moderating Variables: WRS	Operational Definition	Codes	Items Description	Sources
Supervisor Support	The extent to which employees perceived that their supervisors have the concern for their well-being and recognition for their contributions.	SS1	My immediate supervisor in this bank demonstrates trust and confidence on me.	Eisenberger et al. (2002)
		SS2	My immediate supervisor in this bank treats me with dignity and respect.	
		SS3	My immediate supervisor in this bank gives me authority to do the job.	
		SS4	My immediate supervisor in this bank is concerned about the well-being of those employees under him	
Co-Worker Support	The degree to which employees feel that their colleagues are supportive in problem solving and available when needed.	CS1	My colleagues in this bank provide helpful information or advice about my work.	Karasek (1985)
		CS2	My colleagues in this bank provide clear and helpful feedback about my work.	
		CS3	The people I work with in this bank are helpful in getting the job done.	
		CS4	People I work with are competent in doing their jobs.	
Organizational Support	A general belief of employees that their organization will values their contribution and cares about their well-being.	OS1	My bank really cares about my well-being.	Rhoades et al. (2001)
		OS2	My bank strongly considers my goals and values.	
		OS3	My bank shows a strong concern for me	
		OS4	My bank cares about my opinions.	
		OS5	My bank is willing to help me if I need a special favor.	
		OS6	Help is available from my bank when I have a problem.	
		OS7	My bank would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	
		OS8	If given the opportunity, my organization never try to take advantage of me	

128

3.6   Questionnaire Design

All the questionnaires are set in English, since professional level employees for instance banking employees can and very often they are used to do their job in English. Every respondent in this study receives six-page questionnaires along with a cover letter. The survey questionnaire is attached in Appendix B. Table 3.8 represents the summary of all independent (exogenous) variables, dependent (endogenous) variable, mediating variable and moderating variables.

Table 3.8
List of Research Variables

Variable		Symbol	Dimensions	Number of Questions
Dependent Variable	Employee Engagement	**EE**	Vigor	6
			Dedication	5
			Absorption	6
Independent Variable	*HRM Practices*			
	Career Advancement	CA	-	4
	Employee Participation	EP	-	4
	Job Security	JS	-	4
	Performance Feedback	PF	-	3
	Rewards & Recognition	RR	-	7
	Training & Development	TD	-	4
Mediating Variable	Organizational Commitment	**OC**	Affective commitment	8
			Continuance commitment	8

				Normative commitment	8
Moderating Variable	*Work Related Supports (WRS)*				
	Supervisory Support	**SS**	-		4
	Co-Worker Support	**CWS**			4
	Organizational Support	**OS**	-		8
	Total				**83**

The present study includes six-page survey questionnaires accompanied with the measures of HRM practices, OC, WRS and employee engagement. It contains basically four sections such as first section includes a total of 17 items of three dimensions to measure employee engagement, second section incorporates HRM practices that are measured by career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development. All the HRM practices variables consist of 26 items. Third section contains a total of 16 items to measure WRS variables (i.e. SS, CWS and OS). Section four is asked about OC and it contains 24 items that represents three dimensions of OC. According to the rule of thumb of Anderson et al. (2006), the minimum number of items should be 3 to measure a particular variable in a particular study. In this regard, this study considers an appropriate number of items so that all the study variables could properly been represented.

Lastly, section five incorporates demographic variables of participants. Several numbers of demographic information are investigated for doing descriptive analysis of the

respondents. This section includes a total of 6 items such as gender, marital status, age, current experience, education qualification and total experience of the respondents. This relevant information is needed to make the respondent profiles to investigate whether the respondents are representative and able to make generalizations for the larger population of employees or organizations.

3.7   Pre Test

Though the survey research instruments that are used to measure the study variables are previously been validated, but it is important to test reliability and validity of the instrument especially for the different environment or context prior to starting the main study (Sekaran, 2003). In this view, the present study also conducted the pretest and pilot test to get the reliability and validity of the measurement scale that included in this study. Authors like Trochim and Donnelly (2006) noted that the level of stability and consistency of an instrument could be measured through the reliability test and that is also helpful to improve the instrument (Sekaran, 2003). With this view, the validity and reliability of this questionnaire are undertaken to ensure that whether the items used in this study are really credible to measure the constructs what they are supposed to measure (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2009).

In present study, the questionnaires are taken to three academicians who are specialized on HRM, organizational behavior and industrial psychology for content or face validity

131

and to get some potential recommendations and observations. Based on their suggestions, it develops and improves the questionnaire further. Again, this study distributes questionnaires to some prospective respondents among the banking employees who are in the population.

3.8   Pilot Test

To test the internal consistency, different scholars noted different figure of required participants for pilot test. Some studies (e.g., Plaza-Ubeda et al., 2010; Lopez-Gamero, et al., 2009) cited that the number of complete responses in pilot study should be ranged from 15 to 30 whereas, other scholars like Cooper and Schindler (2008) noted the range in between 25 to 100 respondents to be sufficient for pilot test. Therefore, this study distributes 87 questionnaires among the bank employees situated in Dhaka City. A total of 55 filled questionnaires out of 87 questionnaires are returned to the researcher. It is noted that employees who participates in the pilot study they are excluded from the main study. To determine the internal consistency of the measures, it uses reliability analysis to identify the Cronbach's Alpha of the study variables on the basis of those 55 questionnaires. It is found that most of the employees of banks clearly gives their opinion and the reason perhaps that the employees (respondents) are educated who have at least completed their graduation (Rana & Hossain, 2014). Table 3.9 provides the details of internal consistency of the constructs in pilot study. It shows that all the 11 (eleven)

132

constructs are found to have a higher Cronbach's alpha value of above .7of threshold that is recommended by Hair et al. (2009) and Nunally (1978).

Table 3.9
Details of pilot study reliability (internal consistency) test (n=55)

	Constructs	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Employee Engagement	17	0.96
2	Performance Feedback	3	0.90
3	Job Security	4	0.85
4	Career Advancement	4	0.86
5	Training and Development	4	0.84
6	Rewards and Recognition	7	0.94
7	Employee Participation	4	0.85
8	Organizational Commitment	24	0.95
9	Supervisor Support	4	0.85
10	Co-Worker Support	4	0.91
11	Organizational Support	8	0.95

3.9 Data collection Procedures

Data collection procedure is the essential part of a research design. A researcher can use several ways to collect the data such as interviews, telephone etc. each has its own advantages and disadvantages (Sekaran, 2003). Present study decides to distribute questionnaires to the employees of the selected private commercial banks with a cover letter that explains the purpose of the study. The purpose of the cover letter that attached with the questionnaire is to clarify individual employee that the survey would be

133

considered as confidential and would be used for academic purpose only. This is treated as the ethical guiding principles while collecting the hypothetically sensitive data. At the time of distributing survey document to the individual respondent, a note of each employee's contact information more specifically the available mobile phone number is being taken. During the time of distribution of questionnaire, researcher carries a notebook to take a note of respondent's name, phone number, expected date of returning questionnaire, convenient time to communicate with them. Hence, after a week or two, researcher may make a phone call to participants at their convenient time to recall that whether the survey details are prepared for return or not.

The major limitation of questionnaire survey for primary communication could be the misinterpretation of questions by some respondents. To address this problem, this study selects simple and easy-going questions in the questionnaire. Another drawback could be the response rate of the study. To enhance the response rate, it is thought to take an initiative to distribute the questionnaire personally to the banking employees and briefly describe the purpose of the survey. Another reason for personally distribution of questionnaires is to confirm that all the participants are belongs to the defined population i.e. all the participants have completed their probation period and none of the participants is managers. As Sekaran (2003) stated that personal distribution of questionnaire might make the prominent status of the researcher in the mind of participants and in that sense, this procedure could lead to a 100% response rate. In fact, through this method, researcher can establish a credential relationship with the respondents which may have the positive influence on response rate. Finally, a repeating call is made to the employees after one or

134

two weeks as per their stated convenient time to prompt the survey work. In fact, it is observed that reminding call can enhance the response rate particularly for those who are very busy. Most importantly, participants have sufficient time and full freedom to complete the survey questions as there is no interferences or influence on respondents. The whole process of data collection is taken 14 good weeks i.e. three months and two weeks.

3.10   Data Analysis

In this study, several statistical techniques are employed to analyze the data, to ensure that the study data are accurately presented and examined. All the preliminary tests and main data tests are also being conducted.

3.10.1 Descriptive Test

In Research, descriptive statistical analysis is the fundamental part of data. Researchers can describe the data meaningfully by the descriptive analysis of huge number of data with a few indexes. This study uses the SPSS 22.0 version software to analyze the descriptive part of the data. Numerous steps are followed to determine the mean, standard deviation, frequencies, percentages etc. for all the major study variables (i.e. dependent, independent, mediating, and moderating). Furthermore, all the pretest like data screening,

135

treatment of outliers, normality, multicollinearity and other relevant tests are also being conducted.

Subsequently, the Smart PLS-SEM is employed to test the loadings of items, composite reliability for internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminate validity. In addition, for testing the hypothesis, the path model coefficients are being employed by doing bootstrapping (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012).

3.10.2 Smart PLS-SEM

This study adopts the Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (Smart PLS-SEM) 3.0 version software. The PLS-SEM is a second-generation statistical technique that allows researchers to investigate the complex multivariate relationships among observed and latent variables (Vinzi, Chin, Henseler, & Wang, 2010). The PLS-SEM method is treated as the member of regression tools and has been developed to analyze the links between measurement (indicators) and structural model i.e. constructs (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003). According to Lowry and Gaskin (2014), PLS-SEM method is a strong, flexible and superior for building the statistical model to test and predict the theory. It has also the capability to achieve better reliability and validity statistical analysis through path modeling.

136

In recent time, management and social science researchers are more likely to use second generation data analysis techniques to avoid the weaknesses related to employ the first-generation tools (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). By using PLS-SEM techniques, researchers can include unobserved variables calculated indirectly through scale indicators or items. In addition, it can also give the researchers the measurement error in accounting for the observed variables (Hair et al., 2014). Moreover, PLS-SEM has many other benefits like, least limitations on measurement scale, low sample size, non-normal distribution of data, and predicting capability are the additional advantages for using PLS-SEM. This technique of data analysis can also compute the models both using reflective or formative measurements (Robert, Dennis, & Ahuja, 2008). Moreover, in contrary to the covariance based approach such as AMOS or LISREL, Smart PLS-SEM is a component based tool that calculates the lowest number of variances of all the endogenous latent variables rather just to explain the covariance alone (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).
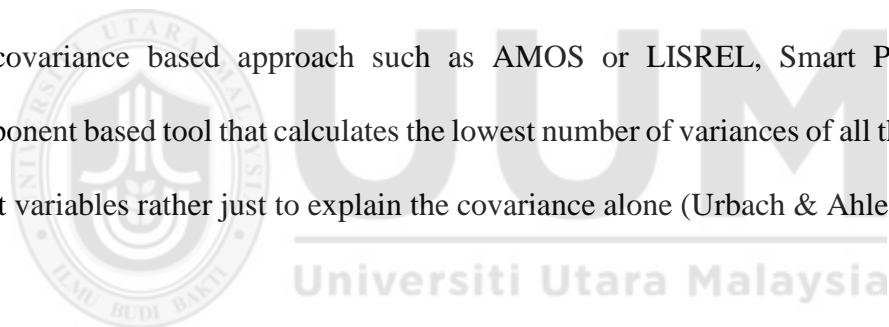
Hair, et al. (2012) stated that PLS-SEM is more suitable statistical tool when there is large number of exogenous variables to explain few numbers of endogenous variables. In this line, this study adopts the PLS-SEM technique to analyze the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement. The other goal of this study is to investigate the mediation role of OC and moderation effect of SS, CWS and OS. Thus, the nature of the present study is deemed as a complex research model that is explained by social exchange theory. Therefore, it is required to apply a structural path modeling approach which is suggested by other scholars, such as Hair et al. (2012) and Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics

(2009), that if the objective of study is predictive or expansion of an existing theory, the best approach for statistical analysis is to use PLS structural path modeling.

3.11   Chapter Summary

This chapter incorporates a detailed description of how the research is being conducted particularly to answer the research questions and objectives. More specifically, it gives an elaborated view of methodological issues such as population, sample size, sampling technique, procedure of data collection, defining variables and data analysis technique. This section also describes the several analyses tools for instance, descriptive statistics, and preliminary test by using SPSS 22 version and the utilization of SmartPLS-3 to test research hypotheses through measurement and structural model analysis. The next chapter discusses the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1   Introduction

This chapter deals with the comprehensive analysis of the results that are obtained from the survey questionnaires distributed to the respondents by using SPSS and Smart PLS software. More specifically, this chapter represents the details of preliminary data analysis includes response rate, non-response bias, normality test, multicollinearity, common method variance, descriptive statistics and demographic profile of the respondents. Further, the chapter includes the outcomes of measurement model and structural path model. In measurement model, several techniques namely, individual items reliability, internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity have been used to test the reliability and validity of the data set. Additionally, the structural path model illustrates the relationships among the main constructs of the study (HRM practices, organizational commitment, supervisor support, co-worker support, organizational support, and employee engagement).

4.2   Response Rate

In the present study, a total of 530 questionnaires have been distributed to the selected three areas in Mirpur namely, Pallabi, Mirpur Sector-1 and Begum Rokeya Sarani as

mentioned in the previous chapter. These 530 survey questionnaires have been personally

administered to the respondents in their respective locations. Out of 530 survey

questionnaires, 395 questionnaires are received. The total 395 returned questionnaires are

accounted for 75% of response rate. Yet, out of 395 returned questionnaires, 12

questionnaires were considered unusable as the participants have left either the page or

questions blank. Thus, these 12 returned questionnaires are treated as incomplete and have

excluded from the study. The remaining 383 questionnaires are accounted 72% usable

response rate which sufficient for further analysis as argued by scholars (Sekaran &

Bougie, 2010) stated that a response with 30% is adequate for further study. See the details

of response in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1
Response Rate of the Study Samples

Response	Frequency/Rate
No. of distributed questionnaires	530
Returned questionnaires	395
Returned and usable questionnaires	383
Returned and excluded questionnaires	12
Questionnaires not returned	135
Response rate %	395/530= **75%**
Usable response rate %	383/530= **72%**

4.3   Non-response Bias Test

The term non-response bias simply refers to the difference of answers between respondents and non-respondents (Lambert & Harrington, 1990). This is a typical problem faced often by the researchers particularly in present time. Armstrong and Overton (1977) defined non-response bias that the non-respondents are same as to those respondents who are participated lately in survey. They further recommended that it is important to compare the response behaviour among early and late respondents in order to test the existence of non-respondent bias. In this study, early response has been defined as the responses acquired before giving a first reminder (30 days from the questionnaires distributed) while the responses received after that specific date are considered as late respondents. Based on this criterion, 154 respondents are considered as early responses and 229 are late responses, thus, this study has divided the samples into two groups based on their response time. Results of these two groups of early and late responses are shown in Table 4.2. The constructs of Likert-Scale indicators are further being tested to evaluate the significant differences between early and late responses by using Mann-Whitney-U-test. Results confirm that there is no significant difference between early and late respondents for 85.5% of the items that is a very acceptable result and it can thus conclude that there is no existence of non-response bias of this study.

Table 4.2
Results of Independent Sample Test using Mann-Whitney–U-test

Items	Z-value	P-value	Items	Z-value	P-value
EE1	-0.315	0.753	EP4	-0.658	0.510
EE2	-1.647	0.100	SS1	-1.741	0.082
EE3	-0.489	0.625	SS2	-1.316	0.188
EE4	-1.224	0.221	SS3*	-2.110	0.035
EE5*	-2.034	0.042	SS4	-1.554	0.120
EE6	-0.632	0.528	CWS1*	-2.198	0.028
EE7	-1.107	0.268	CWS2	-1.852	0.064
EE8	-0.664	0.507	CWS3	-1.152	0.249
EE9	-1.615	0.106	CWS4*	-1.993	0.046
EE10	-1.881	0.060	OS1	-1.413	0.158
EE11*	-2.879	0.004	OS2	-1.956	0.050
EE12*	-2.128	0.033	OS3	-1.341	0.180
EE13	-1.474	0.141	OS4	-1.000	0.317
EE14	-0.897	0.370	OS5	-1.587	0.112
EE15	-0.736	0.462	OS6	-0.255	0.799
EE16	-0.127	0.899	OS7	-0.494	0.622
EE17	-0.326	0.744	OS8	-1.766	0.077
PF1	-0.342	0.732	OC1	-1.068	0.286
PF2	-1.108	0.268	OC2	-1.622	0.105
PF3	-0.603	0.546	OC3	-0.699	0.484
JS1	-0.922	0.356	OC4	-0.854	0.393
JS2	-0.320	0.749	OC5	-1.267	0.205
JS3	-1.087	0.277	OC6*	-2.656	0.008
JS4	-0.500	0.617	OC7	-1.500	0.134
CA1	-0.698	0.485	OC8	-1.351	0.177
CA2	-1.795	0.073	OC13	-1.580	0.114
CA3*	-2.000	0.045	OC9	-0.102	0.918
CA4	-0.325	0.745	OC10	-1.414	0.157
T&D1	-0.865	0.387	OC11	-1.776	0.076
T&D2	-0.350	0.727	OC12	-0.637	0.524
T&D3	-0.446	0.656	OC14*	-2.615	0.009
T&D4	-0.446	0.656	OC15	-1.550	0.121
R&R1	-1.775	0.076	OC16*	-2.182	0.029
R&R2	-0.728	0.467	OC17*	-2.110	0.035
R&R3	-0.841	0.400	OC18	-0.838	0.402
R&R4	-0.614	0.539	OC19	-0.385	0.700
R&R5	-0.068	0.946	OC20	-1.106	0.269
R&R6	-0.311	0.756	OC21	-0.262	0.793

R&R7	-0.469	0.639	**OC22**	-0.099	0.921
EP1	-1.481	0.139	**OC23**	-0.123	0.902
EP2*	-2.024	0.043	**OC24**	-0.757	0.449
EP3	-1.313	0.189			

4.4 Common Method Bias Test

Due to the data collection process for all the study variables from a single respondent at one during the survey, it may create common method bias that may have the influence on the hypothesized relationships in the PLS-SEM path model. In order to test the potential presence of common method bias, this study has used Harman's (1976) single-factor test (see in Appendix C). Common method bias refers to the variances that are attributable to measurement process rather to the variables the measures that are supposed to represent or consistently, the systematic error variances shared among constructs that measured with and established as the function of a similar method or source. Using the Harman's (1976) single-factor test, results show (see in Appendix C, Table 4.3) that the first common factor accounts only for 25.527% which is less than 50% as suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986). Therefore, it is confirmed that the common method variances are likely not to affect the results.

4.5   Initial Data Examination, Screening and Preparation

In quantitative research, the assessment of data screening process should not be overstated since it gives the foundation to ascertain the significant results. According to Hair et al. (2013), the quality of the outcome of quantitative analysis largely depends on the quality of the prior data screening. It allows to examine any probable violations of major assumptions related to the purpose of multivariate tools of data analysis.

Before going to the data screening process, all the constructs are coded, and given input of 383 usable questionnaires in SPSS 22.0 version software. All the constructs are coded (see in Table 4.4) on the basis that they are deemed to present. For example, performance feedback has been coded as PF and it includes 3 items which coded as PF1 to PF3 and similarly all the constructs have been coded with their items. Right after the constructs coding and input process, some important preliminary analyses have been conducted such as, test of outliers, multicollinearity test, and normality test.

Table 4.4
Constructs Coding

Constructs	Dimensions	Codes	No. of items
Performance Feedback		PF	03
Job Security		JS	04
Career Advancement		CA	04
Training & Development		T&D	04
Rewards & Recognition		R&R	07
Employee Participation		EP	04

Supervisor Support		SS	04
Co-Worker Support		CWS	04
Organizational Support		OS	08
Organizational Commitment		OC	24
	Affective Commitment	AC	
	Continuance Commitment	CC	
	Normative Commitment	NC	
Employee Engagement		EE	17
	Vigor	VIG	
	Dedication	DED	
	Absorption	ABS	

4.5.1 Normality Test

Though the PLS-SEM method does not make any assumption regarding the normally distributed dataset (Hair et al., 2014), it is important to analyze whether the dataset is so far from a normal distribution (Hair et al., 2014). To test the normality i.e. to assess the possibility of deviation and distribution from normality, this study uses statistical tool of Skewness and Kurtosis (Hair et al., 2014; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In terms of normal distribution, the Z-value of Skewness and Kurtosis should be zero. The estimated Z-values from Skewness and Kurtosis scores exceeds a critical point of ±1.96 at the significant level of .05 indicates the deviation from normality (Hair et al., 2014; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Z-value is calculated by dividing the skewness and kurtosis with their standard error (Pallant, 2011). According to the above critical value, this study results show, in Table 4.6, that most of the items are not in the range of ±1.96 at the .05 significance level suggesting that the assigned dataset is departed from normality. Similarly, Kolmogorov-

145

Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks Statistics is also conducted for further investigation and results in Table 4.7 show that all the 83 metrics of dataset are significant at <.001 indicating the violation of normality rules. Thus, it is concluded that this study dataset is not normally distributed and giving another justification to use PLS-SEM for further path analysis.

Table 4.5
Results of Normality Test (Z value of Skewness & Kurtosis)

	Skewness			Kurtosis		
Items	Statistic	Std. Error	z-value	Statistic	Std. Error	z-value
EE1	-.475	.125	-3.809	-.054	.249	**-0.216**
EE2	-.610	.125	-4.891	.649	.249	2.608
EE3	-.868	.125	-6.961	.580	.249	2.332
EE4	-.373	.125	-2.991	-.101	.249	**-0.405**
EE5	-.362	.125	-2.903	-.336	.249	**-1.349**
EE6	-.177	.125	**-1.419**	-.771	.249	-3.098
EE7	-.603	.125	-4.836	.373	.249	**1.501**
EE8	-.465	.125	-3.728	-.160	.249	**-0.641**
EE9	-.576	.125	-4.621	.000	.249	**-0.001**
EE10	-.526	.125	-4.222	.162	.249	**0.650**
EE11	-.310	.125	-2.483	.348	.249	**1.400**
EE12	-.445	.125	-3.569	-.380	.249	**-1.528**
EE13	-.576	.125	-4.619	-.461	.249	**-1.852**
EE14	-.029	.125	**-0.232**	-.167	.249	**-0.673**
EE15	-.530	.125	-4.249	.082	.249	**0.331**
EE16	-.475	.125	-3.811	-.351	.249	**-1.411**
EE17	-.559	.125	-4.485	.052	.249	**0.208**
PF1	-.534	.125	-4.280	.163	.249	**0.654**
PF2	-.510	.125	-4.088	-.041	.249	**-0.164**
PF3	-.547	.125	-4.388	.236	.249	**0.949**
JS1	.094	.125	**0.756**	-.649	.249	-2.611
JS2	-.119	.125	**-0.954**	-.467	.249	**-1.876**
JS3	-.053	.125	**-0.428**	-.644	.249	-2.588
JS4	-.099	.125	**-0.795**	-.508	.249	-2.043
CA1	-.483	.125	**-3.876**	-.339	.249	**-1.363**
CA2	-.223	.125	**-1.792**	-.072	.249	**-0.291**

146

CA3	-.117	.125	**-0.936**	-.357	.249	**-1.434**
CA4	-.154	.125	**-1.239**	-.288	.249	**-1.159**
TD1	-.516	.125	-4.142	-.218	.249	**-0.875**
TD2	-.466	.125	-3.739	-.003	.249	**-0.013**
TD3	-.623	.125	-4.996	.228	.249	**0.915**
TD4	-.813	.125	-6.522	.484	.249	**1.945**
RR1	-.099	.125	**-0.797**	-.568	.249	-2.283
RR2	-.138	.125	**-1.107**	-.324	.249	**-1.302**
RR3	-.705	.125	-5.657	.623	.249	2.506
RR4	-.729	.125	-5.848	.847	.249	3.407
RR5	-.608	.125	-4.877	.608	.249	2.446
RR6	-.258	.125	-2.073	-.491	.249	**-1.974**
RR7	-.038	.125	**-0.304**	-.624	.249	-2.509
EP1	-.078	.125	**-0.626**	-.435	.249	**-1.751**
EP2	-.451	.125	-3.615	.151	.249	**0.605**
EP3	-.487	.125	-3.907	.238	.249	**0.958**
EP4	-.460	.125	-3.689	-.247	.249	**-0.992**
SS1	-1.112	.125	-8.920	1.915	.249	7.701
SS2	-.984	.125	-7.891	1.350	.249	5.428
SS3	-.676	.125	-5.421	.715	.249	2.876
SS4	-.840	.125	-6.738	1.261	.249	5.071
CS1	-.704	.125	-5.647	.972	.249	3.910
CS2	-.535	.125	-4.291	.195	.249	**0.784**
CS3	-.729	.125	-5.844	.815	.249	3.278
CS4	-.514	.125	-4.120	.337	.249	**1.353**
POS1	-.335	.125	-2.686	.005	.249	**0.019**
POS2	-.046	.125	**-0.369**	-.552	.249	-2.221
POS3	-.189	.125	**-1.513**	-.357	.249	**-1.436**
POS4	-.186	.125	**-1.489**	-.378	.249	**-1.518**
POS5	-.317	.125	-2.545	-.199	.249	**-0.800**
POS6	-.368	.125	-2.951	-.017	.249	**-0.070**
POS7	-.221	.125	**-1.773**	-.029	.249	**-0.118**
POS8	-.332	.125	-2.666	.032	.249	**0.129**
OC1	-.135	.125	**-1.080**	-.124	.249	**-0.500**
OC2	-.375	.125	-3.007	-.146	.249	**-0.588**
OC3	-.606	.125	-4.860	.609	.249	2.450
OC4	-.270	.125	-2.166	-.318	.249	**-1.280**
OC5	-.575	.125	-4.610	.320	.249	**1.288**
OC6	-.270	.125	-2.164	-.101	.249	**-0.406**
OC7	-.445	.125	-3.566	.532	.249	2.141
OC8	-.325	.125	-2.606	.132	.249	**0.533**
OC13	-.109	.125	**-0.871**	.295	.249	**1.186**
OC9	-.264	.125	-2.120	.014	.249	**0.055**
OC10	-.075	.125	**-0.602**	-.163	.249	**-0.657**

147

OC11	.035	.125	**0.283**	-.266	.249	**-1.070**
OC12	-.375	.125	-3.012	-.332	.249	**-1.335**
OC14	-.363	.125	-2.911	-.277	.249	**-1.113**
OC15	-.174	.125	**-1.394**	-.262	.249	**-1.055**
OC16	-.249	.125	**-1.995**	-.148	.249	**-0.596**
OC17	-.285	.125	-2.283	-.172	.249	**-0.691**
OC18	-.421	.125	-3.380	-.324	.249	**-1.302**
OC19	.028	.125	**0.226**	-.696	.249	-2.797
OC20	-.275	.125	-2.206	-.062	.249	**-0.250**
OC21	-.227	.125	**-1.823**	-.445	.249	**-1.791**
OC22	-.139	.125	**-1.117**	-.050	.249	**-0.199**
OC23	-.091	.125	**-0.727**	-.419	.249	**-1.685**
OC24	.227	.125	**1.824**	.233	.249	**0.936**

EE=Employee Engagement, PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation, SS=Supervisor Support, CWS=Co-worker Support, OS= Organizational Support, OC=Organizational Commitment

Table 4.6

Results of Normality Test (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks Statistics)

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
EE1	.262	383	.000	.875	383	.000
EE2	.335	383	.000	.801	383	.000
EE3	.262	383	.000	.841	383	.000
EE4	.281	383	.000	.858	383	.000
EE5	.261	383	.000	.868	383	.000
EE6	.187	383	.000	.913	383	.000
EE7	.262	383	.000	.871	383	.000
EE8	.248	383	.000	.887	383	.000
EE9	.280	383	.000	.869	383	.000
EE10	.240	383	.000	.872	383	.000
EE11	.254	383	.000	.854	383	.000
EE12	.265	383	.000	.879	383	.000
EE13	.261	383	.000	.861	383	.000
EE14	.245	383	.000	.874	383	.000
EE15	.295	383	.000	.855	383	.000
EE16	.273	383	.000	.872	383	.000
EE17	.290	383	.000	.861	383	.000
PF1	.271	383	.000	.872	383	.000
PF2	.280	383	.000	.870	383	.000

PF3	.269	383	.000	.871	383	.000
JS1	.181	383	.000	.906	383	.000
JS2	.203	383	.000	.902	383	.000
JS3	.194	383	.000	.900	383	.000
JS4	.204	383	.000	.891	383	.000
CA1	.257	383	.000	.846	383	.000
CA2	.217	383	.000	.886	383	.000
CA3	.235	383	.000	.861	383	.000
CA4	.202	383	.000	.902	383	.000
TD1	.264	383	.000	.876	383	.000
TD2	.272	383	.000	.867	383	.000
TD3	.318	383	.000	.835	383	.000
TD4	.294	383	.000	.838	383	.000
RR1	.183	383	.000	.908	383	.000
RR2	.201	383	.000	.903	383	.000
RR3	.304	383	.000	.843	383	.000
RR4	.300	383	.000	.839	383	.000
RR5	.285	383	.000	.852	383	.000
RR6	.211	383	.000	.892	383	.000
RR7	.171	383	.000	.911	383	.000
EP1	.213	383	.000	.889	383	.000
EP2	.241	383	.000	.864	383	.000
EP3	.275	383	.000	.849	383	.000
EP4	.269	383	.000	.868	383	.000
SS1	.320	383	.000	.807	383	.000
SS2	.321	383	.000	.822	383	.000
SS3	.299	383	.000	.846	383	.000
SS4	.320	383	.000	.824	383	.000
CS1	.299	383	.000	.820	383	.000
CS2	.267	383	.000	.849	383	.000
CS3	.307	383	.000	.825	383	.000
CS4	.289	383	.000	.847	383	.000
POS1	.237	383	.000	.882	383	.000
POS2	.205	383	.000	.892	383	.000
POS3	.203	383	.000	.900	383	.000
POS4	.224	383	.000	.877	383	.000
POS5	.240	383	.000	.885	383	.000
POS6	.255	383	.000	.876	383	.000
POS7	.246	383	.000	.869	383	.000
POS8	.236	383	.000	.873	383	.000
OC1	.226	383	.000	.894	383	.000
OC2	.211	383	.000	.896	383	.000
OC3	.292	383	.000	.848	383	.000

149

OC4	.228	383	.000	.883	383	.000
OC5	.274	383	.000	.866	383	.000
OC6	.200	383	.000	.895	383	.000
OC7	.244	383	.000	.855	383	.000
OC8	.257	383	.000	.865	383	.000
OC13	.249	383	.000	.843	383	.000
OC9	.213	383	.000	.881	383	.000
OC10	.235	383	.000	.875	383	.000
OC11	.243	383	.000	.883	383	.000
OC12	.266	383	.000	.872	383	.000
OC14	.261	383	.000	.877	383	.000
OC15	.227	383	.000	.875	383	.000
OC16	.228	383	.000	.867	383	.000
OC17	.265	383	.000	.867	383	.000
OC18	.269	383	.000	.853	383	.000
OC19	.180	383	.000	.905	383	.000
OC20	.239	383	.000	.879	383	.000
OC21	.206	383	.000	.904	383	.000
OC22	.235	383	.000	.872	383	.000
OC23	.207	383	.000	.898	383	.000
OC24	.303	383	.000	.842	383	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

EE=Employee Engagement, PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation, SS=Supervisor Support, CWS=Co-worker Support, OS= Organizational Support, OC=Organizational Commitment

4.5.2 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity appears when two or more than two exogenous (independent) latent constructs are highly correlated (Field, 2009). Multicollinearity among exogenous variables may significantly distort the analysis of regression path coefficient and even significant level (Hair et al., 2014). In addition, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that

existence of multicollinearity among the variables can increase its standard error and, that may result in statistically insignificant path coefficients.

To determine, whether the multicollinearity present or not among the variables, this study first start to investigate the correlation-matrix as recommended by scholars (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013; Hair et al., 2014). The correlation coefficient value of .90 and above seems to have the multicollinearity among the latent variables (Hair et al., 2014). Based on this threshold value, Table 4.7 illustrates that none of the value in correlation-matrix is .90 or above which suggests that there is no multicollinearity among the variables.

Table 4.7
Correlation Matrix of Exogenous Variables

	PF	JS	CA	T&D	R&R	EP	SS	CWS	OS	OC
PF	1									
JS	.406**	1								
CA	.475**	.428**	1							
T&D	.481**	.386**	.486**	1						
R&R	.525**	.496**	.492**	.522**	1					
EP	.455**	.421**	.465**	.456**	.445**	1				
SS	.271**	.188**	.195*	.118*	.148*	.277*	1			
CWS	.287**	.184**	.195*	.185*	.230*	.312*	.249*	1		
OS	.299**	.295**	.428*	.309*	.337*	.379*	.339*	.282*	1	
OC	.465**	.453**	.511*	.485*	.502*	.474*	.331*	.285*	.401*	1

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

PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation, SS=Supervisor Support, CWS=Co-worker Support, OS= Organizational Support, OC=Organizational Commitment

Apart from the correlation-matrix analysis for testing the multicollinearity, this study also investigated the variance inflated factor (VIF) and its tolerance level for further verification. For testing the presence of multicollinearity for a given dataset, Hair et al. (2013) suggested the critical value of VIF that a construct with VIF value of greater than 5 or a tolerance value of less than .20 deemed to have the presence of multicollinearity. Table 4.8 shows that all the exogenous latent constructs of this study have a higher than .20 tolerance level and the VIF value is less than 5 confirms that the absence of multicollinearity among the independent latent constructs.

Table 4.8
Results of Multicollinearity of Exogenous Variables

Constructs	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
PF	.579	1.727
JS	.658	1.520
CA	.562	1.781
T&D	.584	1.713
R&R	.533	1.876
EP	.597	1.675
SS	.787	1.270
CWS	.827	1.210
OS	.688	1.454
OC	.536	1.866

PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation, SS=Supervisor Support, CWS=Coworker Support, OS= Organizational Support, OC=Organizational Commitment

4.6   Characteristics of respondents

This section describes the demographic profile of all the respondents who have participated in the survey questionnaires. The present study examines the demographics of the respondents based on their gender, marital status, age, education qualification, experiences in years with current organization and total number of experience they have. The details of the respondents exhibit in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9
Respondents Profile (n=383)

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender		
Male	289	75.5
Female	92	24
Missing	2	0.5
Marital Status		
Married	278	72.6
Single	105	27.4
Age		
Less than 30	87	22.7
30-35 Years	203	53
36-40 Years	93	24.3
Education Qualification		
Bachelor	37	9.7
Master	176	46

MBA	167	43.6
Others	3	0.8
Current Experience		
less than 3	75	19.6
3-5 Years	142	37.1
6-10 Years	153	39.9
11-15 Years	12	3.1
more than 15 years	1	0.3
Total Experience		
Less than 2 Years	0	0
2-4 Years	87	22.7
5-8 Years	226	59.0
more than 8 years	70	18.3

Results indicate that the majority of the respondents 289 representing 75.5% in the samples are males, whereas the rest of 92 representing 24% are females while 2 respondents did not mention their gender. In case of marital status, majority of the respondents 278 representing 72.6% are married, consecutively 105 representing 27.4% are single. Regarding to the age of the participants, results show that most of the respondent, a total of 203 belong to the age group 30-35 years showing 53% while 93 participants representing 24.3% belongs to 36-40 years and 87 respondents account for 22.7% are less than 30 years.

In terms of education qualification, the highest numbers of respondents 176 showing 46% have the master degree, followed by 167 participants account for 43.6% are with MBA degree. Similarly, 37 respondents representing 9.7% have bachelor degree and lastly only 3 participants showing .8% have other education not mentioned.

Regarding the total years they have passed in the current organization, majority of the participants 153 representing 39.9% are belongs to the range of 6-10 years, consecutively 142 showing 37.1% are belongs to 3-5 years, 75 showing 19.6% having the experience of less than 3 years while only 1 respondent representing .3% with more than 15years of experience. In the case of total experience, 226 respondents showing 59% having the total experience of 5-8 years, followed by 87 accounts for 22.7% have 2-4 years and 70 respondents showing 18.3% have more than 8 years experiences. Most importantly, none of the respondents has experience of less than 2 years confirming than all the participants are have passed their probationary period.

4.7   Evaluation of PLS-SEM Results

In contemporary time, scholars (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler & Sarstedt, 2012) suggested that validating the model by using Goodness-of-Fit (GoF) index is not appropriate. They further argued that by using PLS-SEM path models, the GoF index cannot a valid model from an invalid one, hence the GoF value is treated as inappropriate. Thus, from the above discussions, this study has considered and pursued the two-stage process of investigating and also describing the outcomes of PLS-SEM path modeling (Henseler, et al., 2009). The two-stage process that is deployed in this research includes, (a) the evaluation of measurement model and; (b) the evaluation of structural model (Hair, et al., 2014;

155

Henseler, et al., 2009). This two-stage process is also known as assessment of inner model

and outer model (Ramayah et al., 2011).
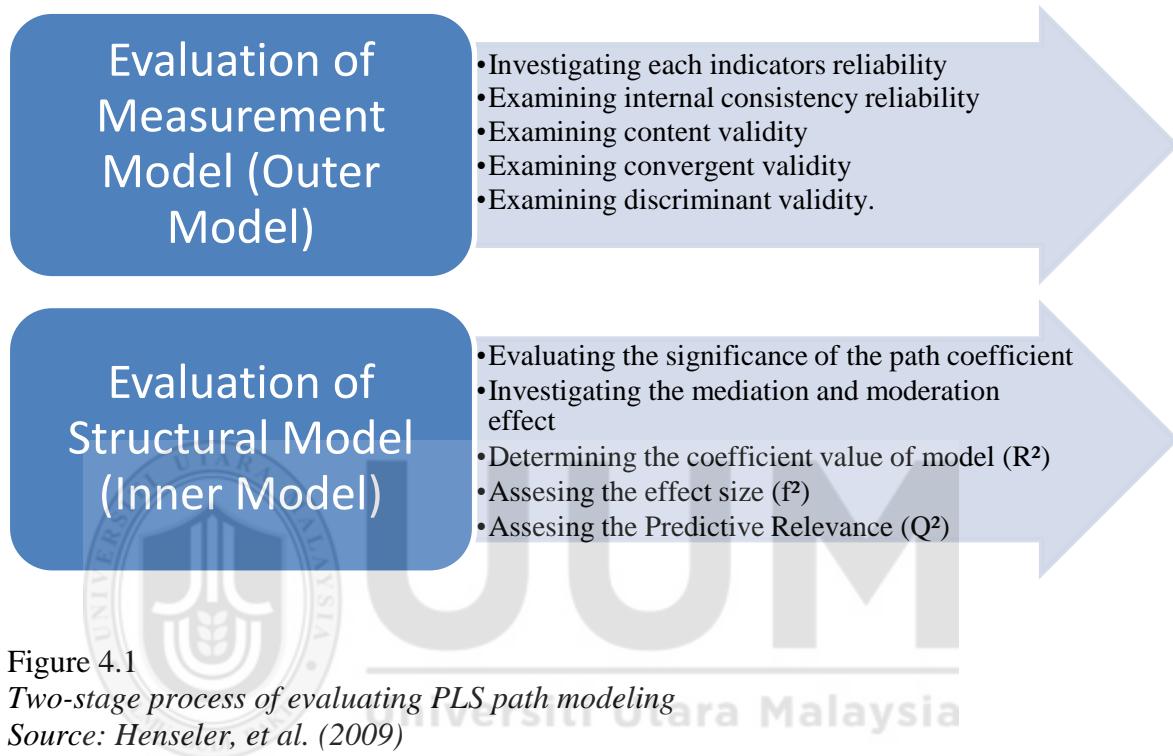
Figure 4.1
Two-stage process of evaluating PLS path modeling
Source: Henseler, et al. (2009)

4.7.1 The Measurement Model

In this study, the smart PLS 3.0 version has been used to assess the measurement or outer

model. The outer or measurement model considers the evaluation of the components

which indicates that how appropriately the items are loading and reflecting their particular

constructs. For assessing the outer model through PLS-SEM process, measuring reliability

and validity are essential and thus, in PLS-SEM approach, the evaluation of outer model

156

needs to fulfill the following criterion: (i) internal consistency reliability of each item; (ii) convergent validity and finally (iii) the discriminant validity of the reflective constructs (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009). The research model with structural path dimensions is presented below in Figure 4.2.
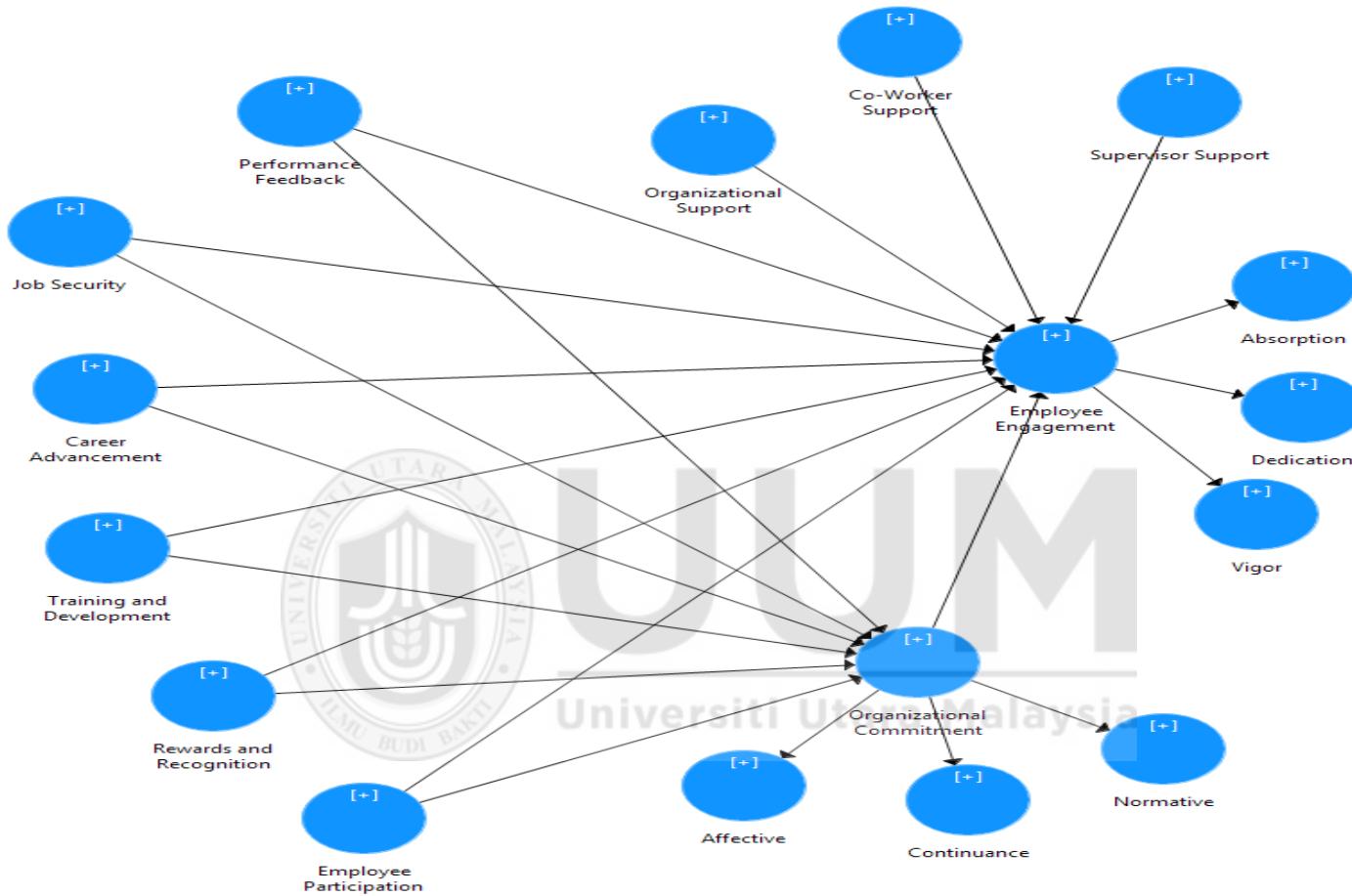
Figure 4.2
Research Model

4.7.1.1 Construct Validity

In construct validity, there are three types of testing validity needs to be conducted to validate the constructs such as, content validity; convergent validity; and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2012). The discussions of these criteria are as follows:

4.7.1.1.1 Content Validity

Scholars (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012) suggested that to determine the individual indicators reliability through PLS-SEM approach, it is essential to examine the outer loadings of all constructs. Hence, based on the rule of thumb, scholars (Hair et al., 2012) defined that the items with loadings in between .40 to .70 can be maintained. This study has investigated that out of the total 83 initial items, 76 items have been retained (see in Table 4.10). This indicates that the 7 items have been deleted because of the poor loadings. The remaining 76 items were kept in the study model that carried the loadings in between .58 to .92 correspondingly.

With the purpose of getting internal consistency of reliability, which is widely used in research, is the extent to which all the observed items for a particular construct or their subscale are measuring the exact concept (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). Typically, examining the coefficient of cronbach's alpha and composite reliability are mostly used

159

measures to estimate the internal consistency of reliability in social science research (Peterson & Kim, 2013; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). This present study has employed the composite reliability (CR) to assess the internal consistency of the reliability for all the constructs. The explanation for using composite reliability over cronbach's alpha value is because of the suggestions given by different authors (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010) that the coefficient value of composite reliability gives less significant bias estimation comparing to cronbach's alpha. Moreover, they stated that the coefficient of composite reliability can estimates the equal contribution of all the items for a particular variable regardless the actual role in the individual loading. Furthermore, it is also noted that cronbach's alpha value may either have over-estimation or even under estimation scale-reliability. However, scholars (Hair et al., 2012; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) have specified the rule of thumb for measuring the internal consistency of reliability by using coefficient of composite reliability must be above .70 considering the satisfactory level, while the value is below .60 indicates a lack of the reliability (Hair, et al., 2012).

Table 4.10 shows the composite reliability for all the latent variables including dependent, independent, mediating and moderating. As shown in the table 4.11 that the coefficient of composite reliability for all the latent variables are ranging from .82 to .92 that indicates that all the latent constructs has a satisfactory level of internal consistency as recommended by scholars (Hair et al., 2012; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Additionally, it has also been found (see in Table 4.10) that the average variance extracted (AVE) value for all the latent constructs are in range between .51 to .80 which is fulfill the rule of thumb that the threshold value of AVE should be above .50 as suggested by Chin (1998).

160

Table 4.10
Outer loadings, Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Construct	Items	Initial Model	Modified	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Career Advancement	CA1	0.806	0.806	0.803	0.871	0.63
	CA2	0.86	0.858			
	CA3	0.759	0.764			
	CA4	0.743	0.742			
Co-Worker Support	CWS1	0.794	0.795	0.851	0.899	0.691
	CWS2	0.869	0.868			
	CWS3	0.884	0.882			
	CWS4	0.773	0.775			
Vigor	EE1	0.656	0.642	0.758	0.838	0.51
	EE2	0.641	0.66			
	EE3	0.695	0.711			
	EE4	0.77	0.791			
	EE5	0.736	0.754			
	EE6	0.508	Del			
Dedication	EE7	0.754	0.755	0.803	0.864	0.561
	EE8	0.694	0.696			
	EE9	0.778	0.779			
	EE10	0.798	0.798			
	EE11	0.714	0.712			
Absorption	EE12	0.583	Del	0.709	0.820	0.533
	EE13	0.59	Del			
	EE14	0.705	0.765			
	EE15	0.695	0.742			
	EE16	0.675	0.705			
	EE17	0.652	0.706			
Employee Participation	EP1	0.764	0.766	0.802	0.871	0.628
	EP2	0.827	0.826			
	EP3	0.807	0.805			
	EP4	0.77	0.772			
Job Security	JS1	0.811	0.805	0.771	0.855	0.598
	JS2	0.8	0.799			
	JS3	0.838	0.839			
	JS4	0.626	0.632			
Affective	OC1	0.772	0.774	0.876	0.903	0.539
	OC2	0.58	0.581			
	OC3	0.712	0.711			
	OC4	0.682	0.685			
	OC5	0.78	0.781			

161

Construct	Item					
	OC6	0.763	0.762			
	OC7	0.754	0.752			
	OC8	0.806	0.805			
Continuance	OC9	0.66	0.68	0.84	0.88	0.512
	OC10	0.689	0.709			
	OC11	0.788	0.796			
	OC12	0.692	0.678			
	OC13	0.593	Del			
	OC14	0.722	0.715			
	OC15	0.671	0.68			
	OC16	0.73	0.742			
Normative	OC17	0.496	Del	0.755	0.837	0.51
	OC18	0.49	Del			
	OC19	0.519	Del			
	OC20	0.696	0.697			
	OC21	0.548	0.592			
	OC22	0.773	0.813			
	OC23	0.761	0.79			
	OC24	0.61	0.653			
Performance Feedback	PF1	0.893	0.893	0.872	0.921	0.796
	PF3	0.889	0.888			
	PF2	0.895	0.895			
Organizational Support	OS1	0.755	0.76	0.892	0.914	0.573
	OS2	0.86	0.86			
	OS3	0.815	0.815			
	OS4	0.795	0.795			
	OS5	0.761	0.762			
	OS6	0.754	0.754			
	OS7	0.66	0.656			
	OS8	0.631	0.63			
Rewards and Recognition	R&R1	0.783	0.784	0.87	0.9	0.562
	R&R2	0.789	0.79			
	R&R3	0.729	0.726			
	R&R4	0.678	0.676			
	R&R5	0.788	0.789			
	R&R6	0.731	0.732			
	R&R7	0.743	0.744			
Supervisor Support	SS1	0.843	0.838	0.882	0.919	0.74
	SS2	0.918	0.92			
	SS3	0.892	0.889			
	SS4	0.781	0.787			
Training and Development	T&D1	0.83	0.83	0.831	0.888	0.666
	T&D2	0.723	0.722			

T&D3	0.864	0.865
T&D4	0.838	0.839

4.7.1.1.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which each items of a particular construct are truly intended to represent the latent construct and simultaneously, the individual items are correlated with each other to measure the same construct (Hair et al., 2006). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), to assess the adequate value of convergent validity for any of the latent constructs, the value of average variance extracted (AVE) needs to be .05 or above. The justification for having the cutoff value of AVE at least .50 is that in an average the latent variable is capable to have 50% or more for its items variances to show the adequate amount of convergent validity (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

Moreover, the results (see in Table 4.11) of loadings and cross loadings indicate that all the loadings of the items exceed the threshold value of .50. This indicates that all the latent constructs are not only fulfill the AVE criteria of .50 and above but also converge with the higher loading towards their respective constructs suggesting that all the latent variables of this research have attained the satisfactory convergent validity.

Table 4.11
Loadings and cross loadings

	CA	CWS	VIG	DED	ABS	EP	JS	AC	CC	NC	PF	OS	R&R	SS	T&D
CA1	**0.806**	0.13	0.44	0.49	0.35	0.36	0.37	0.45	0.22	0.25	0.42	0.31	0.41	0.23	0.35
CA2	**0.858**	0.16	0.42	0.51	0.38	0.41	0.43	0.45	0.22	0.35	0.41	0.40	0.45	0.17	0.36
CA3	**0.764**	0.20	0.36	0.42	0.43	0.35	0.31	0.45	0.31	0.35	0.36	0.28	0.37	0.11	0.40
CA4	**0.742**	0.14	0.29	0.39	0.40	0.36	0.27	0.40	0.27	0.43	0.33	0.37	0.35	0.12	0.44
CWS1	0.156	**0.80**	0.20	0.29	0.14	0.20	0.11	0.25	0.22	0.17	0.26	0.21	0.19	0.26	0.08
CWS2	0.132	**0.87**	0.13	0.28	0.13	0.29	0.14	0.22	0.07	0.15	0.23	0.26	0.18	0.21	0.16
CWS3	0.178	**0.88**	0.25	0.34	0.18	0.28	0.20	0.32	0.14	0.23	0.30	0.25	0.22	0.21	0.23
CWS4	0.186	**0.78**	0.16	0.24	0.14	0.28	0.17	0.23	0.12	0.18	0.16	0.21	0.22	0.17	0.15
EE1	0.258	0.15	**0.64**	0.34	0.40	0.24	0.25	0.34	0.19	0.30	0.23	0.16	0.40	0.05	0.29
EE2	0.237	0.22	**0.66**	0.48	0.40	0.20	0.20	0.34	0.19	0.22	0.36	0.10	0.29	-0.03	0.25
EE3	0.312	0.17	**0.71**	0.43	0.37	0.27	0.31	0.43	0.24	0.28	0.39	0.07	0.43	0.10	0.36
EE4	0.47	0.15	**0.79**	0.59	0.43	0.35	0.40	0.46	0.28	0.34	0.43	0.23	0.44	0.07	0.41
EE5	0.415	0.15	**0.75**	0.53	0.39	0.36	0.30	0.45	0.33	0.32	0.39	0.21	0.41	0.12	0.39
EE7	0.486	0.24	0.52	**0.76**	0.34	0.45	0.32	0.48	0.24	0.37	0.43	0.38	0.40	0.14	0.37
EE8	0.347	0.24	0.42	**0.70**	0.36	0.37	0.16	0.39	0.21	0.28	0.28	0.31	0.30	0.09	0.32
EE9	0.383	0.27	0.52	**0.78**	0.33	0.35	0.39	0.49	0.31	0.29	0.36	0.29	0.37	0.15	0.37
EE10	0.456	0.29	0.54	**0.80**	0.38	0.39	0.36	0.52	0.27	0.38	0.41	0.32	0.37	0.02	0.40
EE11	0.451	0.26	0.51	**0.71**	0.48	0.43	0.35	0.48	0.39	0.40	0.38	0.27	0.43	0.22	0.37
EE14	0.38	0.17	0.43	0.43	**0.77**	0.37	0.29	0.39	0.29	0.37	0.30	0.34	0.37	0.13	0.31
EE15	0.329	0.08	0.47	0.42	**0.74**	0.27	0.37	0.34	0.27	0.29	0.30	0.23	0.38	0.21	0.28
EE16	0.336	0.14	0.35	0.29	**0.71**	0.32	0.36	0.42	0.38	0.32	0.25	0.18	0.34	0.10	0.33
EE17	0.373	0.15	0.36	0.32	**0.71**	0.28	0.32	0.39	0.33	0.31	0.32	0.21	0.37	0.14	0.38
EP1	0.348	0.18	0.32	0.39	0.38	**0.77**	0.37	0.41	0.29	0.33	0.35	0.35	0.31	0.20	0.29
EP2	0.364	0.30	0.35	0.44	0.28	**0.83**	0.36	0.37	0.24	0.30	0.43	0.25	0.36	0.22	0.42
EP3	0.414	0.30	0.29	0.43	0.35	**0.81**	0.25	0.44	0.26	0.41	0.33	0.31	0.33	0.25	0.38
EP4	0.349	0.21	0.33	0.43	0.35	**0.77**	0.36	0.33	0.15	0.25	0.33	0.30	0.44	0.22	0.37
JS1	0.378	0.21	0.37	0.40	0.35	0.39	**0.81**	0.39	0.26	0.27	0.36	0.23	0.39	0.22	0.29
JS2	0.292	0.16	0.30	0.28	0.34	0.30	**0.80**	0.38	0.26	0.34	0.35	0.22	0.36	0.16	0.32

164

JS3	0.395	0.16	0.29	0.37	0.39	0.35	**0.84**	0.37	0.17	0.39	0.38	0.36	0.45	0.12	0.31
JS4	0.27	0.03	0.31	0.25	0.32	0.25	**0.63**	0.39	0.15	0.23	0.15	0.11	0.34	0.07	0.27
OC1	0.502	0.22	0.37	0.53	0.37	0.36	0.46	**0.77**	0.45	0.52	0.44	0.39	0.39	0.22	0.40
OC2	0.452	0.28	0.28	0.47	0.23	0.37	0.35	**0.58**	0.23	0.43	0.39	0.31	0.35	0.18	0.36
OC3	0.377	0.15	0.54	0.46	0.40	0.33	0.31	**0.71**	0.40	0.46	0.38	0.19	0.40	0.10	0.37
OC4	0.272	0.23	0.27	0.35	0.44	0.33	0.35	**0.69**	0.61	0.48	0.33	0.32	0.32	0.24	0.31
OC5	0.495	0.22	0.50	0.52	0.40	0.35	0.38	**0.78**	0.46	0.48	0.43	0.39	0.46	0.17	0.48
OC6	0.3	0.22	0.43	0.43	0.37	0.34	0.31	**0.76**	0.53	0.45	0.29	0.27	0.32	0.24	0.30
OC7	0.391	0.25	0.44	0.44	0.38	0.34	0.30	**0.75**	0.48	0.48	0.35	0.24	0.39	0.24	0.41
OC8	0.459	0.27	0.49	0.55	0.46	0.47	0.43	**0.81**	0.42	0.53	0.39	0.30	0.45	0.18	0.46
OC9	0.239	0.06	0.23	0.20	0.28	0.15	0.16	0.42	**0.68**	0.40	0.16	0.11	0.23	0.23	0.25
OC10	0.23	0.06	0.24	0.24	0.29	0.19	0.29	0.41	**0.71**	0.37	0.16	0.12	0.26	0.21	0.18
OC11	0.242	0.16	0.26	0.34	0.31	0.19	0.10	0.50	**0.80**	0.41	0.16	0.22	0.20	0.18	0.20
OC12	0.217	0.10	0.29	0.28	0.30	0.11	0.18	0.42	**0.68**	0.32	0.21	0.16	0.24	0.20	0.14
OC14	0.172	0.12	0.24	0.28	0.29	0.30	0.22	0.49	**0.72**	0.39	0.25	0.19	0.21	0.20	0.20
OC15	0.283	0.18	0.27	0.30	0.40	0.31	0.28	0.42	**0.68**	0.46	0.29	0.21	0.28	0.26	0.31
OC16	0.208	0.15	0.22	0.26	0.26	0.23	0.16	0.43	**0.74**	0.38	0.20	0.25	0.20	0.22	0.19
OC20	0.322	0.13	0.24	0.31	0.33	0.33	0.22	0.49	0.47	**0.70**	0.27	0.28	0.29	0.22	0.30
OC21	0.151	0.18	0.27	0.25	0.25	0.22	0.29	0.38	0.27	**0.59**	0.20	0.25	0.30	0.16	0.15
OC22	0.367	0.10	0.36	0.38	0.36	0.25	0.35	0.53	0.42	**0.81**	0.29	0.30	0.32	0.16	0.35
OC23	0.336	0.26	0.25	0.35	0.28	0.33	0.27	0.51	0.44	**0.79**	0.25	0.34	0.32	0.17	0.32
OC24	0.338	0.13	0.36	0.33	0.34	0.31	0.32	0.39	0.32	**0.65**	0.35	0.23	0.39	0.21	0.31
PF1	0.411	0.20	0.48	0.44	0.40	0.37	0.36	0.46	0.28	0.31	**0.89**	0.24	0.46	0.19	0.45
PF2	0.463	0.29	0.47	0.45	0.36	0.43	0.40	0.46	0.25	0.38	**0.90**	0.32	0.49	0.30	0.43
PF3	0.41	0.30	0.41	0.45	0.31	0.42	0.34	0.43	0.22	0.32	**0.89**	0.25	0.45	0.23	0.41
OS1	0.35	0.18	0.21	0.33	0.24	0.31	0.22	0.32	0.13	0.27	0.33	**0.76**	0.27	0.20	0.28
OS2	0.413	0.18	0.21	0.38	0.27	0.37	0.28	0.34	0.21	0.38	0.31	**0.86**	0.33	0.25	0.27
OS3	0.395	0.21	0.19	0.40	0.23	0.32	0.28	0.32	0.16	0.32	0.27	**0.82**	0.31	0.23	0.19
OS4	0.277	0.25	0.15	0.32	0.23	0.32	0.18	0.29	0.20	0.29	0.21	**0.80**	0.29	0.22	0.24
OS5	0.313	0.24	0.11	0.28	0.27	0.29	0.15	0.31	0.22	0.31	0.18	**0.76**	0.26	0.31	0.23
OS6	0.286	0.20	0.11	0.28	0.26	0.28	0.22	0.29	0.16	0.29	0.18	**0.75**	0.25	0.27	0.26

165

OS7	0.273	0.25	0.15	0.27	0.27	0.20	0.25	0.31	0.26	0.27	0.17	**0.66**	0.22	0.32	0.22
OS8	0.231	0.21	0.20	0.22	0.25	0.18	0.23	0.28	0.22	0.26	0.15	**0.63**	0.26	0.27	0.19
R&R1	0.393	0.16	0.45	0.39	0.42	0.34	0.35	0.41	0.20	0.41	0.37	0.34	**0.78**	0.07	0.42
R&R2	0.368	0.17	0.42	0.36	0.44	0.31	0.50	0.41	0.21	0.40	0.43	0.33	**0.79**	0.11	0.37
R&R3	0.304	0.16	0.42	0.34	0.33	0.27	0.37	0.34	0.21	0.22	0.41	0.14	**0.73**	0.09	0.40
R&R4	0.336	0.21	0.40	0.35	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.36	0.22	0.23	0.36	0.11	**0.68**	0.14	0.40
R&R5	0.444	0.23	0.50	0.45	0.44	0.42	0.37	0.44	0.31	0.30	0.45	0.28	**0.79**	0.15	0.45
R&R6	0.401	0.14	0.33	0.32	0.33	0.38	0.37	0.38	0.29	0.40	0.36	0.30	**0.73**	0.13	0.34
R&R7	0.374	0.20	0.37	0.40	0.35	0.36	0.37	0.40	0.23	0.41	0.33	0.38	**0.74**	0.14	0.35
SS1	0.169	0.20	0.09	0.09	0.17	0.15	0.14	0.25	0.25	0.21	0.24	0.21	0.11	**0.84**	0.05
SS2	0.197	0.26	0.12	0.14	0.19	0.29	0.20	0.22	0.21	0.23	0.27	0.29	0.17	**0.92**	0.13
SS3	0.157	0.22	0.05	0.18	0.19	0.23	0.18	0.26	0.33	0.23	0.21	0.28	0.12	**0.89**	0.10
SS4	0.16	0.18	0.04	0.15	0.14	0.29	0.14	0.20	0.23	0.22	0.21	0.38	0.13	**0.79**	0.12
T&D1	0.443	0.14	0.41	0.48	0.35	0.46	0.38	0.48	0.25	0.34	0.43	0.36	0.44	0.16	**0.83**
T&D2	0.31	0.11	0.32	0.33	0.31	0.30	0.25	0.36	0.25	0.31	0.35	0.18	0.39	0.09	**0.72**
T&D3	0.382	0.20	0.44	0.36	0.35	0.32	0.28	0.45	0.27	0.36	0.38	0.22	0.42	0.11	**0.87**
T&D4	0.421	0.18	0.38	0.42	0.43	0.40	0.34	0.42	0.18	0.32	0.40	0.23	0.45	0.04	**0.84**

EE=Employee Engagement, VIG=Vigor, DED=Dedication, ABS=Absorption, PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation, SS=Supervisor Support, CWS=Coworker Support, OS= Organizational Support, OC=Organizational Commitment.

As this study has two second-order construct namely employee engagement includes vigor, dedication, absorption, and organizational commitment includes affective, continuance and normative, it is deemed to measure the outer model with their first-order construct. Therefore, all the results of measurement model such as composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), cross loadings have been investigated based on the first-order construct.

4.7.1.1.3 Discriminant Validity

Contrary to the convergent validity, discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a specific latent variable is distinctive from other variables (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). But likely to the convergent validity, discriminant validity is also measured by AVE value of a particular latent variable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The present study investigates the discriminant validity by using the Fornell and Larcker (1981) method. They suggested that to put the square root of AVE of all the latent constructs on the correlation matrix diagonal, as shown in Table 4.12 with the bold value, and the square roots of AVE should be greater than the correlations within latent variables. The study results show that the square roots of AVE are greater than the correlation values among all the latent variables. Thus, it is confirmed that the latent study constructs are distinct from another construct and fulfill the criteria of discriminant validity.

Table 4.12
Results of Discriminant validity

	ABS	AC	CA	CWS	CC	DED	EP	JS	NC	OS	PF	R&R	SS	T&D	VIG
ABS	**0.730**														
AC	0.525	**0.734**													
CA	0.484	0.549	**0.793**												
CWS	0.180	0.311	0.196	**0.831**											
CC	0.426	0.619	0.317	0.167	**0.715**										
DED	0.506	0.634	0.569	0.350	0.382	**0.749**									
EP	0.426	0.485	0.465	0.312	0.295	0.533	**0.793**								
JS	0.456	0.492	0.438	0.190	0.273	0.426	0.422	**0.773**							
NC	0.438	0.652	0.432	0.224	0.548	0.459	0.402	0.397	**0.714**						
OS	0.332	0.409	0.426	0.279	0.253	0.418	0.381	0.302	0.395	**0.757**					
PF	0.402	0.508	0.480	0.295	0.284	0.501	0.455	0.410	0.379	0.305	**0.892**				
R&R	0.500	0.523	0.502	0.244	0.320	0.500	0.455	0.500	0.448	0.362	0.521	**0.750**			
SS	0.199	0.268	0.199	0.253	0.295	0.164	0.281	0.193	0.259	0.335	0.270	0.156	**0.860**		
T&D	0.443	0.524	0.481	0.192	0.289	0.491	0.458	0.385	0.406	0.309	0.481	0.522	0.120	**0.816**	
VIG	0.553	0.567	0.483	0.231	0.347	0.669	0.406	0.413	0.411	0.221	0.510	0.554	0.087	0.480	**0.714**

ABS=Absorption, AC=Affective Commitment, CA=Career Advancement, CWS=Co-worker Support, CC=Continuance Commitment, DED=Dedication, EP=Employee Participation, JS=Job Security, NC=Normative Commitment, OS=Organizational Support, PF=Performance Feedback, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, SS=Supervisor Support, T&D=Training & Development, VIG=Vigor.

Despite the widely used of Fornell-Larcker approach for doing discriminant validity, still it is considered as a weak method to determine discriminant validity of the constructs which calls to search an alternative that may able to address such weaknesses (Henseler et al., 2015). The major disadvantage of Fornell-Larcker approach is that it cannot give the further theoretical justification i.e. by the means of simulated study, this method cannot detect reliably the lack of discriminant validity in common research circumstances. Therefore, authors (Henseler et al., 2015) proposed a method called Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio of correlations to assess the discriminant validity. In this method, it is deemed to have a predetermined threshold value that needs to be compared with the correlations among the constructs. Determining the threshold value for HTMT method is a debatable issue where some authors (Henseler et al., 2015; Kline, 2011; Clark & Watson, 1995) suggested the threshold value of .85 while others (Teo et al., 2008; Gold et al., 2001) proposed a threshold value of .90. Table 4.13 shows that all the correlation values among the latent constructs are less than the suggested threshold value of .85. Hence, it is summarized that all the study constructs are distinct from each other and obtained the discriminant validity based on HTMT method as well.

Table 4.13
Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio criterion values

	ABS	AC	CA	CWS	CC	DED	EP	JS	NC	OS	PF	R&R	SS	T&D
ABS														
AC	0.666													
CA	0.648	0.661												
CWS	0.229	0.357	0.238											
CC	0.561	0.711	0.391	0.206										
DED	0.660	0.759	0.703	0.416	0.460									
EP	0.565	0.584	0.580	0.379	0.359	0.663								
JS	0.620	0.605	0.546	0.238	0.342	0.528	0.530							
NC	0.601	0.799	0.555	0.278	0.680	0.585	0.520	0.528						
OS	0.414	0.464	0.499	0.325	0.295	0.490	0.446	0.354	0.479					
PF	0.509	0.586	0.571	0.335	0.332	0.596	0.545	0.492	0.471	0.338				
R&R	0.628	0.599	0.596	0.281	0.376	0.592	0.542	0.610	0.563	0.406	0.596			
SS	0.247	0.306	0.233	0.288	0.347	0.207	0.332	0.225	0.323	0.387	0.308	0.177		
T&D	0.581	0.614	0.590	0.221	0.349	0.594	0.555	0.480	0.507	0.356	0.562	0.611	0.141	
VIG	0.751	0.691	0.604	0.281	0.431	0.846	0.514	0.534	0.552	0.263	0.620	0.677	0.132	0.598

ABS=Absorption, AC=Affective Commitment, CA=Career Advancement, CWS=Co-worker Support, CC=Continuance Commitment, DED=Dedication, EP=Employee Participation, JS=Job Security, NC=Normative Commitment, OS=Organizational Support, PF=Performance Feedback, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, SS=Supervisor Support, T&D=Training & Development, VIG=Vigor.

4.7.1.1.4 Establishment of the Second Order Constructs

The present study has used two such as, employee engagement and organizational commitment, second order latent constructs. Thus it is essential to investigate whether the first-order latent variables are able to be explained conceptually by their corresponding second order latent variables before entering to the path model analysis. Thus, the second order constructs are required to be demonstrated appropriately by their first order variables while these first order latent variables also need to have convergent and discriminant validity.
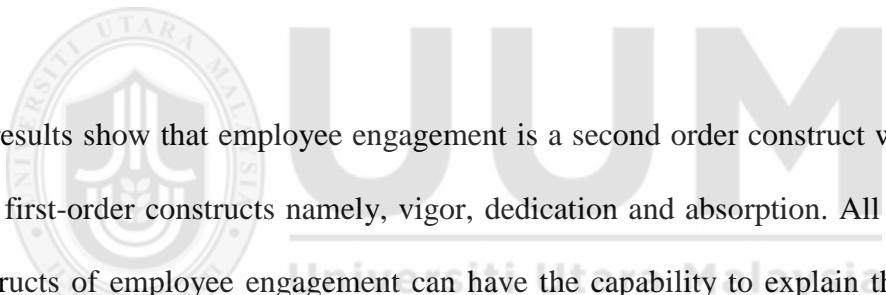
The results show that employee engagement is a second order construct which includes three first-order constructs namely, vigor, dedication and absorption. All the first order constructs of employee engagement can have the capability to explain their respective second order construct as the R^2 values (see in Table 4.15) are .588, .780 and .656 respectively. Moreover, it has also been found that all the first order constructs of employee engagement have obtained the Fornell-Larcker and HTMT criterion that confirmed the distinctiveness of the constructs.

In the case of organizational commitment, it also includes three first-order constructs such as affective, continuance and normative which have the R^2 values (see in Table 4.15) of .841, .701 and .656 respectively that indicate the ability of explaining the second order construct accurately.

171

Table 4.14
Establishing second order measurement model

Second Order Construct	First Order Construct	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	T-Value	P-Value	R-Square
Employee Engagement	Vigor	0.768	0.014	63.343	<.001	0.588
	Dedication	0.883	0.015	58.889	<.001	0.780
	Absorption	0.883	0.025	30.276	<.001	0.656
Organizational Commitment	Affective commitment	0.917	0.009	101.341	<.001	0.841
	Continuance commitment	0.837	0.024	35.527	<.001	0.701
	Normative commitment	0.810	0.026	31.517	<.001	0.656

4.7.2 Assessing the Significance of Structural (Inner) Path Model

After evaluating the measurement (outer) model into section 4.8.1, this section also evaluates the significance of structural (inner) path model. Henseler, Hubona and Ray (2016) stated that generally a structural path model is considered as theory based, and regarded to get the most important focus of the research questions and hypotheses. They further discussed about the structural path model specification by addressing two critical questions such as: (a) firstly, which constructs should be incorporated in the path model?, and (b) second one is, how effectively the constructs are theorized to be associated i.e. the directions and strengths of the relationships among or within the constructs? Particularly, the structural path model is determined by investigating the coefficients of the determination (R^2), then subsequently by the assessment of effect size (f^2) and followed by the evaluation of predictive relevance (Q^2) (Hair et al., 2014; Urbach & Ahlemann,

2010; Henseler et al., 2009). With the suggestions of scholars (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009), the present study has employed the standard bootstrap process by using 5000 samples and 383 cases. Finally, all the study hypotheses are being tested based on the path coefficient results are determined.

This study includes three structural path models that need to be examined on the basis of the research objectives. The first path model deals with the direct relationships between HRM practices such as performance feedback, rewards and recognition, training and development, job security, career advancement, employee participation and employee engagement. The second model deals with the mediation effect of organizational commitment on the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement. The third model examines the moderation effect of supervisor, co-worker and organizational support on the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement.

4.7.2.1 The Structural Path Model of HRM Practices and Employee Engagement

In order to assess the relationship between independent variables such as HRM practices (performance feedback, rewards and recognition, training and development, job security, career advancement, employee participation) and dependent variables namely employee engagement, PLS-SEM bootstrapping process has been conducted using 5000 samples (Hair et al., 2014). Figure 4.3 and similarly Table 4.15 exhibit the standardized path

coefficients (β), the standard error, T-values, P-values and the decisions taken based on the results for the theorized links between independents variables and dependent variable.

Table 4.15
Results of direct relationships between HRM practices and employee engagement (Hypotheses testing)

No	Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	T-Value	P-Value	Findings
H1a	CA -> EE	0.239	0.048	5.038	<0.001	Supported
H1b	EP -> EE	0.149	0.048	3.126	0.002	Supported
H1c	JS -> EE	0.113	0.042	2.691	0.007	Supported
H1d	PF -> EE	0.152	0.040	3.815	<0.001	Supported
H1e	R&R -> EE	0.208	0.048	4.380	<0.001	Supported
H1f	T&D -> EE	0.148	0.047	3.151	0.002	Supported

EE=Employee Engagement, PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation.

The results in Table 4.15 indicate that all the six direct hypothesized relationships between HRM practices and employee engagement are significant and thus all the six hypotheses are supported. In brief, the positive significant links that are being supported in the present study includes, (i) career advancement and employee engagement (β=.239, p<.001) supporting H1a; (ii) employee participation and employee engagement (β=.149, p<.01) confirmed H1b; (iii) job security and employee engagement (β=.113; p<.01) that gives supports for H1c; (iv) performance feedback and employee engagement (β=.152, p<.001) confirming H1d; (v) rewards & recognition and employee engagement (β=.208, p<.001) supporting H1e, and (vi) training & development and employee engagement (β=.148, p<.05) confirming H1f correspondingly.

174
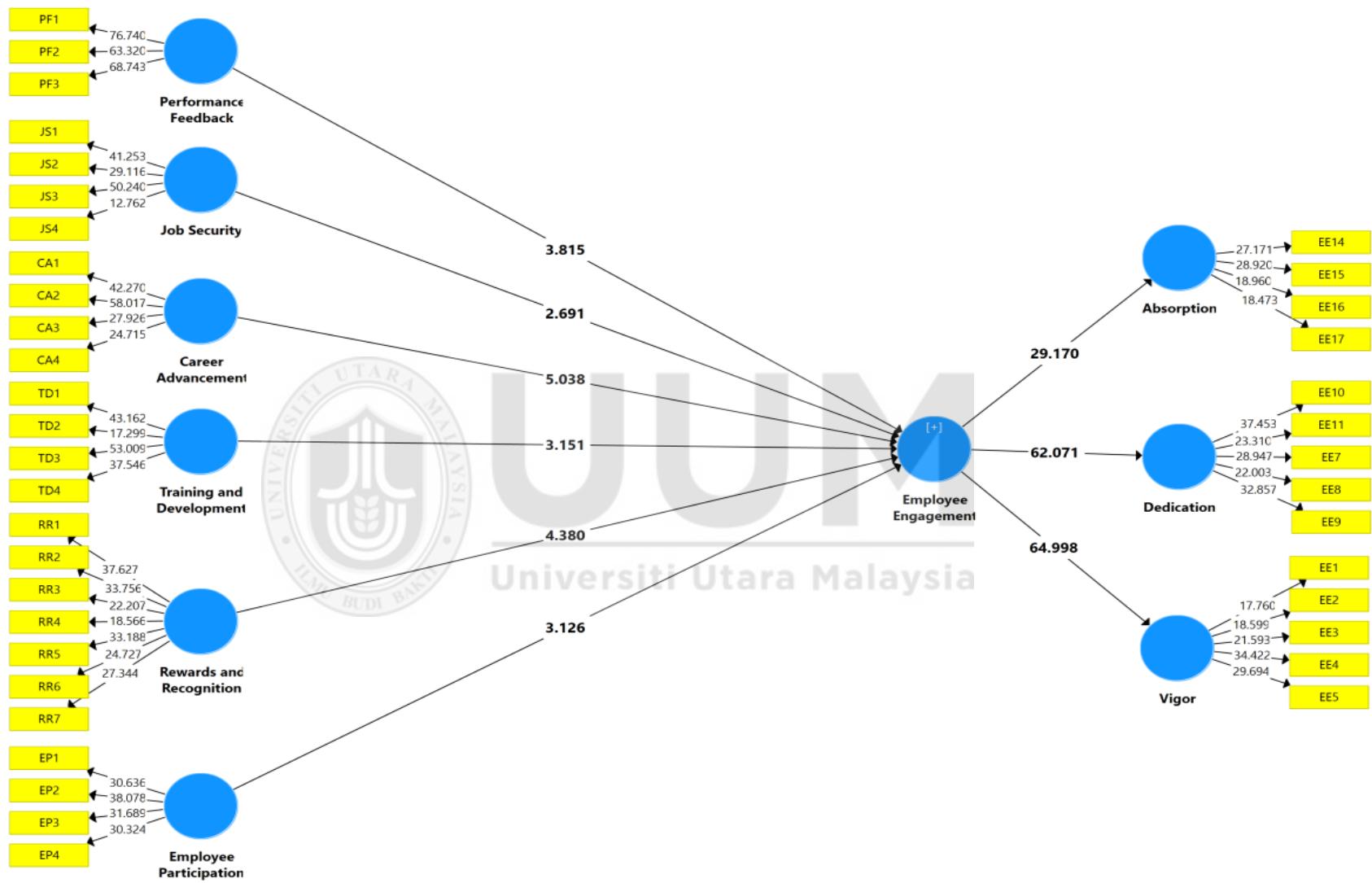
Figure 4.3
PLS bootstrapping for HRM practices and employee engagement

4.7.2.2 Mediation Test

Likely to the first structural path model, the second model is also analyzed by using the PLS-SEM bootstrapping process with 5000 samples to test the mediation effect on the link between HRM practices and employee engagement as Hair et al. (2014) stated that the bootstrapping procedure is the appropriately suited for the PLS-SEM mediation testing. The reasons for using bootstrapping approach against other methods is that it doesn't make assumptions of either the variables distributions or sampling distributions in the statistics and the added advantage is that to apply for a small sample size with high confidence. In addition, bootstrapping process for mediation testing reveals a higher statistical power comparing to the Sobel test which exhibit a poor statistical power for applying in a small sample (Hair et al., 2014). Moreover, the bootstrapping mediation test approach gives a standard error of path coefficient whereas the other approach like Baron and Kenny (1986) does not give any standard error (Hayes & Preacher, 2010).

To facilitate the testing of mediation effects using PLS-SEM bootstrapping method, this study examines the path coefficient for path "**a**" and path "**b**" where the path "**a**" exhibits the relationship between independent to mediating variables and path "**b**" represents the links between mediator to dependent variables. For calculating the t-values of mediating effects, the formula of Hyes and Preacher (2010) is being employed. Lastly, the VAF (variance accounted for) value has been calculate to get the extent of mediating impact on a proposed relationship. In fact, the VAF value estimates the extent of variances of

176

dependent variable(s) that directly is explained by independent variables and, how much the intended construct's variances are explained by its indirect links through mediator. Thus, VAF is simply calculated by the amount of the mediation (indirect) effect in related to total effect (indirect effect + direct effect).

$$VAF = \frac{Indirect\ Effect\ (a*b)}{Total\ Effect\ (c)}$$

$$= \frac{Indirect\ Effect\ (a*b)}{Indirect\ Effect\ (a*b) + Direct\ Effect\ (c')}$$

Figure 4.4 shows the bootstrapping results of the mediating effect of organizational commitment on the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement. In Table 4.16, it has been found that the entire Path "**a**" relationships between HRM practices and organizational commitment are statistically significant and path "b" relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement is also significant. Table 4.16 also shows the direct path (ć) relationships between HRM practices and employee engagement in the presence of organizational commitment and all the hypothesized paths are statistically significant.

Table 4.16
Results of structural path model of indirect effects

Paths	Hypothesized Paths	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	T-Value	P-Value
Path a (IV to Mediator)	CA -> OC	0.198	0.053	3.778	<0.001
	EP -> OC	0.138	0.051	2.696	0.007
	JS -> OC	0.149	0.05	2.987	0.003
	PF -> OC	0.108	0.06	1.792	0.073
	R&R -> OC	0.144	0.058	2.472	0.013
	T&D -> OC	0.148	0.063	2.327	0.020
Path b (Mediator to DV)	OC -> EE	0.282	0.047	5.98	<0.001
Path c' (IV to Mediator DV)	CA -> EE	0.182	0.05	3.607	<0.001
	EP -> EE	0.111	0.045	2.458	0.014
	JS -> EE	0.072	0.042	1.7	0.089
	PF -> EE	0.123	0.042	2.921	0.004
	R&R -> EE	0.166	0.045	3.646	<0.001
	T&D -> EE	0.107	0.043	2.462	0.014

EE=Employee Engagement, PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation, OC=Organizational Commitment

To estimate the size of the indirect effect, VAF (variance accounted for) value has been calculated means that to what extent the variances of employee engagement can be explained directly by HRM practices and, how much of that particular variances can be explained by the indirect links through organizational commitment. Table 4.17 shows the results of VAF along with t-values and standard error. According to Hair et al. (2014), the VAF value is below 20% exhibits that there is no mediation effect, VAF value is above 80% considers full mediation, whilst the partial mediation arise when the VAF value belongs to higher than 20% but less than 80%. Table 4.18 exhibits that the mediation effect of organizational commitment on the link between career advancement and employee engagement is significant (β=.056, p<.01) with a VAF value 23.48% which is greater than

178

20% but less than 80% depicts partial mediation of organizational commitment on career advancement and employee engagement relationship (partially support H3a). Similarly, employee participation and employee engagement relationship (β=.039, p<.05) is also partially mediated by organizational commitment (partially support H3b) as the VAF value is 26% that is higher than 20%. The indirect relationship of job security and employee engagement (β=.042, p<.05) is statistically significant at .05 significance level though it is partially mediated as the VAF value (VAF=36.85%) is less than 80% (partially supported H3c). Lastly, the TD->OC->EE relationship (β=.042, p<.05) is also partially mediated (partially supported H3f) with a VAF value of 28.06%.

However, there is no mediation has been found for PF -> OC -> EE relationship (β=.030, p<.10) though the link is significant, it carries a VAF value (19.85%) is less than 20% (H3d, not supported). Similarly, organizational commitment cannot mediate relationship between rewards & recognition and employee engagement (β=.041, p<.05) in spite of having a significant linkage, the VAF value (VAF=19.655) (H3e, not supported) does not attain the threshold value for mediation. In brief, among all the six indirect paths, only four relationships namely, between career advancement, employee participation, job security, training & development and employee engagement are partially mediated through organizational commitment. The other two relationships between performance feedback, rewards & recognition and employee engagement are not found to have mediation effect.

Table 4.17
Results of mediation test of organizational commitment

Relationships	Path a*b	Std. Error	T-Value	P-Value	VAF	Decision
CA -> OC -> EE	0.056	0.017	3.345	0.001	23.477	Partially mediation
EP -> OC -> EE	0.039	0.017	2.324	0.021	25.959	Partially mediation
JS -> OC -> EE	0.042	0.017	2.423	0.016	36.852	Partially mediation
PF -> OC -> EE	0.030	0.018	1.654	0.099	19.847	No mediation
R&R -> OC -> EE	0.041	0.018	2.299	0.022	19.655	No mediation
T&D -> OC -> EE	0.042	0.019	2.200	0.028	28.060	Partially mediation

EE=Employee Engagement, PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation, OC=Organizational Commitment
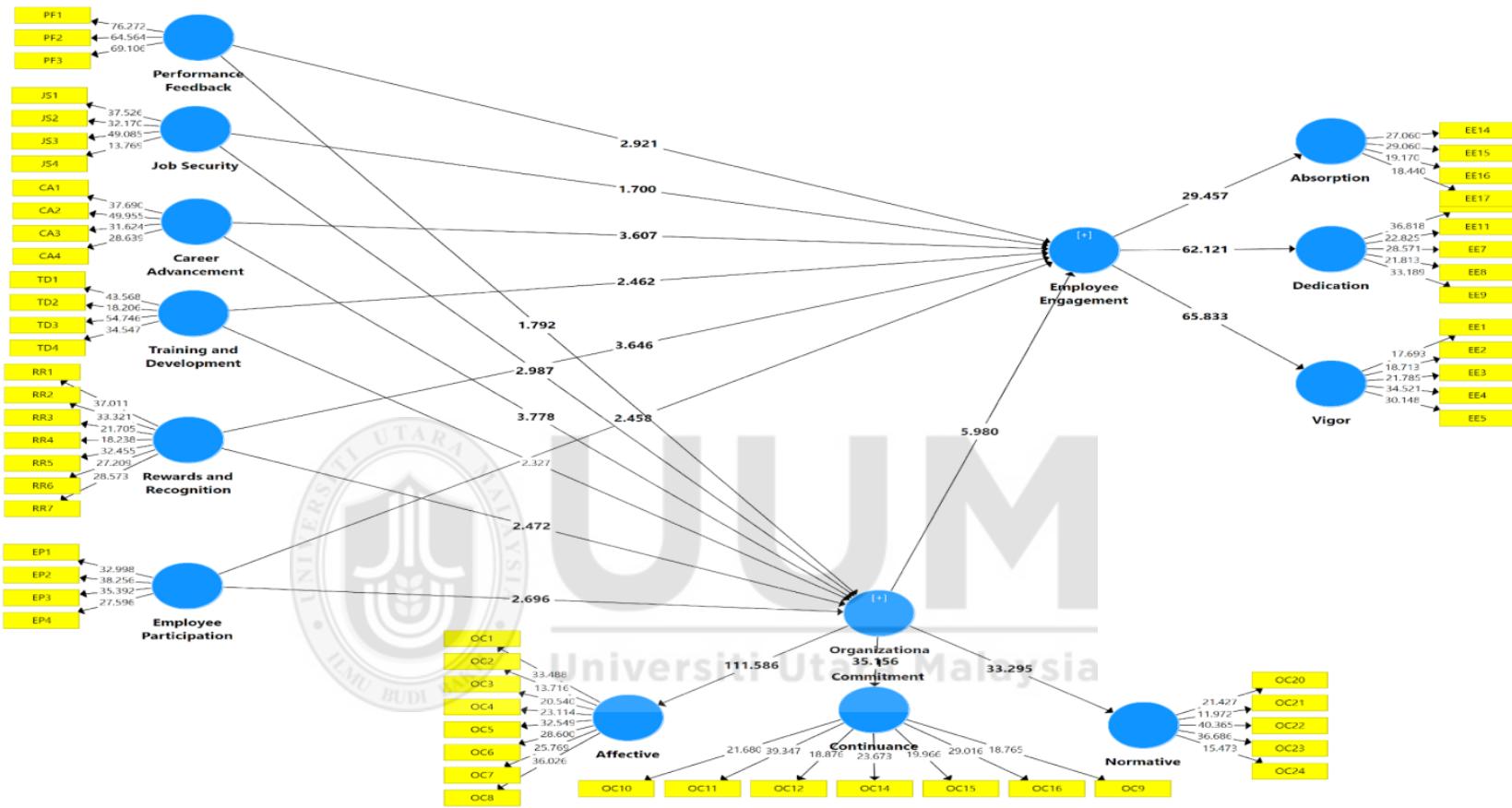
Figure 4.4
PLS-SEM bootstrapping indirect relationship (mediating relationship)

4.7.2.3 Moderation Test

The last model of this study is to investigate the moderation effect of supervisor, co-worker and organizational support on the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement using PLS-SEM bootstrapping process through Smart PLS 3.0 version software. Figure 4.5, Figure 4.6 and Figure 4.7 show the PLS-SEM bootstrapping moderating effect results of supervisor, co-worker and organizational support on organizational commitment and employee engagement linkage respectively. The results in Table 4.18 illustrate that supervisor support has the moderating effect on the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement as the interaction effect of SS*OC is significant (β=.139, p<.01) confirmed that H5a is supported. On the other hand, co-worker support cannot create any moderating effect on the hypothesized relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement. In fact, result shows (see in Table 4.18) an insignificant interaction effect of CWS*OC on that particular link (β=.026, p=.631) suggested that the H5b is not supported. Finally, the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement is moderated by the organizational support as the interaction effect of OS*OC is statistically significant (β=.221, p<.001) and thus confirms that H5c is supported. Precisely, among the three moderating variables only two variables namely supervisor support and organizational support have the moderating effect on the relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement but co-worker support does not have any effect.

Table 4.18

Results of moderation test of supervisor support, co-worker support and organizational support

Hypothesis	Path	Path Coefficient	Std. Error	T-Value	P-Value	Decision
H5a	OC -> EE	0.587	0.054	10.825	<0.001	**Supported**
	SS -> EE	0.001	0.054	0.018	0.985	
	SS*OC -> EE	0.139	0.051	2.712	0.007	
H5b	OC -> EE	0.606	0.052	11.678	<0.001	**Not Supported**
	CWS -> EE	0.143	0.051	2.798	0.005	
	CWS*OC -> EE	0.026	0.055	0.480	0.631	
H5c	OC -> EE	0.478	0.049	9.672	<0.001	**Supported**
	OS -> EE	0.175	0.048	3.635	<0.001	
	OS*OC -> EE	0.221	0.038	5.852	<0.001	

EE=Employee Engagement, SS=Supervisor Support, CWS=Coworker Support, OS= Organizational Support, OC=Organizational Commitment
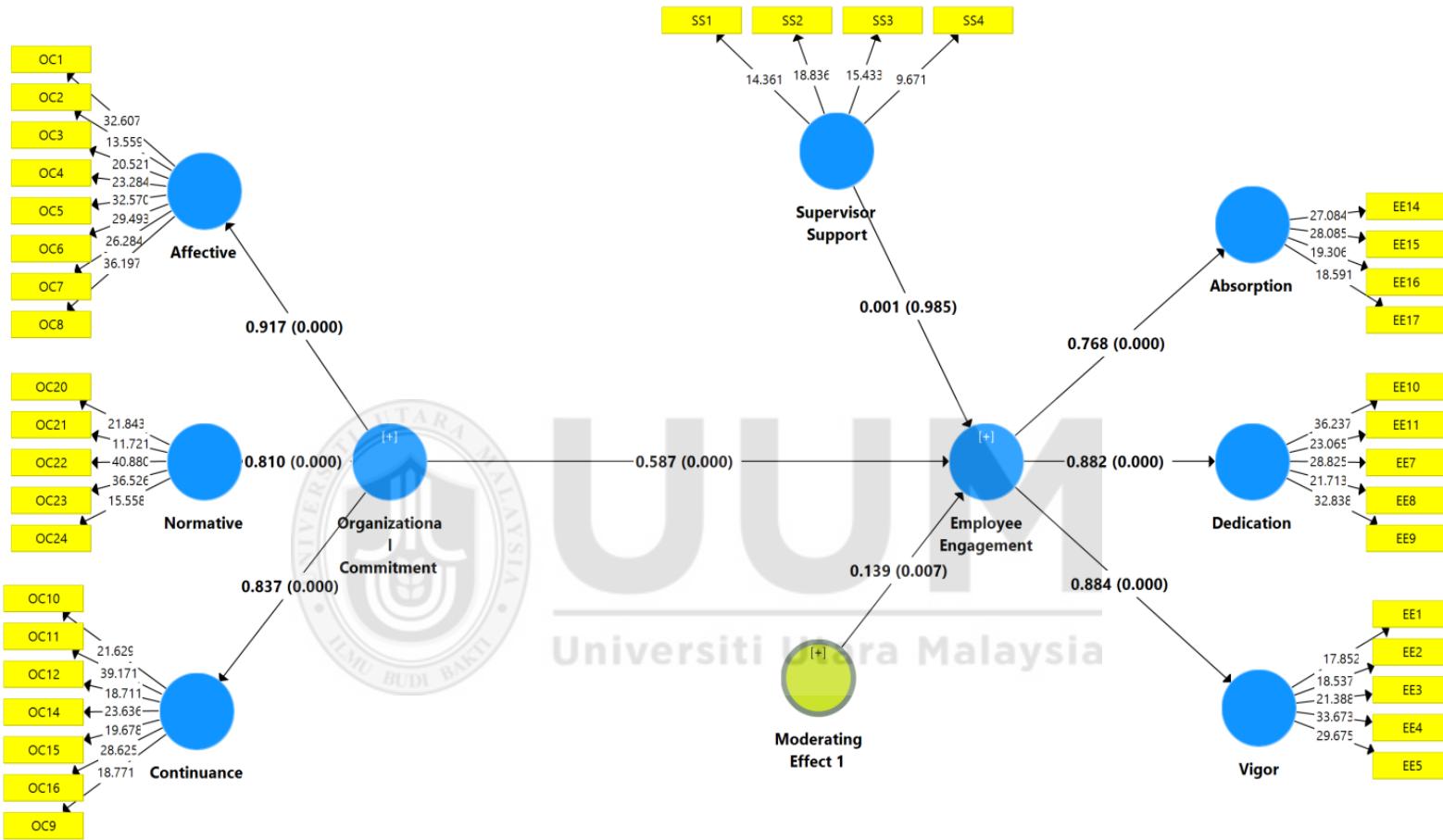
Figure 4.5
*PLS-SEM bootstrapping moderator (supervisor support)*
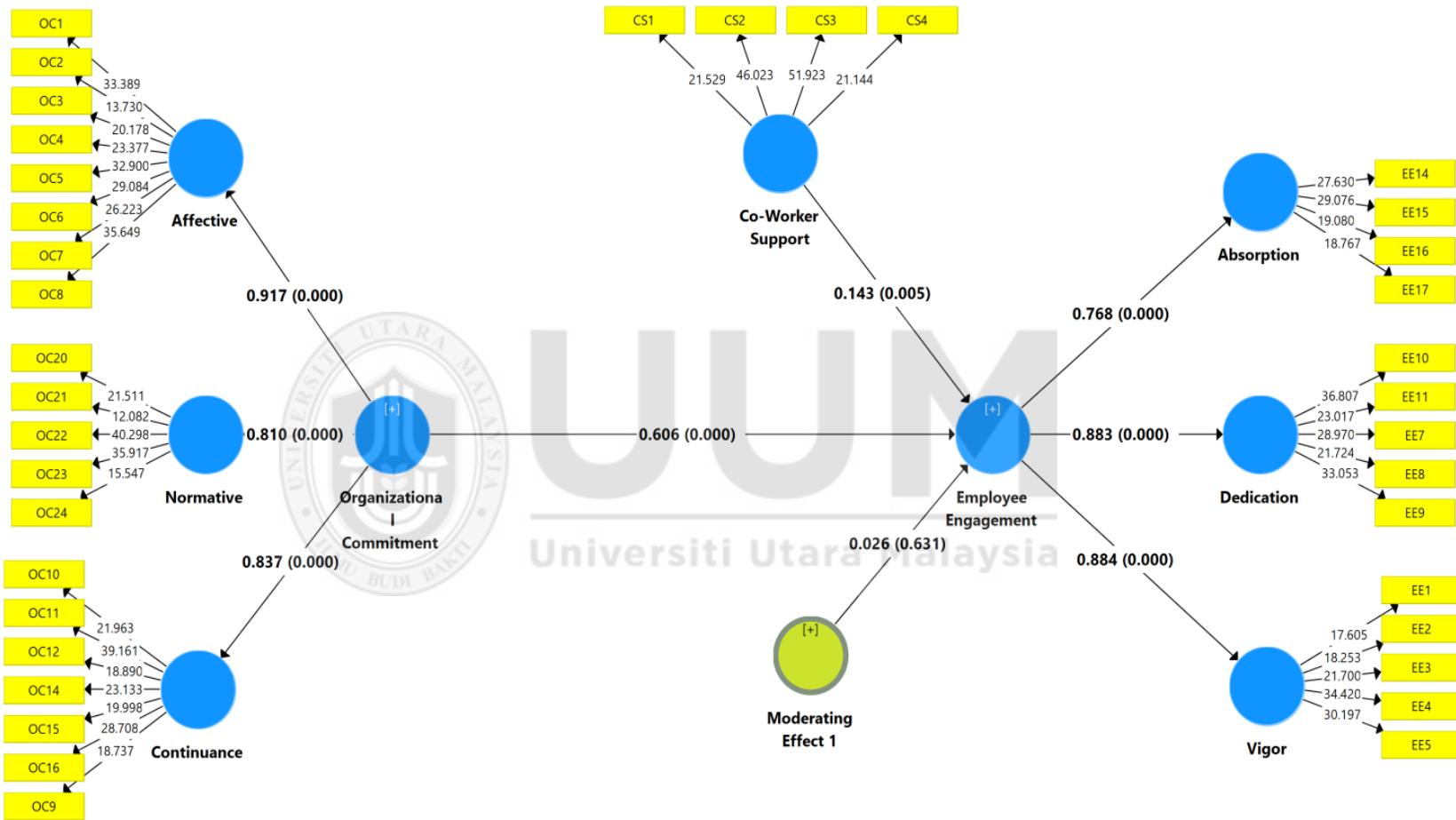
Figure 4.6
*PLS-SEM bootstrapping moderator (co-worker support)*
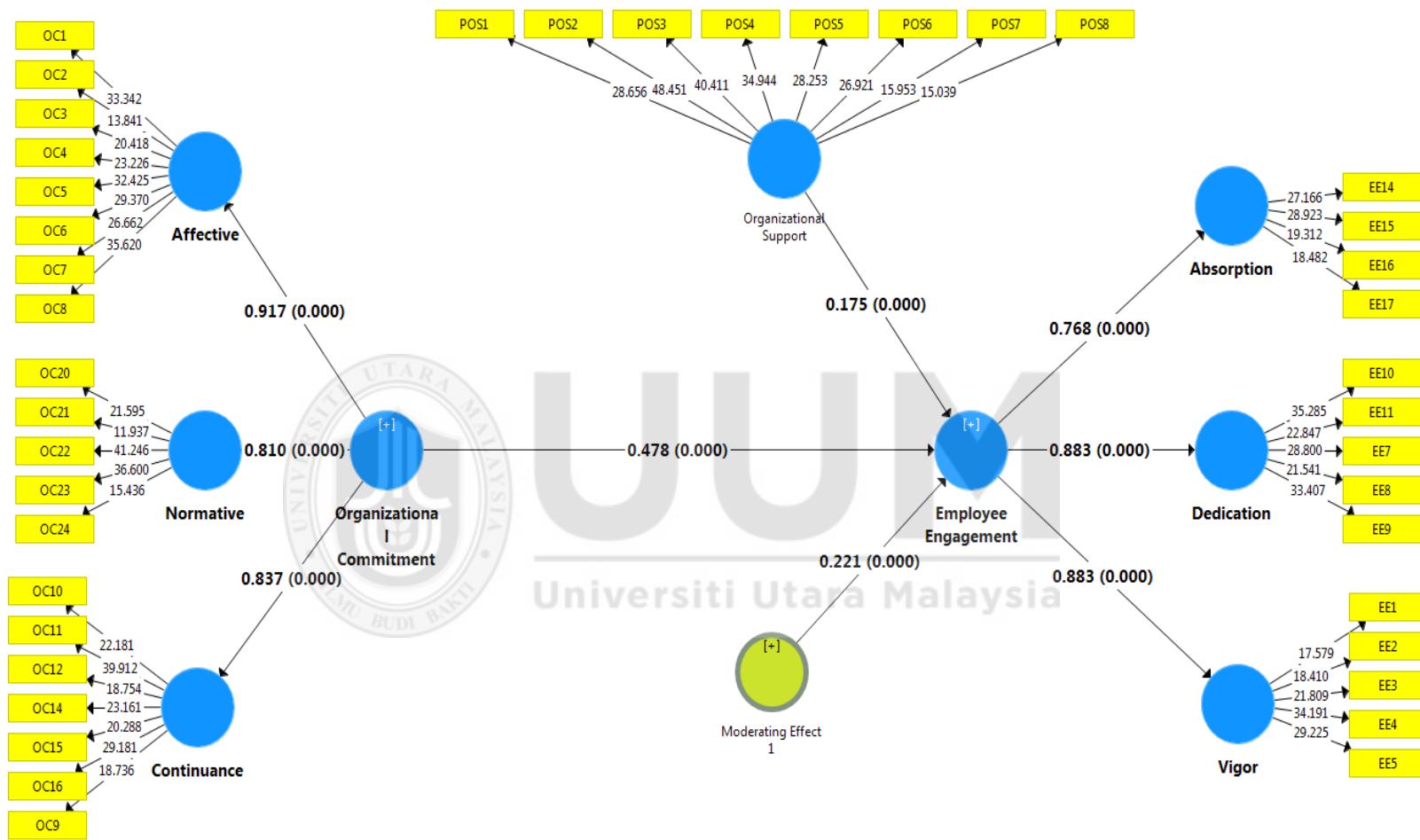
Figure 4.7
PLS-SEM bootstrapping moderator (organizational support)

4.7.2.4 Moderation Plots

Considering the definition of moderation suggests that a variable that may modify the directions and/or strengthen the relationship between a predictor or independent and a criterion or dependent variable is called moderator (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In fact, in moderating effect, the slope of predictor is no longer be constant rather it depends linearly on the level of moderator (Henseler & Fassott, 2010). Moreover, Hayes (2013) stated that visual representation for interaction effect is an excellent way to understand moderator. Thus, this study adapts Microsoft excel format suggested by Dawson (2014) to make visual presentation of moderating effect. From the excel template, the two significant moderating effects such as SS and OS are illustrated as shown in Figure 4.8 and Figure 4.9.
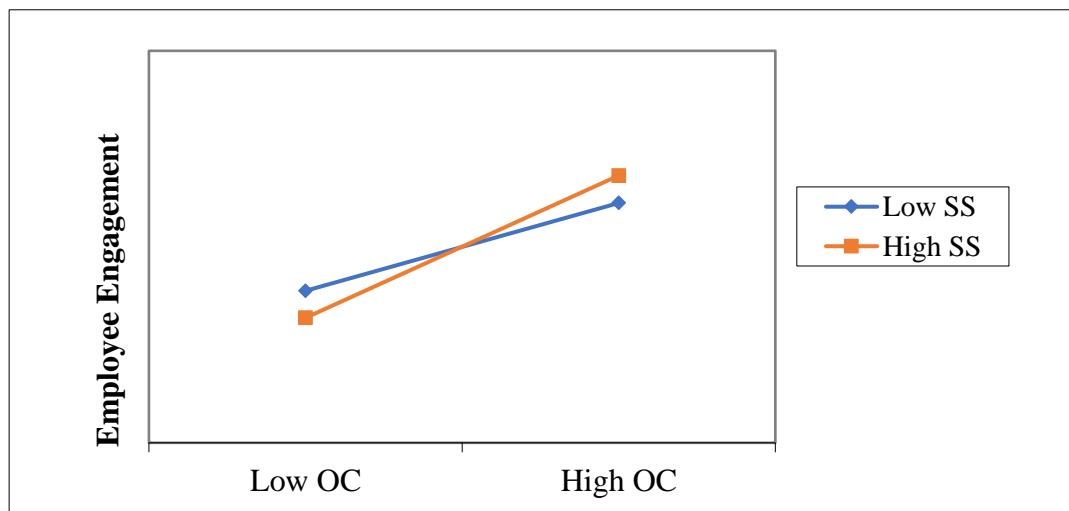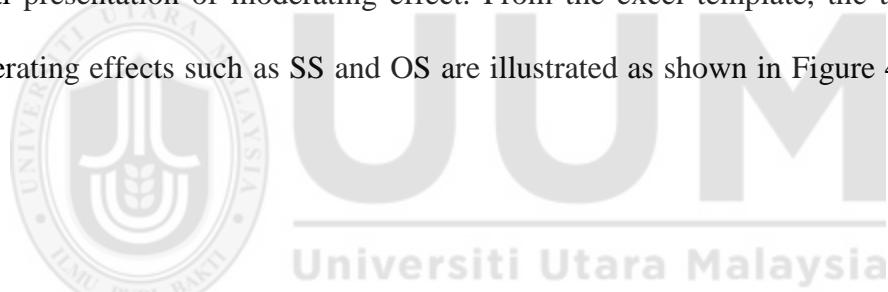

Figure 4.8
*Visual Presentation of moderator effect (supervisor support)*
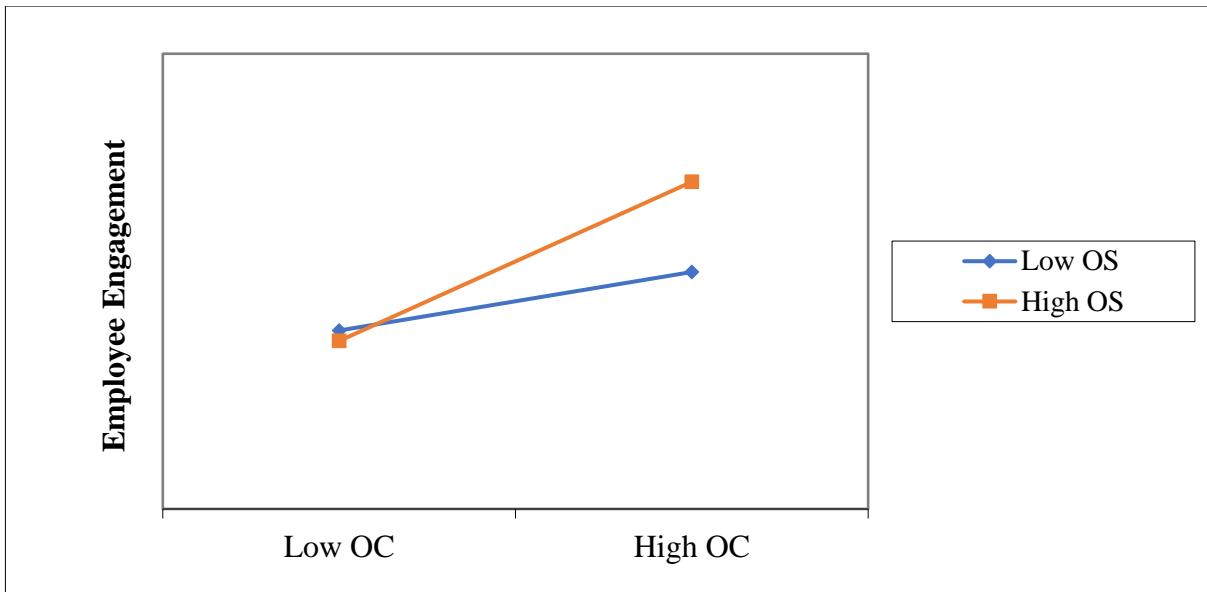
Figure 4.9
Visual Presentation of moderator effect (organizational support)

In Microsoft excel template, the coefficient value of predictor, moderator and product term is inserted to get graphical presentation of moderation. It is found that the positive relationship between OC and employee engagement has been strengthened with the presence of supervisor and organizational support.

4.8   The Prediction Quality of the Model

The path model's quality of prediction is evaluated by observing the R^2 determination along with its effect size (f^2) and the cross validated redundancy (Q^2) which is being discussed in the following sections consecutively.

4.8.1 Coefficient of Determination (R²)

To assess the structural path model, coefficient of determination is the most critical criteria to use for all the endogenous latent constructs popularly is known as determination of R^2 (Hair et al., 2014). The R^2 value refers to that how much total variances of exogenous variables can be explained by its endogenous variables all together (Cohen, 1988). Though, there is no best generalized value for R^2, it is perceived that the higher the R^2 value will have a larger percentage of variances to be accounted for. However, scholars (Falk & Miller, 1992) suggested that R^2 of .10 is considered as a least acceptable level. Again, Cohen (1988) categorized the R^2 values for endogenous variables into three different criteria. He recommended that the determination value of R^2 with .02 is deemed as weak, R^2 with .13 is considered as moderate, and the value with .26 is regarded as substantial correspondingly. Alternatively, scholars like Chin (1998) provided the values for R^2 i.e. the value of .67 as substantial, .33 as moderate, and .19 as weak respectively while using PLS-SEM path modeling approach. Therefore, from the above classification, as this study is using PLS-SEM method as its major statistical analysis, the suggestions cited by Chin (1998) for R^2 values are more appropriate for this study.

Table 4.19
Results of R² of Endogenous Variables

Latent Constructs	R² Value	Evaluation Criteria By Chin (1998)
Employee Engagement	0.632	Moderate
Organizational Commitment	0.436	Moderate

Table 4.19 exhibits the total variances of two endogenous variables namely, employee engagement and organizational commitment. Results indicate that all the six HRM practices (independent variables) along with organizational commitment (mediating variable) can explain 63% variances to employee engagement (dependent variable). In addition, the six HRM practices altogether can have the contribution to explain the variances of 44% in organizational commitment. Thus, it is suggested that both the endogenous latent constructs such as employee engagement and organizational commitment can be accounted for moderate variances by their exogenous latent constructs.

4.8.2 Assessment of Effect Size (f²)

Having evaluation of the determination of R² for all the endogenous latent constructs i.e. employee engagement and organizational commitment, the next evaluation criteria is to assess the effect size (f²) as recommended by Hair et al. (2014). Assessment of effect size (f²) is needed to verify whether the omission of a particular construct from the research model it may have a considerable impact on its dependent constructs (Hair et al., 2013). For calculating f² value, Cohen (1988) recommended that the value of f² ranging in between .02 to .14 considered small effect size, value ranging in between .15 to .34 regarded medium effect size, and value within .35 and above treated as large effect size while f² value below .02 is considered as no effect size. The effect size formula is shown below,

$$R^2 = \frac{R^2 included - R^2 excluded}{1 - R^2 included}$$

Where, R² included depicts that the R² value of a particular endogenous latent construct when a particular exogenous latent construct is included while R² excluded exhibits the value of R² when the corresponding endogenous variable is omitted from the model.

Table 4.20 exhibits the effect size results among all the exogenous and endogenous variables. On the basis of Cohen (1988) study, results show that among all the exogenous variables for its endogenous latent construct i.e. employee engagement only three namely, career advancement, rewards & recognition and organizational commitment are showing a medium effect size on employee engagement. Similarly, for the endogenous variable of organizational commitment only career advancement, job security and training & development are showing medium effect size. Though all the endogenous latent constructs have been found as statistically significant to their exogenous latent constructs, effect size results revealed low effect size for some of the endogenous variables. It is essential to mention that Cohen (1988) argued, the exogenous variables which are recorded as low effect size, it is not really mean that those variables are statistically not important for the model.

Table 4.20
Effect Size (f²) of Endogenous of Latent Variables

Relationships	f²	Effect Size
CA -> EE	0.182	Medium
EP -> EE	0.111	Small
JS -> EE	0.072	Small
PF -> EE	0.123	Small
R&R -> EE	0.166	Medium
T&D -> EE	0.107	Small
OC->EE	0.282	Medium
CA -> OC	0.198	Medium
EP -> OC	0.138	Small
JS -> OC	0.149	Medium
PF -> OC	0.108	Small
R&R -> OC	0.144	Small
T&D -> OC	0.148	Medium

EE=Employee Engagement, PF=Performance Feedback, JS=Job Security, CA=Career Advancement, T&D=Training & Development, R&R=Rewards & Recognition, EP=Employee Participation, OC=Organizational Commitment.

4.8.3 Assessment of Predictive Relevance (Q²)

After successful assessment of effect size for all the endogenous variables, this study also use the Stone-Geisser's method to determine the value of predictive relevance (Q²) of study model by using blindfolding (Stone, 1974; Geisser, 1974). The blindfolding approach is simply using of sample re use process through which calculating the cross-validated predictive relevance generally known as Stone-Geisser's value of Q² (Stone, 1974; Geisser, 1974). Scholars (Hair et al., 2014; Chin, 1998) recommended that when calculating Q² for endogenous latent variables of a particular model, the predictive

relevance value should be greater than zero (Q²>0). Thus, the blindfolding process has been conducted for determining the value of cross-validated redundancy.

Table 4.21 illustrates that the predictive relevance (Q²) for all the endogenous latent variables are more than zero attained the rule of thumb supporting that the model has cross-validated redundancy (Chin, 1998; Henseler, et al., 2009).

Table 4.21
*Results of Q² of Endogenous Variables*

Latent Constructs	SSO	SSE	Q² (=1-SSE/SSO)
Employee Engagement	5,362.00	4,166.62	0.223
Organizational Commitment	7,660.00	6,493.90	0.152

4.8.4 Assessment of Goodness-of-Fit Index (GoF)

Unlikely to the CB-SEM approach, PLS-SEM method does not have sufficient global standard to evaluate the goodness of model fit. Typically, this lacking is regarded as a major disadvantage of using PLS-SEM method (Hair et al., 2012). It is important to mention that the word "fit" may differ from CB-SEM approach to PLS-SEM approach. In CB-SEM method, the logic of fit depends on the covariance matrix which appears from the contradictions of practical (empirical) and hypothesized model, while, PLS-SEM gives concentration on the contradict among the observed (in case of manifested

variables), or approximated (in terms of latent constructs) values of the endogenous latent

constructs and the values forecasted by the study model in question (Hair et al., 2014).

The present study estimates the GoF value to ascertain the validity of the PLS-SEM model

as suggested by scholars (Tenenhaus, Amato & Esposito Vinzi, 2004) that he GoF value

can be calculated to compare the performances of the model. The following formula has

been used to calculate the GoF value provided by Wetzels et al. (2009). They also

suggested the baseline for GoF value of .10, .25 and .36 is considered small, medium and

large. Therefore, this study has got the GoF value of .566 by using the given formula

indicates that the research model has large GoF supporting sufficient PLS-SEM model

validity.
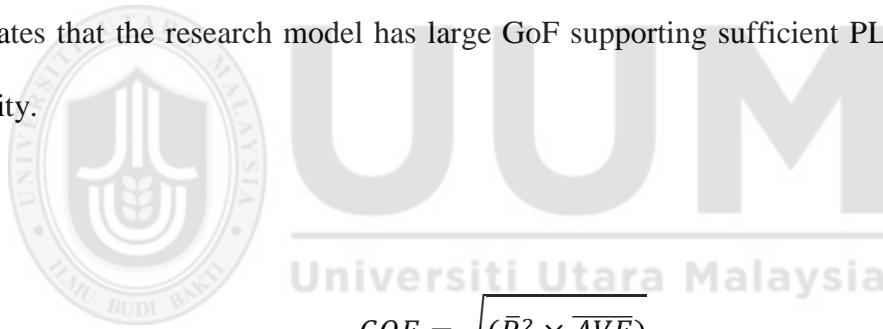
$$GOF = \sqrt{(\bar{R}^2 \times \overline{AVE})}$$

$$GOF = \sqrt{(.534 \times .60)}$$

$$GOF = .56$$

4.9 Summary of Study Hypotheses Testing

Table 4.22 summarizes all the hypothesized relationships those are being tested in this

study along with their results based on the testing using different statistical methods.

Table 4.22
Summary of Testing of Hypotheses

Hypotheses		Statement of Hypotheses	Decision
Hypothesis 1a	:	Career Advancement is positively related to Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 1b	:	Employee Participation is positively related to Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 1c	:	Job security is positively associated with Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 1d	:	Performance Feedback is positively related to Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 1e	:	Rewards & Recognition is positively related to Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 1f	:	Training & Development is positively associated with Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 2a	:	Career Advancement is positively related to Organizational Commitment	Supported
Hypothesis 2b	:	Employee Participation is positively related to organizational commitment	Supported
Hypothesis 2c	:	Job Security is positively associated with Organizational Commitment	Supported
Hypothesis 2d	:	Performance Feedback is positively related to Organizational Commitment	Supported
Hypothesis 2e	:	Rewards & Recognition is positively related to Organizational Commitment.	Supported
Hypothesis 2f	:	Training & Development is positively associated with Organizational Commitment.	Supported
Hypothesis 3	:	Organizational Commitment is positively associated with Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 4a	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Career Advancement and Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 4b	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Employee Participation and Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 4c	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Job Security and Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 4d	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Performance Feedback and Employee Engagement.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 4e	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Reward & Recognition and Employee Engagement.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 4f	:	Organizational Commitment mediates the relationship between Training & Development and Employee Engagement.	Supported
Hypothesis 5a	:	Supervisor Support moderates the relationship between Organizational Commitment and Employee Engagement.	Supported

195

| Hypothesis 5b | : | Co-worker support moderates the relationship between Organizational Commitment and Employee Engagement. | Not Supported |
| Hypothesis 5c | : | Organizational support moderates the relationship between Organizational Commitment and Employee Engagement. | Supported |

4.11   Chapter Summary

In conclusion, this chapter provides a comprehensive explanation about all the statistical tools that are performed to test the study hypotheses. Particularly, this section highlighted the process of data screening like, assessment of normality, detecting the outliers. It also explains the preliminary data analysis such as, muticollinearity testing, non-response bias test, test of common method variance. In addition, this section discusses about the tools and results of analyzing measurement model in where reliability and validity has been established of all the latent constructs. Furthermore, structural path models are assessed through detail explanations of PLS-SEM significance of path coefficients, effect size (f^2), determination of R^2, predictive relevance for all the path models in this study. Finally, this chapter is ended by giving a detail summary of the testing of study hypotheses along with the decisions.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1   Introduction

This been the final chapter of this study giving focuses fully on the detail discussions about all the study findings in accordance with the research objectives, research questions along with the developed hypothesized relationships based on literature review. In addition, this chapter discusses about the theoretical, practical/managerial and methodological implications of this study. Furthermore, it also identifies the limitations and makes suggestions and recommendations for future study. Finally, this ends with the concluding remarks of the study.
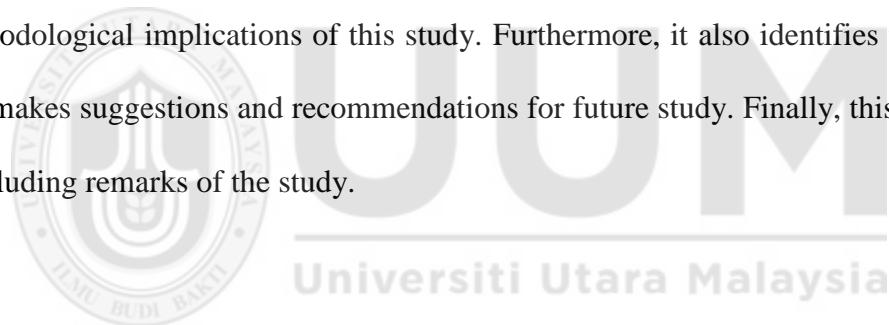
5.2   Synopsis of Research Findings

This study investigates the direct relationships of six HRM practices such as career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development with employee engagement in the context of banking sector employees in Bangladesh. In addition, this study examines the mediation effect of OC on the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement. Furthermore, this study also investigates the moderation role of SS, CWS and OS on the link between OC and employee engagement. This study employs a cluster sampling method to collect

data from banking employees of Bangladesh. A self-reported questionnaire is given to employees to give their opinion on a 5-point likert-scale.

Results obtained from self-reported method along with the use of PLS-SEM path modeling approach statistically support that all the six HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) have the significant positive association with employee engagement. In the case of mediation role OC, among six linkages of HRM practices and employee engagement, only four relationships namely, career advancement, employee participation, job security, training & development with employee engagement are mediated through OC. Study results further confirms the moderation effect of SS and OS on the positive relationship between OC and employee engagement. On the whole, results of PLS-SEM method give statistical significant support for most of the hypothesized relationships of this study. More specifically, findings reveal that all the thirteen (13) hypothesized direct relationships between exogenous and endogenous latent constructs are statistically positive and significant. Results further reveal that among the six initial hypothesized indirect (mediation) links, four (4) links are supported statistically.

Lastly, out of three initial hypothesized moderation effects, only two hypotheses have the statistical support which confirms by the study sample of 383 banking employees in Bangladesh. In brief, out of total twenty two (22) hypotheses, nineteen (19) hypotheses

are found statistically significant whilst, contrary to the remaining three (3) hypotheses are found statistically not supported.

5.3   Discussions

Based on the research hypotheses along with the PLS-SEM path modeling, this section gives a comprehensive discussion considering all the hypothesized relationships among the study variables. It includes the discussions about (i) the relationships between HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) and employee engagement; (ii) the mediation role of OC on the linkage between HRM practices and employee engagement, and (iii) the moderation effect of SS, CWS and OS on OC-employee engagement linkage.

5.3.1 Relationship between HRM practices and Employee Engagement

The primary research question of this study is concerned with positive direct relationships between HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) and employee engagement. Thus, this section will discuss each of the HRM practices separately in relation to employee engagement so that to have obvious understandings of which

particular HRM practices are mostly important predictors of employee engagement. Employee engagement is defined as the employees' positive, fulfill and position of mind towards their work with full of energy, enthusiasm and concentration (Schaufeli et al., 2002). It is, in fact, the employees' feelings of capabilities of doing their assigned tasks more effectively as they are vigorous and dedicated towards their job. This study derives six direct and positive hypotheses and tests on the relationships between HRM practices and employee engagement.

5.3.1.1 Career Advancement and Employee Engagement

Career advancement is found to have a significant positive relationship with employee engagement. This study finding is in line with the suggestions of Chen (2017), Van De Voorde and Beijer (2015) and Alias et al. (2014) that career advancement as HRM practice can positively improves the level of employee engagement if adequately introduced and properly managed. In addition, study result suggests that career advancement is a one of the vital HRM practices, hence it needs to be prioritized and be provided adequate focus by the management to boost employee engagement. Findings support that if banks introduce a proper career development opportunity for their employees, they feel that their organizations are concerned about their well-being that make them more engaged at their work. In fact, when employees perceive that they have bright career opportunities in their organizations, it reduces the anxiety which in result high level of engagement. Additionally, Alias et al. (2014) stated that in recent time, organizations are creating career

opportunity not only to support employees by developing their career but to enhance their engagement level towards their work. This result is also in line with the argument of SET (Blau, 1964) suggested a reciprocal relationship among two parties (employee and employer or management). More specifically, the study finding reveals that employees particularly in banking sector give more emphasis on their career planning opportunities, and when given they reciprocate by enhancing the engagement.

5.3.1.2 Employee Participation and Employee Engagement

As predicted, employee participation is found to have a positive statistically significant association with employee engagement among the banking employees in Bangladesh. This significant finding is relevant with prior studies (Cooke et al., 2016; Benn et al., 2015; Marescaux et al., 2012). Scholar like Cheung and Wu (2011) argues that employee participation as HRM practices is a very crucial predictor to enhance employees' positive behavioral outcome like engagement. In fact, if employees will be involved in organizational decision-making process, they will understand the extent to which they need to build competence and aptitude in order to achieve organizational goals (Kingir & Mesci, 2010). For example, when banks allow their employees to take part on decision-making discussion, they will have more specific guidelines to do their work that, in turn help banks to be competitive. Moreover, participatory decision-making process create belongingness and congenial environment between management and employees that really reduce the work pressure and enhance the level of employee engagement. Cooke et

al. (2016) conducted a study among banking sector employees in China, and illustrated that allowing employees to participate in decision making process enhances their creativity and engagement in doing their job. It is, therefore, suggested that when employees perceive that they are imperative to the organization and they have the right to take part in the management decision making process, they will be more likely to reciprocate with higher level of employee engagement.

5.3.1.3 Job Security and Employee Engagement

Regarding the linkage between job security and employee engagement, the results also indicate that job security has a positive significant relation with employee engagement. This finding supports job security as an important antecedent of employee engagement. One possible reason could be the higher feelings of employees on the job security that makes them confident of discharging their assigned duties let them to have high engagement level. More specifically, most of the banking sector employees in this study are married and more responsible to maintain their family that makes them more concern about their secured employment as in Bangladesh, now a day, private banking sector is becoming more difficult to get a job. Thus, job security is an important signal by which banking employees feel secured and cared by their banks and will be most prone to exert time and energy during their job. It is also clear from the study findings that higher the employees' perceptions in regards to job security within the organizations, higher the employees' level of engagement (Senol, 2011). With this line, Poyraz and Kama (2008)

recommended that job security practices is one of the important motivational tools to make the employees feel relax, that ultimately help them to exhibit positive attitude towards their work. Most importantly, this significant positive relationship confirms the norms of social exchange which suggests that in reciprocal settings, people (employees) are likely to feel obliged, and want to repay or reciprocate favorable benefits, treatment or gestures offered by others (organizations). Similarly, De Witte, De Cuyper, Handaja, Sverke, Näswall & Hellgren (2010) conducted a study on the Belgian banking sectors employees and found that high job insecurity may create health hazards resulting poor level of employee well-being that may reduce employees job related positive behavior such as employee engagement. Chen (2017) also found the positive association between HRM practices particularly job security and employee engagement.
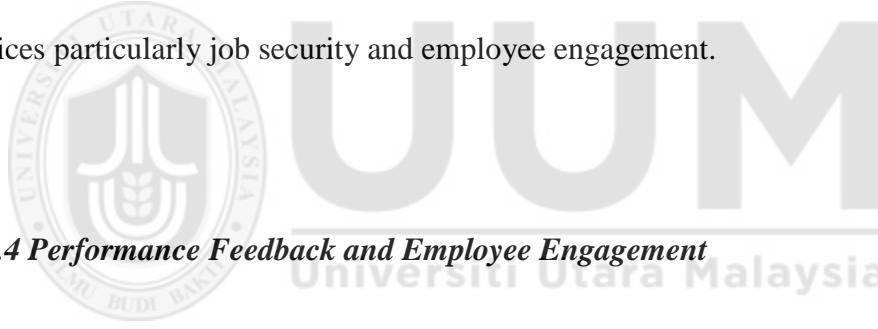
### 5.3.1.4 Performance Feedback and Employee Engagement

As expected, performance feedback is found to have a positive significant relationship with employee engagement. The current study finding is in regard with the prior research (Volpone et al., 2012; Van den Broeck et al., 2008) suggested that employees with adequate feedback about their performance be likely to have proper guidance to develop themselves. This is basically advances the communication among two parties, and facilitates the supervisor and the employees to come up with a way to enhance the employee performance. The study finding suggests that greater perception of employees on having adequate feedback on performance, they feel that their supervisors are really

203

interested on their career growth, learning, and development. Indeed, giving accurate measures is the way to get them back on work or enhancing their efficiency that encouraged them to be engaged more. For example, as banking sector is a service based industry where performance of employees is only key to success, so employees should know about their strengths and weaknesses for their better performance. In fact, lack of developmental feedback may create ambiguity, confusion, and conflict about the exact expectations of the organizations, and will have less opportunity for correction and innovation, all together will lead to less energetic and enthusiastic during the job. Menguc et al. (2013) found a positive significant relationship between performance feedback and employee engagement among the service sectors employees. They argued that employees with clear objectives and guidelines about their work are more likely to have higher motivations and thus lead to be highly engaged at their workplace. In addition, this study result also reveals the norms of reciprocity by arguing that employees with adequate developmental feedback on performance from their supervisor feel obliged, and reciprocate by enhancing their engagement level.

5.3.1.5 Rewards & Recognition and Employee Engagement

Regarding, the relationship between rewards & recognition and employee engagement, as expected, rewards and recognition is an important predictor of employee engagement among the Bangladeshi banking sector employees. The current study finding is also consistent with prior research (Presbitero, 2017; Lardner, 2015; Breevaart et al., 2014;

204

Alias et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2013). Karatepe (2013) argued that rewards & recognition is one of the most critical HRM practices to enhance specifically service employee engagement and simultaneously lack of appropriate rewards & recognition may buffer burnout and lead to negative behavioral outcomes. Alternatively, employee engagement may vary based on the function of receiving benefits for their job performance from banks, as banking employees perceive reward & recognition as the positive evaluation of significant contributions. It is therefore, concluded that banking employees will be more likely to exhibit their level of engagement towards the work depends on the extent of perceptions to which they are receiving rewards & recognition for their task performances from banks. This finding is also in the line of SET argued that one (employee) might feel obliged if they receive appropriate rewards & recognition from the organization and will repay by engaging themselves more to the job.
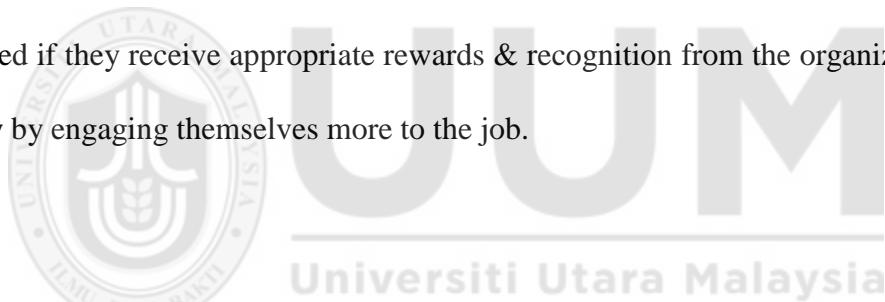
5.3.1.6 Training & Development and Employee Engagement

Training & development is found to have positive and statistically significant relationship with employee engagement. Results support that training & development HRM practice is a more salient predictor of employee engagement particularly for banking employees. The probable reason could be in accordance with the reciprocity norms of social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976) stated that employees are likely to engage themselves positively towards their work if they sense that their organizations values and recognize them by creating sufficient opportunities for training & development (Gruman

205

& Saks, 2011). Moreover, in banking sector, employees are continuously engaged in dealing with customers and demographic profile shows that most of the employees are very young who needs comprehensive training & development programs to serve their best. Likewise, rigorous training & development programs communicate massage to employees that organizations are intended to make a long-term investment on their personal growth and progress that make them oblige to repay with high employee engagement (Presbitero, 2017; Karatepe, 2013). The significant positive association between training & development and employee engagement has also been found by Suan and Nasurdin (2014) among Malaysian service employees.

From the above discussions of HRM practices and employee engagement, all the HRM practices are found as important predictors of employee engagement. In fact, all the six HRM practices perceived by banking employees in Bangladesh are inspired them to be engaged more in doing their role performance. In general, the current study findings are in the line of SET (Blau, 1964) suggests that the reciprocal social exchange relationships can be generated among the two different parties (i.e. employer and employee) within the organizations. HRM practices, therefore, work as a social exchange instruments introduced by the organizations to motivate their employees in a positive way and provide them some socio-economic and emotional resources (Cropanzano & Mictchell, 2005) which, in turn, feel employees obliged and make them more engaged towards their job in a kind of repayment.

5.3.2 Mediating Effect

This section discusses the mediation role of OC on the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement. In accordance with the research questions, research objectives are also need to address that whether OC can mediate the relationship between all the six HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) and employee engagement. This section will discuss about all the hypothesized relationships those need to be tested to ascertain OC as the mediator variable on HRM practices-employee engagement linkages.

5.3.2.1 Relationship between HRM practices and Organizational Commitment

The second research objective is to examine whether HRM practices have the significant positive association with OC. The current research findings show that all the six hypothesized relationships between HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) and OC are positive and statistically significant (see in Table 4.17 in Chapter 4).

Firstly, results confirm and state that career advancement is a most important predictor of OC among the banking employees in Bangladesh. The possible reason could be the demographic characteristics of the survey respondents who have just entered to their job and are very eager to ensure whether they have the proper career path for their further career advancement. This study finding is similar to the study of Juhdi et al. (2013) suggested that career advancement practice allows employees to have smooth promotional opportunities and ensures their personal growth that encouraged employees to think beyond their assigned duties that makes them committed towards the organization.

Secondly, the results of this study also confirm the hypothesized relationship between employee participation and OC suggesting that employee participation is a positive and significant predictor of OC. Studies (Thompson, Buch & Kuvaas, 2017; Fabi, et al., 2015; Young, Bartram, Stanton & Leggat, 2010) found that there is a positive relationship between employee participation and OC argued that when employees get the opportunity to participate in decision making process, they feel that they are valued and recognized by their organization and sense to identify themselves as a member of that particular organization. In fact, treating employees with respect, and as intelligent and capable individuals, they will be more committed towards the organization, and keep trusting to management.

In addition, job security is found to have statistically significant and positive relationship with OC among the banking sector employees in Bangladesh. The probable reason is that

most of the participants are males and married who are supposed to take all the responsibilities of their family. Moreover, in the context of Bangladesh where unemployment rate is so high (Asadullah, 2015), it is therefore, justified that the perceptions employees regarding job security will determine the extent to which they will be involved emotionally to their organizations. The similar results have been found by other scholars (e.g., Lamba & Choudhary, 2013; Gong & Chang, 2008) recommended that higher employment security makes employees more confident and feel of ease by reducing anxiety and unwell-being. In fact, studies (Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010) identified that high level of job insecurity may reduce the employees' in-role and extra-role job performance and increase absenteeism and turnover intentions.
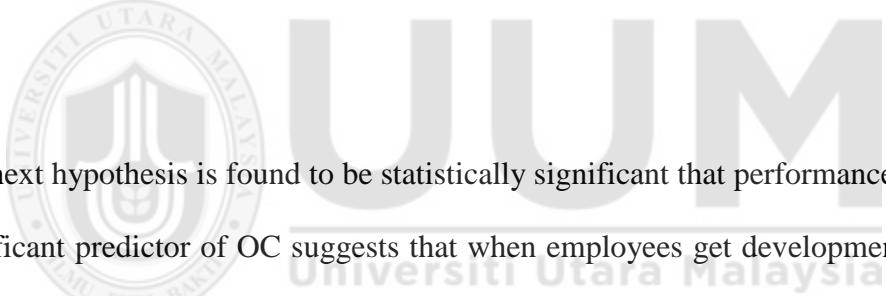
The next hypothesis is found to be statistically significant that performance feedback is a significant predictor of OC suggests that when employees get developmental form their supervisor, they are likely to be more committed towards their organizations. As this is mentioned earlier (see in Table 4.10 in Chapter 4) that majority of the respondents are very new in the banking sectors job and even having the experience of less than four years, they expect a more developmental feedback on their job performance so that they can improve themselves in accordance with the expectations of management. Moreover, this study finding is similar to the other previous studies (e.g., Boon & Kalshoven, 2014; Bal et al., 2013) suggested that high commitment HRM practices such as performance feedback not only help to enhance the employees' performance but also to make a long term employee commitment towards their organization.

Results find a positive significant relationship between rewards & recognition and OC. Rewards & recognition refers to the receiving various outcomes for their excellent job performance (Saks, 2006). In this regard, this study finds that rewards & recognition is one of the important antecedents of OC suggesting that banking employees are receiving appropriate rewards & recognition for their additional meaningful work that results in a sense of repayment by committing more to their organizations. The similar findings have been found by Alias et al. (2014) among the service sector employees and identified that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards & recognition significantly enhance employees' positive attitude that further lead them to stay in that organization for a longer period of time. Alike, Srivastava and Dhar (2016) also confirmed the significant relationship between rewards and employee engagement.

Finally, this study hypothesized the positive association between training & development and OC and the current study findings of banking employees confirm that training & development is a critical predictor of OC. The possible reason could be the majority of the respondents have less experience even less than six years, thus tend to be less skilled in performing their job that requires an extensive training & development programs. When employees perceive that their organizations are providing rigorous training programs for their personal growth by making them more competent, they will be obliged and reciprocate with high commitment. In this regard, Alfes et al. (2013) identified that by introducing an appropriate HRM practices such as training & development, organizations can enhance the employees' positive behavioral outcomes like organizational citizenship behavior or OC and can reduce the negative outcomes such as turnover intentions.

210

Similarly, Bashir and Long (2015) also found positive relationship between training & development and OC.

From the above discussions, it is, therefore, confirmed that all the six-hypothesized relationship between HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) and OC are statistically positive and significant in the context of banking sectors in Bangladesh. Moreover, these hypothesized linkages are also ascertained the reciprocal norms of SET (Blau, 1964) stated that in social exchange settings, organizations use HRM practices as the tool to provide different resources which in turn build employees sense of obligation and will reciprocate by building higher level of commitment to their organizations.

5.3.2.2 Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Employee Engagement

Regarding the next hypothesis is to investigate that whether OC is positively related to employee engagement and study results indentify that OC positively and significantly predict employee engagement. This is the most debatable hypothesis of this study treated OC as the predictor of employees' different behavioral outcomes such as employee engagement rather considered it as employees' psychological or behavioral outcome though several studies (Nazir & Islam, 2017; Karatepe, 2013; Albrecht, 2012) placed OC as different psychological outcomes. However, most importantly, Bangladeshi banking sector employees confirm that OC is the highly significant predictor of employee

211

engagement and establish the causal order between OC and employee engagement. This study finding is also supported by previous research (e.g., Katou, 2017; Shuck, Owen, Manthos, Quirk & Rhoades, 2016; Ibrahim & Falasi, 2014; Zopiatis, Constanti & Theocharous, 2014; Yalabik, 2013) who considered OC as an antecedent of different employees' behavioral outcome arguing that OC is the emotional attachment and identification of employees towards their organization, as a whole and employees' engagement is the psychological state and full dedication towards their job or work role itself. In other words, employees who are highly committed to their organizations are more likely to ensure the organizational success by engaging them more towards their job or role performance. In this regard, De Cuyper et al. (2009) showed the increasing trend of employee engagement when transforming employees from provisional to permanent. Furthermore, prior empirical research (e.g., Nazir, Shafi, Qun, Nazir & Tran, 2016; Fabi, Lacoursière & Raymond, 2015) showed the significant relationship between OC and employees' behavior, recommended that OC is relatively more stable in relationship between employee and their organization over the period, thus makes OC as a critical predictor of different employee behavior, such as organizational citizenship behavior, innovative work behavior, and turnover intention.

5.3.2.3 Mediating Effect of Organizational Commitment

The fourth research objective in regard to examine that whether OC has a mediating effect on the relationship between HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation,

212

job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) and employee engagement. In previous sections, study results give support of all the HRM practices are the significant predictors of OC and OC has the significant positive relation to employee engagement. At present, it is to observe that OC can mediate the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement by addressing the black-box stage and findings show the partial support for mediation hypothesis. This suggests that among the six HRM practices-employee engagement relationships, OC has partial mediation effects on four HRM practices-employee engagement linkages. Previous research (Karatepe, 2013; Tang & Tang, 2012) suggested the black-box stage between job-related resources and employee performance explaining that job resources specifically, HRM practices are more likely to have the indirect effect on employee performance rather direct relationship. Similarly, Fabi et al. (2015) have identified that high performance work practices have no direct effect on employee behavior i.e. turnover intention rather an indirect effect on these through mediator variable is called OC. However, the current study results show that OC has the partial mediation effect on the relationship between career advancement, employee participation, job security, training & development and employee engagement. The possible reason could be the direct relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement is as strong comparatively to their indirect relationships that indicates a partial mediation of OC. Moreover, this study finds that no mediation of OC on the relationship between performance feedback, rewards & recognition and employee engagement that means indirect effect cannot absorb the direct relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent variables. It indicates that HRM practices such as performance feedback and rewards & recognition have strong direct association with employee engagement in the absence of OC (see in Table 4.16) compare to indirect relation to

employee engagement through OC (see in Table 4.16). It indicates that banking employees, with proper feedback about their performance and adequate rewards & recognition, will engage without having any mediator variable. It is, therefore concluded that among the six HRM practices-employee engagement linkages, four relationships are partially mediated by OC and no mediation is found on other two HRM practices-employee engagement linkages in the context of banking sector employees in Bangladesh. Results indicate that HRM practices not necessarily always follow the black-box stage of indirect effect on employee behavior such as employee engagement rather they itself have the significant direct relationship with employee engagement.

5.3.3 Moderating Effects

The fifth research question fully deals with the moderating role of WRS namely, SS, CWS and OS. In regard of this research question, the moderating hypotheses are to address whether SS, CWS and OS act as moderator on the relationship between OC and employee engagement. This section wholly discusses about each of the moderating variable on OC-employee engagement relationship.

5.3.3.1 Moderating Effect of Supervisor Support

214

In regard to the hypothesis H5a states that SS has the moderation effect on OC-employee engagement linkage such that, employees with higher SS can strengthen the relationship between OC and employee engagement. Study results support that the interaction effect of SS can buffer the relationship. Results show that SS can positively (see in Table 4.19) buffer the relationship such that SS can compensate if employees exert low level of commitment towards the organization. Prior research (e.g., Rai et al., 2017; Lee & Ok, 2015; Vera et al., 2015; Sawang, 2012) also give support suggesting that SS treated as organizational resources that can minimize the impact of psychological stress on individual's behavioral outcomes. Additionally, Sing and Nayak (2015) noted that the perceptions of employees regarding SS can foster the organization related attitudes of employees. They further cited that when SS is higher, the perceptions and attitudes of employees towards their organization (OC) are become less important predictor on employees' behavioral outcomes such as employee engagement. Based on the above discussion, it is concluded that employee engagement among the banking employees is high when they will have higher support from their supervisor than that of the employees with low SS. As demographic profile of respondents, shows that most of the employees in this study are young and less experiences who expect more support from their mentor to make their job success. Results indicate that among the banking sector employees in Bangladesh, they yet require a high WRS specifically support from supervisor to boost up their dedications towards the work. For instance, if banks' supervisors keep trust and give authority to their subordinates that increase their (employees) confidence on supervisor, subsequently, leading to a high dedication and enthusiasm towards their work resulting in high level of engagement. This is a good opportunity for banks' supervisors to captivate their subordinates and simultaneously in building a harmonious relationship with them.

215

5.3.3.2 Moderating Effect of Co-Worker Support

In this study CWS treated as the moderator variable on the relationship between OC and employee engagement. Result shows that CWS has no moderation effect on OC-employee engagement relationship though CWS is significantly related to employee engagement. It indicates that level of engagement among banking employees cannot be estimated by the interaction of OC and CWS. This finding is similar to prior studies (e.g., Vera et al., 2015; Sawang, 2012) found that CWS cannot buffer the impact of job resources on employees' behavioral outcome within service employees. In fact, CWS has the higher buffering impact only in the presence of SS (Guchaita, Paşamehmetoğlu & Dawson, 2014). Vera et al. (2015) conducted a research among the service employees and found even a stronger relationship between job autonomy and employee engagement when SS is high but the same case is not true for the CWS. The possible reason is that employees perceive supervisor as the representative of organization and they are more likely to have a higher support from their supervisors over colleague in response to their jobs. More specifically, the majority of banking employees are very young and less experience (see in Table 4.10) who expects more help or support from their supervisor or manager regarding job related problem-solving issues. It is, thus, concluded that the effect of CWS remain same no matter OC is high or low. This indicates that the interaction effect of OC and CWS on employee engagement is insignificant (see in Table 4.19) and the level of banking employees' engagement remain same even in the presence of CWS.

216

5.3.3.3 Moderating Effect of Organizational Support

The final hypothesis of this study is to investigate the moderating effect of OS on the relationship between OC and employee engagement. The study findings show that the interaction effect of OC and OS on employee engagement is positive and statistically significant (see in Table 4.19). It indicates that employees who experience a high level of OS are likely to exert high level of employee engagement. In fact, when employees experience low level of positive attitudes towards their organization (OC), they are expected to show negative work-related outcomes, and then OS can act as an important asset to strengthen the relationship. A high level of OS entails the requirement of support for employees in case of both socio-economic needs or in case of equipment, funding, technology (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The current study finding is similar to previous studies (e.g., Rai et al., 2017; Hur et al., 2015; Shantz et al., 2014) suggesting that OS can compensate the effect of relatively low level of employees' positive attitudes on employees' behavioral outcome. Study findings suggest that relatively less committed employees are not likely to exert a low level of engagement if they perceive that their working environment is supportive. In other words, lower level of OC is associated to lower level of employees' positive behavioral outcomes such as engagement only if employees perceive that they are not supported by the organizations. The present study lends support to place OS in the norms of SET and states that with low level of OS, employees experience high level of negative and low level of positive behavioral outcomes. Prior research (e.g., Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009; Hochwarter et al., 2006; Witt & Carlson, 2006) also explained OS on the basis of SET by conceptualizing it as an

217

important organizational resource that may have the buffering effect on the negative consequences employee attitudes towards their organization. More specifically, when employees get adequate resources from their organization, they will reciprocate (Blau, 1964) resulting in higher engagement towards their work. In brief, banking employees who experience a low level of OC not always exert low level of employee engagement if they perceive that their organizations provide sufficient support to them.

In conclusion, PLS-SEM results reveal that WRS namely, SS and OS have the moderation impact on the relationship between OC and employee engagement. But contrary to the hypothesis, results show that CWS cannot play as a moderator variable on OC-employee engagement relationship. It indicates that banking sector employees in Bangladesh are more likely to expect the support from their supervisor and organization rather co-worker. Hence H5 is partially supported. This is also consistent to the buffering hypothesis of Caplan (1974) developed particularly to understand the effect of different support on employee stress-outcomes relationships. Interestingly, prior empirical study of buffering hypothesis in support is found to have a similar pattern of results in relation to this study. Indeed, this study results confirm the applicability of Caplan's (1974) buffering hypothesis to explain the relationships among OC, SS, OS and employees' behavioral outcomes i.e. employee engagement recommending that the presence of SS and OS can offset for a lower level of OC.

5.4   Implications of the Study

The current research findings have different implications in relation to theory and practice. This study mentions several insights considering to employee engagement within banks that are been discussed during the research. To the best knowledge of researcher, this is one of the very few empirical works that has been conducted in the developing countries, particularly, in banking sector employees in Bangladesh to investigate the relationships among HRM practices, OC, WRS (i.e. SS, CWS and OS), and employee engagement. Each of the implications of this study, therefore, will be discussed in the following sections.

5.4.1 Theoretical Contributions

Regarding the theoretical contribution, this study provides additional empirical literature in the field of organizational behavior, HRM development and employee engagement. Specifically, this study developed a model to explain the relationship between specific HRM practices such as career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development and employee engagement. Previous studies (Chen, 2017; Huang et al., 2017; Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015; Menguc et al., 2013; Azoury et al., 2013; Alfes et al., 2013; Bal et al., 2013) give emphasis on a bundle of HRM practices to predict employee engagement without explaining that which HRM practices are more critical to make the employees more

engaged. While very few studies (Sharma & Sharma, 2010; Mohapatra & Sharma, 2010) considered individual HRM practices to predict employee engagement treating OC and employee engagement as a same construct. The current research framework theoretically provides an addition knowledge regarding the predictors of employee engagement by demonstrating that all the six HRM practices namely, career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development are highly significant predictors of employee engagement.

Most importantly, findings of this current study provide a new dimension in knowledge of understanding SET (Blau, 1964). The norms of SET (Blau, 1964) proposes that in a social exchange setting (in organizations), the parties who are involved in an exchange relationship need to have a sense of mutual benefits (i.e. exchange) of each of the parties, where a positive gesture from one part needs to be reciprocated by the other counterpart. This study applies the reciprocal norms of SET and empirically establishes the link between HRM practices and employee engagement. It demonstrates the perception of employees regarding different HRM practices that build feelings of obligation and concern for the organization, which subsequently make them, obligate to repay in kind and reciprocate by performing with more dedication, enthusiasm and concentration resulting in high level of engagement. The study findings confirm that specific organizational HRM-practices like career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development give feelings to the employees that they valued, recognized and cared by their organizations and thus make obliged to give back with high engagement during their job performance.

220

Another important contribution of this study is that the findings further contribute to the knowledge of understanding regarding black-box stage between exogenous and endogenous latent constructs. Previous research (Karatepe, 2013) proposed that HRM practices influence the employees' motivation to exert elevated level of employee performance during work through black-box stage. This study considers OC as a mediator variable to explain the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement to understand the application of black-box stage by demonstrating that how HRM practices help to motivate the employees to accelerate their level of engagement in the workplace. The study findings reveal that OC can partially mediated the relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement, particularly for certain HRM practices such as career advancement, employee participation, job security, training & development and employee engagement relationship can be explained through OC. It is, therefore, concluded that if the direct relationship between independent and dependent variable is weak then only mediator variable can play an important role to explain black-box stage. This study partially validates the black-box theory as the direct relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement is very high and these relationships slightly absorbed after including the mediator OC.

Furthermore, this study gives empirical support regarding the significance of distinguishing the two constructs of OC and employee engagement. This study has validated that employee engagement is different from OC and these two constructs are discriminant and separate from each other. The current study also establishes the causal order between these two variables. It suggests that OC is the perception or attitudes of

221

employees towards their organization and employee engagement is the dedication, concentration and enthusiasm towards their work itself. Further it argues that when employees perceive themselves as a member of that organization and want to identify themselves with the organizational achievement, then they will have the concern for the success of the organization, that lead them to be engaged more towards their work.

Moreover, this study extends the conceptual research and HRM development studies in organizational behavior domain by investigating the role of SS and OS in the relationship between OC and employee engagement. This study helps to strengthen the literature by emphasizing the moderating role of SS and OS on the relationship between employee attitudes and employees' behavioral outcomes. In line with social interaction settings that SS and OS help to strengthen employees' positive attitudes via reciprocal norms (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Eisenberger et al., 1986), findings of this study suggest that SS and OS acted as the full moderator on the relationship between OC and employee engagement. In brief, this study has highlighted the significance of employees' perceptions regarding SS and OS in shaping their reactions associated to the relatively low level of employee attitudes on employees' behavioral outcomes.

5.4.2 Management Practices Implications

From the managerial or practical standpoint, the findings of present study have several significant implications. Particularly, this study will facilitate managers in private sector banks, practitioners as well as the policy makers of banking industry in Bangladesh.

Firstly, this study provides additional empirical evidences on the statistical significant relationship between HRM practices and employee engagement with the mediation effect of OC. In essence, results of the current study recommend that the HRM practices are significant catalyst to make the banking employees' more energetic, dedicated, and enthusiastic during their role performance and thus, HRM practices need to be prioritized in the organizations. In other words, the perceptions of bank employees regarding their concern banks' HRM practices more specifically career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development significantly affect their level of engagement. Simultaneously, having the highly engaged employees are treated as the strategic move for the service organization such as banks (Kusluvan et al., 2010), as employee engagement is considered as the positive and energetic state while doing their jobs. Therefore, bank managers are being suggested to introduce these practices to foster their employees' work performance in order to achieve organizational success.

Secondly, this study also reveals the importance of OC of predicting employee engagement. Thus, these findings give yet another important clue to the bank management to boost their employees' engagement. As the crucial management implications might be to give focus on employee engagement as a fundamental goal of the organizations (Bakker et al., 2011). In fact, Barnes and Collier (2013) suggested using global measures such as OC in predicting employee engagement, and it is essential since these measures are quite easy to evaluate on a stable basis and organizations can develop certain interventions with the goals to enhance the employee engagement. Thus, organizations may foster their employees' commitment towards the organization by establishing the proper HRM practices and that may result in higher level of engagement.

The third implications for bank management to understand the role of availability of WRS such as SS and OS within the organizational settings. The current study findings suggest that organizations should create such an environment by ensuring the support from both supervisor and organization that has influence on employee engagement. Barnes and Collier (2013) stated that supportive organizational climate is important since it give signals that employee engagement is not just a personality trait that can be traced through an extensive interview process rather it is organizations that can create the environment where employee engagement thrives. Most importantly, the present service organizations such as banks need to develop such a supportive relationship (supervisor and organization) with their employees so that they feel highly energetic, enthusiastic and dedicated at workplace as their works are active and pleasurable (Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2012). Therefore, the study findings suggest that bank managers should ensure whether

224

employees get adequate support from their supervisor or organization that make employees to feel confident and relax which in turn ensure higher employee engagement. Recent studies (Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2012; Dollard & Bakker, 2010) also noted that introducing SS and OS may enhance daily engagement towards the job.

5.5 Limitations and Directions for Further Research

Though these study findings have enormous theoretical and methodological contributions as well as managerial implications, likewise other empirical research still this study also has a number of limitations that needs to be addressed. However, these study limitations might be considered for the ground of future research, but still current study findings need to be interpreted by taking into consideration the flaws of the study.

Firstly, this study applies a cross-sectional method by which data has been collected at once during the research period (Zikmund et al., 2010). Such type of methods does not allow to establish a causal relationship among the key study variables. Cross-sectional approach, unlike to the longitudinal or experimental research design, cannot measure the significant change in key variables over the time period, that makes it inappropriate in causal studies (Cohen et al., 2013). On the other hand, longitudinal studies allow to establish causal links and to develop inferences (Cohen et al., 2013). However, this study has time constrained that makes the using of longitudinal approach is impractical from the current point of this research, future study should consider the longitudinal research design to get better insights from the causality of the hypothesized links among the study

variables. This approach more specifically appropriate since there is a relatively few studies have found in the domain of employee engagement studies, particularly in the Asian context as compare to the Western (Hakanen et al., 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008).

Secondly, this study collects data using self-reported questionnaires which might create the common method bias problem in the study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although prior studies (Barnes & Collier, 2013; Karatepe, 2013; Saks, 2006) used this approach to measure employee behavior, yet this approach could create the common method variance problem. To reduce the problems subjected to common method bias, this study has employed several techniques (see in section 4.4). In spite of being ensured the anonymity and confidentiality of this survey, this is unlikely to remove the possible problems of social-desirable tendency among participants, which could be one of the factors to contribute in the common-source variances (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, future studies may consider multiple sources for collecting the data in their research. Despite of having lots of problems in self-reported method, it is important to note that this approach is considered well accepted when the objective of the study is to gather the information about individual's attitudes and perceptions (Spector, 1994; Schmitt, 1994). Spector (1994) stated that cross-sectional research design and self-reported method is very effective for the organizational behavior research, as it allows to get a clear understanding about the perceptions and feelings of employees regarding their job. Therefore, using the self-reported questionnaires by the banking sector employees is considered still as an appropriate technique.

226

Thirdly, this study only gives focuses on the HRM practices (career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards & recognition, training & development) as the major predictors of employee engagement, thus this study incorporates only one part of organizational factors to explain the variances of employee engagement. But the other factors might also be able to explain the variances of employee engagement significantly. In this regard, the future research may include other potential antecedents of employee engagement such as organizational culture, leadership traits, and organizational politics etc, and extend this present framework that may enhance the percentage of explained variances. Furthermore, future studies would consider the dimension of employee engagement such as job engagement and organizational engagement as Saks (2006) noted that different predictors of engagement may explain the variances differently based on the types of engagement.
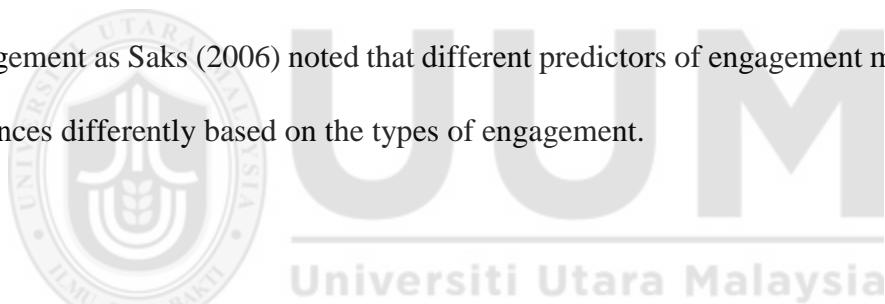
Lastly, this study considers only the private commercial banking sector employees located at Dhaka city in Bangladesh. Therefore, further research may incorporate other settings of sample particularly in the public sector banks or other financial institutions that will give a good opportunity to make comparison analysis and potential generalization.

5.6   Conclusion

The primary objective of this research is to investigate the factors that might have the association to banking sector employees' engagement. The main purpose of this study is

to explore the role of HRM practices on employee engagement based on SET. It also includes the mediating role of OC and the moderating role of WRS namely, SS, CWS and OS on employee engagement in the context banking sector employees in Bangladesh. The present study makes contributions by extending the existing literature based on the relationships among HRM practices, OC, WRS and employee engagement. The empirical evidences provided by this study support the theoretical assumptions on which this study has drawn. The present study empirically validates 19 out of 22 hypotheses that are being tested by addressing to five major research questions despite of having some identified limitations among the 383 banking employees in Bangladesh.

Although very few studies have examined the role of specific HRM practices on employee engagement, the current study extends the existing literature by tackling the identified research gaps through integrating OC as a mediating variable that explains the reasons of why and how HRM practices and employee engagement relationship works. In fact, this study provide empirical that all the exogenous variables altogether can explain 63 percent of variances in employee engagement. Moreover, this study also contributes in the existing literature by showing the buffering effect of SS and OS on employee engagement. Additionally, the study gives further contribution of how to evaluate a complex model that encompasses reflective-reflective constructs, too many items, and most importantly, hierarchical component model (HCM) by employing the PLS-SEM path modeling.

Conclusively, despite having of mixed results, however, this study manages to provide support for the application of SET, in which all the HRM practices have direct significant relationships with employee engagement and also able to generate positive employee attitudes towards the organization (OC) that subsequently, affect employee engagement. The study also confirms the significance of SS and OS in compensating the effect of poor level of positive attitudes on employee engagement. More specifically, empirical results of this study provide support to explain all the research gaps that have been identified.

REFERENCES

A. Agarwal, U. (2014). Examining the impact of social exchange relationships on innovative work behaviour: Role of work engagement. *Team Performance Management*, *20*(3/4), 102-120.

A. Agarwal, U. (2014). Linking justice, trust and innovative work behaviour to work engagement. *Personnel Review*, *43*(1), 41-73.

Aarabi, M. S., Subramaniam, I. D., & Akeel, A. B. A. A. B. (2013). Relationship between motivational factors and job performance of employees in Malaysian service industry. *Asian Social Science*, *9*(9), 301-310

Acuna, E., & Rodriguez, C. (2004). *A meta analysis study of outlier detection methods in classification.* Technical Paper, Department of Mathematics, University of Puerto Rico at Mayaguez.

Afroj, S. (2012). Ongoing corporate human resource management practice in banking sector of Bangladesh. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, *12*(2), 104-108.

Agarwal, U. A., Datta, S., Blake-Beard, S., & Bhargava, S. (2012). Linking LMX, innovative work behaviour and turnover intentions: The mediating role of work engagement. *Career Development International*, *17*(3), 208-230.

Agarwala, T. (2003). Innovative human resource practices and organizational commitment: An empirical investigation. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *14*(2), 175-197.

Ahmad, S., & Schroeder, R. G. (2003). The impact of human resource management practices on operational performance: recognizing country and industry differences. *Journal of Operations Management*, *21*(1), 19-43.

Ahmad, M., & Allen, M. (2015). High performance HRM and establishment performance in Pakistan: an empirical analysis. *Employee Relations*, *37*(5), 506-524.

Ahmad, R., & Scott, N. (2015). Fringe benefits and organisational commitment: The case of Langkawi hotels. *Tourism Review*, *70*(1), 13-23.

Ahmed, S. (1999). The emerging measure of effectiveness for human resource management: An exploratory study with performance appraisal. *Journal of Management Development*, *18*(6), 543-556.

Ahmed, I., Nawaz, M. M., Ali, G., & Islam, T. (2015). Perceived organizational support and its outcomes: a meta-analysis of latest available literature. *Management Research Review*, *38*(6), 627-639.

Ahmed, I., & Nawaz, M. M. (2015). Antecedents and outcomes of perceived organizational support: a literature survey approach. *Journal of Management Development*, *34*(7), 867-880.

230

Akhtar, S., Ding, D. Z., & Ge, G. L. (2008). Strategic HRM practices and their impact on company performance in Chinese enterprises. *Human Resource Management*, *47*(1), 15-32.

Aktouf, O. (1992). Management and theories of organizations in the 1990s: Toward a critical radical humanism?. *Academy of Management Review*, *17*(3), 407-431.

Aladwan, K., Bhanugopan, R., & D'Netto, B. (2015). The effects of human resource management practices on employees' organisational commitment. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *23*(3), 472-492.

Al Mehrzi, N., & Singh, S. K. (2016). Competing through employee engagement: a proposed framework. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *65*(6), 831-843.

Alnaqbi, W. (2011). The relationship between human resource practices and employee retention in public organisations: an exploratory study conducted in the United Arab Emirates. Retrieved from http://ro.ecu.edu.au/theses/424

Aspal, P. K., & Malhotra, N. (2013). Performance appraisal of indian public sector banks. *World Journal of Social Sciences, 3*(3), 71–88.

Aladwan, K., Bhanugopan, R., & D'Netto, B. (2015). The effects of human resource management practices on employees' organisational commitment. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *23*(3), 472-492.

Alarcon, G. M., & Edwards, J. M. (2011). The relationship of engagement, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. *Stress and Health*, *27*(3), e294-e298.

Albrecht, S. L., & Andreetta, M. (2011). The influence of empowering leadership, empowerment and engagement on affective commitment and turnover intentions in community health service workers: Test of a model. *Leadership in Health Services*, *24*(3), 228-237.

Albrecht, S. L. (2012). The influence of job, team and organizational level resources on employee well-being, engagement, commitment and extra-role performance: Test of a model. *International Journal of Manpower*, *33*(7), 840-853.

Albrecht, S. L. (2010). *Employee engagement: 10 key questions for research and practice.* The Handbook of Employee Engagement: Perspective, Issues, Research and Practice, 3-19.

Albrecht, S. L., Bakker, A. B., Gruman, J. A., Macey, W. H., & Saks, A. M. (2015). Employee engagement, human resource management practices and competitive advantage: An integrated approach. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, *2*(1), 7-35.

Alderfer, C. P. (1972). *Existence, relatedness, and growth: Human needs in organizational settings.* New York, Free Press of Glencoe.

Alfes, K., Shantz, A. D., Truss, C., & Soane, E. C. (2013). The link between perceived human resource management practices, engagement and employee behaviour: a moderated mediation model. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(2), 330-351.

Ali, T., & Newaz, M. K. (2010). Factors Contributing to Job Stress of Private Bank Employees in Bangladesh. *East West Journal of Business and social Studies, 1(*1), 89-104.

Alias, N., Noor, N., & Hassan, R. (2014). Examining the mediating effect of employee engagement on the relationship between talent management practices and employee retention in the Information and Technology (IT) organizations in Malaysia. *Journal of Human Resources Management and Labor Studiesi*, *2*(2), 227-242.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). Organizational socialization tactics: A longitudinal analysis of links to newcomers' commitment and role orientation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *33*(4), 847-858.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *49*(3), 252-276.

Allen, D. G., Shore, L. M., & Griffeth, R. W. (2003). The role of perceived organizational support and supportive human resource practices in the turnover process. *Journal of Management*, *29*(1), 99-118.

Amin, M., Khairuzzaman Wan Ismail, W., Zaleha Abdul Rasid, S., & Daverson Andrew Selemani, R. (2014). The impact of human resource management practices on performance: Evidence from a Public University. *The TQM Journal*, *26*(2), 125-142.

Anderson, S. E., Coffey, B. S., & Byerly, R. T. (2002). Formal organizational initiatives and informal workplace practices: Links to work-family conflict and job-related outcomes. *Journal of Management*, *28*(6), 787-810.

Andrew, O. C., & Sofian, S. (2012). Individual factors and work outcomes of employee engagement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *40*, 498-508.

Ann Rowland, C., & David Hall, R. (2013). Perceived unfairness in appraisal: engagement and sustainable organizational performance. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, *8*(3), 195-208.

Arbuckle, K. (2008). Emotion and knowledge: Partners in library service. *Feliciter*, *54*(5), 219-21.

Armstrong, J. S., & Overton, T. S. (1977). Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14(3), 396-402.

Armstrong, M. (1991). *A Handbook of Human Resource Management* (4th ed.). London:

Kogan Page.

Arrowsmith, J., & Parker, J. (2013). The meaning of 'employee engagement'for the values and roles of the HRM function. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(14), 2692-2712.

Arthur, J. B. (1994). Effects of human resource systems on manufacturing performance and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*(3), 670-687.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., & Razavieh, A. (1996). *Introduction to research in education.* Orlando, Florida: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Razavieh, A., & Sorensen, C. (2009). *Introduction to research in education:* Wadsworth Pub Co.

Asadullah, M. N. (2015, March 8). Is graduate unemployment rate really 47%? *The daily star.* Retrieved from http://www.thedailystar.net/is-graduate-unemployment-rate-really-47-22302

Ashford, S. J., Lee, C., & Bobko, P. (1989). Content, cause, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test. *Academy of Management Journal*, *32*(4), 803-829.

Ashill, N. J., & Rod, M. (2011). Burnout processes in non-clinical health service encounters. *Journal of Business Research*, *64*(10), 1116-1127.

Azoury, A., Daou, L., & Sleiaty, F. (2013). Employee engagement in family and non-family firms. *International Strategic Management Review*, *1*(1), 11-29.

Babbie, E., & Benaquisto, L. (2002). *Fundamentals of social research (First Canadian ed.).* Toronto, Canada: Nelson Thomson Canada.

Babin, B. J., & Boles, J. S. (1996). The effects of perceived co-worker involvement and supervisor support on service provider role stress, performance and job satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing*, *72*(1), 57-75.

Bacharach, S. B., Bamberger, P., & Biron, M. (2010). Alcohol consumption and workplace absenteeism: the moderating effect of social support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(2), 334-348.

Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of The Academy of Marketing Science*, *16*(1), 74-94.

Baird, L., & Meshoulam, I. (1988). Managing two fits of strategic human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, *13*(1), 116-128.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., Taris, T. W., Schaufeli, W. B., & Schreurs, P. J. (2003). A multigroup analysis of the Job Demands-Resources Model in four home care organizations. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *10*(1), 16-18.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Job resources buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *10*(2), 170-180.

Bakker, A. B., van Emmerik, H., & Euwema, M. C. (2006). Crossover of burnout and engagement in work teams. *Work and Occupations*, *33*(4), 464-489.

Bakker, A. B., Hakanen, J. J., Demerouti, E., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2007). Job resources boost work engagement, particularly when job demands are high. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *99*(2), 274-284.

Bakker, A. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2010). *Where to go from here: Integration and future research on work engagement. Work Engagement: A Handbook of Essential Theory and Research.* Psychology press, 181-196.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of managerial psychology*, *22*(3), 309-328.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International*, *13*(3), 209-223.

Bakker, A. B., & Bal, M. P. (2010). Weekly work engagement and performance: A study among starting teachers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *83*(1), 189-206.

Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Positive organizational behavior: Engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *29*(2), 147-154.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Lieke, L. (2012). Work engagement, performance, and active learning: The role of conscientiousness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(2), 555-564.

Bakker, A. B., Albrecht, S. L., & Leiter, M. P. (2011). Key questions regarding work engagement. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *20*(1), 4-28.

Bal, P. M., Kooij, D. T., & De Jong, S. B. (2013). How do developmental and accommodative HRM enhance employee engagement and commitment? The role of psychological contract and SOC strategies. *Journal of Management Studies*, *50*(4), 545-572.

Bangladesh Bank. Scheduled Banks Statistics. Various Issues. (https://www.bb.org.bd/)

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics. Various issues statistical database. (http://www.bbs.gov.bd/)

Barkhuizen, N., Rothmann, S., & Vijver, F. J. (2014). Burnout and work engagement of academics in higher education institutions: Effects of dispositional optimism. *Stress and Health*, *30*(4), 322-332.

234

Barkhuizen, N., Mogwere, P., & Schutte, N. (2014). Talent Management, Work Engagement and Service Quality Orientation of Support Staff in a Higher Education Institution. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(4), 69-77.

Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Job insecurity and health: The moderating role of workplace control. *Stress Medicine*, *12*(4), 253-259.

Barney, J. B., & Wright, P. M. (1997). *On becoming a strategic partner: The role of human resources in gaining competitive advantage.* Working paper series, Cornell University ILR School.

Barnes, C. D., & Collier, E. J. (2013). Investigating work engagement in the service environment. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *27*(6), 485-499.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1173-1182.

Bartlett, K. R. (2001). The relationship between training and organizational commitment: A study in the health care field. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *12*(4), 335-352.

Bartlett, J. E. (2001). II, Kotrlik JW, & Higgins CC. *Organizational research: Determining Appropriate Sample Size in Survey Research. Inform Tech Learn Perform J*, *19*(1), 43-50.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1173-1182.

Bashir, N., & Long, C. S. (2015). The relationship between training and organizational commitment among academicians in Malaysia. *Journal of Management Development*, *34*(10), 1227-1245.

Bateman, T. S., & Strasser, S. (1984). A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, *27*(1), 95-112.

Bates, S. (2004). Getting engaged. *HR Magazine,* 49, 44-51.

Batista, M., Feijo, A., & Silva, F. (2013). Quality management and employees' attitudes: an example from certified enterprises. *Management Research: The Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy of Management*, *11*(3), 260-279.

Baumruk, R. (2004). The missing link: the role of employee engagement in business success. *Workspan*, 47(11), 48-52.

Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American Journal of Sociology*, 66(1), 32-40.

Beeble, M. L., Bybee, D., Sullivan, C. M., & Adams, A. E. (2009). Main, mediating, and moderating effects of social support on the well-being of survivors of intimate partner violence across 2 years. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *77*(4), 718-729.

Beehr, T. A., King, L. A., & King, D. W. (1990). Social support and occupational stress: Talking to supervisors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *36*(1), 61-81.

Beehr, T. A., Jex, S. M., Stacy, B. A., & Murray, M. A. (2000). Work stressors and coworker support as predictors of individual strain and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *21*(4), 391-405.

Beehr, T. A., Bowling, N. A., & Bennett, M. M. (2010). Occupational stress and failures of social support: when helping hurts. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(1), 45-59.

Beer, M., Spector, B., Lawrence, P. R., & Mills, D. Q. (1984). *Managing human assets: The groundbreaking Harvard business school program.* New York/London.

Behr, A. L. (1988). *Empirical Research Methods for the Human Sciences: an introductory text for the students of education, psychology and the social sciences (2 edtn).* Durban.

Benn, S., Teo, S. T., & Martin, A. (2015). Employee participation and engagement in working for the environment. *Personnel Review*, *44*(4), 492-510.

Bergmann, T. J. (2001). *Compensation Decision Making.* Fort Worth, Scarpello.

Bernardin, H. J., & Wiatrowski, M. (2013). *Performance appraisal.* Psychology and Policing, 257-289.

Berscheid, E. (1985). *Interpersonal attraction.* Handbook of Social Psychology, 413-484.

Bhagat, R. S., & Chassie, M. B. (1981). Determinants of organizational commitment in working women: Some implications for organizational integration. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *2*(1), 17-30.

Bhatnagar, J. (2014). Mediator analysis in the management of innovation in Indian knowledge workers: the role of perceived supervisor support, psychological contract, reward and recognition and turnover intention. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(10), 1395-1416.

Bhuyan, A. (2013). Performance Evaluation of the Bangladesh Economy during FY2012-13. *Thoughts on Economics, 23*(3), 1-39.

Biggs, A., Brough, P., & Barbour, J. P. (2014). Strategic alignment with organizational priorities and work engagement: A multi-wave analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(3), 301-317.

Bindl, U. K., & Parker, S. K. (n.d.). Proactive work behavior: Forward-thinking and change-oriented action in organizations. *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol 2: Selecting and developing members for the organization*, 567-598.

Biswas, S., & Bhatnagar, J. (2013). Mediator analysis of employee engagement: role of perceived organizational support, PO fit, organizational commitment and job satisfaction. *Vikalpa*, *38*(1), 27-40.

Biswas, S., Varma, A., & Ramaswami, A. (2013). Linking distributive and procedural justice to employee engagement through social exchange: a field study in India. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(8), 1570-1587.

Blaikie, N. (2007). *Approaches to social enquiry: Advancing knowledge*. Polity.

Blancero, D., Johnson, S. A., & Lakshman, C. (1996). Psychological contracts and fairness: The effect of violations on customer service behavior. *Journal of Market-Focused Management*, *1*(1), 49-63.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. Transaction Publishers.

Blau, G. J., & Boal, K. B. (1987). Conceptualizing How Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment Affect Turnover and Absenteeism. *Academy of Management Review*, *12*(2), 288-300.

Blumberg, B., Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2008). *Business research methods (2nd European ed.)*. Berkshire.

Boon, C., & Kalshoven, K. (2014). How High-Commitment HRM Relates to Engagement and Commitment: The Moderating Role of Task Proficiency. *Human Resource Management*, *53*(3), 403-420.

Boshoff, C., & Allen, J. (2000). The influence of selected antecedents on frontline staff's perceptions of service recovery performance. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *11*(1), 63-90.

Bourque, L., & Fielder, E. P. (2003). *How to conduct self-administered and mail surveys* (Vol. 3). Sage.

Bourne, M., Pavlov, A., Franco-Santos, M., Lucianetti, L., & Mura, M. (2013). Generating organisational performance: The contributing effects of performance measurement and human resource management practices. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, *33*(11/12), 1599-1622.

Bowen, D. E., & Ostroff, C. (2004). Understanding HRM–firm performance linkages: The role of the "strength" of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review*, *29*(2), 203-221.

Bowling, N. A., & Eschleman, K. J. (2010). Employee personality as a moderator of the relationships between work stressors and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(1), 91-103.

Boya, F. Ö., Demiral, Y., ErgÖr, A., Akvardar, Y., & Witte, H. D. (2008). Effects of Perceived Job Insecurity on Perceived Anxiety and Depression in Nurses. *Industrial Health*, *46*(6), 613-619.

Boxall, P., Ang, S. H., & Bartram, T. (2011). Analysing the 'black box'of HRM: Uncovering HR goals, mediators, and outcomes in a standardized service environment. *Journal of Management Studies*, *48*(7), 1504-1532.

Breevaart, K., Bakker, A., Hetland, J., Demerouti, E., Olsen, O. K., & Espevik, R. (2014). Daily transactional and transformational leadership and daily employee engagement. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *87*(1), 138-157.

Britt, T. W., Adler, A. B., & Bartone, P. T. (2001). Deriving benefits from stressful events: the role of engagement in meaningful work and hardiness. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6*(1), 53-63.

Brownell, A., & Shumaker, S. A. (1984). Social support: An introduction to a complex phenomenon. *Journal of Social Issues*, *40*(4), 1-9.

Brunetto, Y., Shriberg, A., Farr-Wharton, R., Shacklock, K., Newman, S., & Dienger, J. (2013). The importance of supervisor–nurse relationships, teamwork, wellbeing, affective commitment and retention of North American nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *21*(6), 827-837.

Bryman, A. (2003). *Research methods and organization studies* (Vol. 20). Routledge.

Budhwar, P. S., & Debrah, Y. A. (2004). *Human Resource Management in Developing Countries.* The SAGE Handbook of Human Resource Management, 393-406

Buciuniene, I., & Kazlauskaite, R. (2012). The linkage between HRM, CSR and performance outcomes. *Baltic Journal of Management*, *7*(1), 5-24.

Burke, P. J., & Reitzes, D. C. (1991). An identity theory approach to commitment. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 54(3), 239-251.

Burke, R. J., Koyuncu, M., Jing, W., & Fiksenbaum, L. (2009). Work engagement among hotel managers in Beijing, China: potential antecedents and consequences. *Tourism Review*, *64*(3), 4-18.

Burke, R. J., Moodie, S., Dolan, S. L., & Fiksenbaum, L. (2012). Job Demands, Social Support, Work Satisfaction and Psychological Well-Being Among Nurses in Spain. *SSRN Electronic Journal.* doi:10.2139/ssrn.2117051

Butler, J.E., Ferris, G.R., & Napier, N.K. (1991). *Strategic human resources management.* Cincinnati, OH: South-Western Publishing Co.

Caesens, G., Stinglhamber, F., & Luypaert, G. (2014). The impact of work engagement and workaholism on well-being: The role of work-related social support. *Career Development International*, *19*(7), 813-835.

Cameron, R. (1972). Banking and Economic Development: some lesson of history. *Oxford University Press, Oxford.*

Cantarello, S., Filippini, R., & Nosella, A. (2012). Linking human resource management practices and customer satisfaction on product quality. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *23*(18), 3906-3924.

Caplan, G. (1974). *Support systems and community mental health: lectures on concept development*. Behavioral Publications.

Cappelli, P., & Singh, H. (1992). Integrating strategic human resources and strategic management. In Lewin D., Mitchell O. S., Sherer P. (Eds.), *Research frontiers in industrial relations and human resources:* 165–192. Madison, WI: Industrial Relations Research Association.

Carson, R. C., Butcher, J. N., & Coleman, J. C. (1988). *Abnormal psychology and modern life*. Scott, Foresman & Co.

Carson, D., Gilmore, A., Perry, C., & Gronhaug, K. (2001). *Qualitative marketing research*. Sage.

Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (1994). *Qualitative research in work contexts.* Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research, 1-13.

Cavana, R., Delahaye, B., & Sekaran, U. (2001). *Applied business research: Qualitative and quantitative methods.* New York: John willey & sons.

Center for Policy Dialogue. (2013). Analytical Review of Bangladesh's Macroeconomic Performance. *A Review of Bangladesh's Development, Center for Policy Dialogue*, Dhaka: University Press Ltd.

Chand, M., & Katou, A. A. (2007). The impact of HRM practices on organisational performance in the Indian hotel industry. *Employee Relations*, *29*(6), 576-594.

Chang, E. (2005). Employees' overall perception of HRM effectiveness. *Human Relations*, *58*(4), 523-544.

Chang, S., Gong, Y., Way, S. A., & Jia, L. (2013). Flexibility-oriented HRM systems, absorptive capacity, and market responsiveness and firm innovativeness. *Journal of Management*, *39*(7), 1924-1951.

Chang, K., Nguyen, B., Cheng, K. T., & Lee, I. (2016). HR practice, organisational commitment & citizenship behaviour: A study of primary school teachers in Taiwan. *Employee Relations*, *38*(6), 907-926.

Chaplin, W. F. (1991). The next generation of moderator research in personality psychology. *Journal of Personality*, *59*(2), 143-178.

Chauhan, R., Ghosh, P., Rai, A., & Kapoor, S. (2017). Improving transfer of training with transfer design: Does supervisor support moderate the relationship?. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *29*(4), 268-285.

Chen, Z. J., Zhang, X., & Vogel, D. (2011). Exploring the Underlying Processes between conflict and knowledge sharing: A Work-Engagement Perspective. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *41*(5), 1005-1033.

Chen, S. L. (2017). Cross-level effects of high-commitment work systems on work engagement: the mediating role of psychological capital. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*. doi:10.1111/1744-7941.12144

Cheung, C., & Law, R. (1998). Hospitality service quality and the role of performance appraisal. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, *8*(6), 402-406.

Cheung, M. F., & Wu, W. P. (2011). Participatory management and employee work outcomes: The moderating role of supervisor–subordinate guanxi. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *49*(3), 344-364.

Chew, I. K., & Sharma, B. (2005). The effects of culture and HRM practices on firm performance: Empirical evidence from Singapore. *International Journal of Manpower*, *26*(6), 560-581.

Churchill, G. A., & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Marketing research: methodological foundations.

Cialdini, R. (2001). *Influence: Science and Practice (4th ed.).* Allyn and Bacon, Boston, MA.

CIPD (2006). *Human Capital Evaluation – Evolving the Data.* CIPD Human Capital Panel, CIPD, London.

Chaudhary, R., Rangnekar, S., & Barua, M. K. (2012). HRD climate, occupational self-efficacy and work engagement: A study from India. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, *15*(2), 86-105.

Chiaburu, D. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2008). Do peers make the place? Conceptual synthesis and meta-analysis of coworker effects on perceptions, attitudes, OCBs, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(5), 1082-1103.

Chiu, S. F., Yeh, S. P., & Huang, T. C. (2015). Role stressors and employee deviance: The moderating effect of social support. *Personnel Review*, *44*(2), 308-324.

Cho, S., & Johanson, M. M. (2008). Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Employee Performance: A Moderating Effect of Work Status in Restaurant Employees. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *32*(3), 307-326

Coakes, S. J., Steed, L., & Ong, C. (Eds.). (2010). *SPSS: Analysis without anguish: version 17for windows.* Australia: John Wiley & Sons.

Choi, M. K. (2006). Development of internal branding performance measure and analysis on the difference of internal branding performances between local and international hotels. *Korean Journal of Community Nutrition*, *11*(1), 116-123.

Choi, J. H., & Lee, K. P. (2013). Effects of employees' perceptions on the relationship between HR practices and firm performance for Korean firms. *Personnel Review*, *42*(5), 573-594.

Chong, V. K., & Law, M. B. (2016). The effect of a budget-based incentive compensation scheme on job performance: The mediating role of trust-in-supervisor and organizational commitment. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, *12*(4), 590-613.

Chughtai, A. A., & Buckley, F. (2011). Work engagement: antecedents, the mediating role of learning goal orientation and job performance. *Career Development International*, *16*(7), 684-705.

Chebat, J. C., Gelinas-Chebat, C., Hombourger, S., & Woodside, A. G. (2003). Testing consumers' motivation and linguistic ability as moderators of advertising readability. *Psychology & Marketing*, *20*(7), 599-624.

Chen, C. F., & Kao, Y. L. (2012). Investigating the antecedents and consequences of burnout and isolation among flight attendants. *Tourism Management*, *33*(4), 868-874.

Chen, C. F., & Kao, Y. L. (2014). Investigating the moderating effects of service climate on personality, motivation, social support, and performance among flight attendants. *Tourism Management*, *44*, 58-66.

Chin, W. W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. *Modern Methods for Business Research*, *295*(2), 295-336.

Chin, W. W., Marcolin, B. L., & Newsted, P. R. (2003). A partial least squares latent variable modeling approach for measuring interaction effects: Results from a Monte Carlo simulation study and an electronic-mail emotion/adoption study. *Information Systems Research*, *14*(2), 189-217.

Chirumbolo, A., & Hellgren, J. (2003). Individual and organizational consequences of job insecurity: A European study. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, *24*(2), 217-240.

Chirumbolo, A., & Areni, A. (2005). The influence of job insecurity on job performance and absenteeism: The moderating effects of work attitudes. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *31*(4), 65-71.

241

Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. E. (2011). Work engagement: A quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*(1), 89-136.

Chuang, C. H., & Liao, H. U. I. (2010). Strategic human resource management in service context: Taking care of business by taking care of employees and customers. *Personnel Psychology*, *63*(1), 153-196.

Chughtai, A. A., & Buckley, F. (2011). Work engagement: antecedents, the mediating role of learning goal orientation and job performance. *Career Development International*, *16*(7), 684-705.

Clark, L. A., & Watson, D. (1995). Constructing validity: Basic issues in objective scale development. *Psychological Assessment*, *7*(3), 309-319.

Colbert, A. E., Mount, M. K., Harter, J. K., Witt, L. A., & Barrick, M. R. (2004). Interactive effects of personality and perceptions of the work situation on workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(4), 599-609.

Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *98*(2), 310-357.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2 ed.).* Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc

Cohen, J. (1992). Statistical power analysis. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 98-101.

Cohen, A. (2003). *Multiple commitments in the workplace: An integrative approach*. Psychology Press.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2013). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Routledge.

Cole, M. S., Schaninger, W. S., & Harris, S. G. (2002). The workplace social exchange network a multilevel, conceptual examination. *Group & Organization Management*, *27*(1), 142-167.

Collini, S. A., Guidroz, A. M., & Perez, L. M. (2013). Turnover in health care: the mediating effects of employee engagement. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *23*(2), 169-178.

Collins, C. J., & Clark, K. D. (2003). Strategic human resource practices, top management team social networks, and firm performance: The role of human resource practices in creating organizational competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46*(6), 740-751.

Conner, J., & Ulrich, D. (1996). Human resource roles: Creating value, not rhetoric. *People and Strategy*, *19*(3), 38.(NOT FOUND)

Constantine, M. G. (2001). Predictors of observer ratings of multicultural counseling competence in Black, Latino, and White American trainees. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *48*(4), 456-462.

Cooke, F. L., Cooper, B., Bartram, T., Wang, J., & Mei, H. (2016). Mapping the relationships between high-performance work systems, employee resilience and engagement: a study of the banking industry in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-22. doi:10.1080/09585192.2015.1137618

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). *Business research methods (8 th edn.).* McGrawHill: New York.

Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2008). International Edition: Business Research Methods. New Delhi; MacGraw-Hill. *Bulletin. District Development Report,(2007). Ministry of Planning, Murang'a District, Kenya government District Development reports issue Bulletin.*

Correia, M. F., e Cunha, R. C., & Scholten, M. (2013). Impact of M&As on organizational performance: The moderating role of HRM centrality. *European Management Journal*, *31*(4), 323-332.

Coyle-Shapiro, J. A., & Conway, N. (2005). Exchange relationships: examining psychological contracts and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(4), 774-781.

Crabtree, S. (2005). Engagement keeps the doctor away. *Gallup Management Journal*, *13*, 1-4. Retrieved November 12, 2016, from http://gmj.gallup.com/content/14500/Engagement-Keeps-Doctor-Away.aspx

Crawford, E. R., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: a theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(5), 834-848.

Cropanzano, R., & Wright, T. A. (2001). When a "happy" worker is really a "productive" worker: A review and further refinement of the happy-productive worker thesis. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *53*(3), 182-199.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, *31*(6), 874-900.

Crow, G., & Wiles, R. (2008). *Managing anonymity and confidentiality in social research: the case of visual data in Community research.* NCRM Working Paper available from http://eprints.ncrm.ac.uk/

Currall, S. C., Towler, A. J., Judge, T. A., & Kohn, L. (2005). Pay satisfaction and organizational outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, *58*(3), 613-640.

Czarnowsky, M. (2008). *Learning's role in employee engagement: An ASTD research study.* Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training and Development.

Dalal, R. S., Baysinger, M., Brummel, B. J., & LeBreton, J. M. (2012). The relative importance of employee engagement, other job attitudes, and trait affect as predictors of job performance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *42*(1), 295-325.

Dale-Olsen, H. (2006). Wages, fringe benefits and worker turnover. *Labour economics*, *13*(1), 87-105.

Daniel, J. (2011). *Sampling essentials: Practical guidelines for making sampling choices*. Sage.

Dansereau, F., Cashman, J., & Graen, G. (1973). Instrumentality theory and equity theory as complementary approaches in predicting the relationship of leadership and turnover among managers. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *10*(2), 184-200.

Darwish, T. K., Singh, S., & Mohamed, A. F. (2013). The role of strategic HR practices in organisational effectiveness: an empirical investigation in the country of Jordan. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(17), 3343-3362.

Datta, D. K., Guthrie, J. P., & Wright, P. M. (2005). Human resource management and labor productivity: does industry matter?. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(1), 135-145.

Dávila, M., & García, G. J. (2012). Organizational identification and commitment: Correlates of sense of belonging and affective commitment. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, *15*(01), 244-255.

Davy, J. A., Kinicki, A. J., & Scheck, C. L. (1997). A test of job security's direct and mediated effects on withdrawal cognitions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *18*(4), 323-349.

Dawley, D. D., Andrews, M. C., & Bucklew, N. S. (2008). Mentoring, supervisor support, and perceived organizational support: what matters most?. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *29*(3), 235-247.

Dawson, J. F. (2014). Moderation in management research: What, why, when, and how. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *29*(1), 1-19.

Deckop, J. R., Cirka, C. C., & Andersson, L. M. (2003). Doing unto others: The reciprocity of helping behavior in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *47*(2), 101-113.

De Clercq, D., Bouckenooghe, D., Raja, U., & Matsyborska, G. (2014). Servant Leadership and Work Engagement: The Contingency Effects of Leader–Follower Social Capital. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *25*(2), 183-212.

244

De Coninck, J. B. (2010). The effect of organizational justice, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support on marketing employees' level of trust. *Journal of Business Research*, *63*(12), 1349-1355.

De Cuyper, N., Notelaers, G., & De Witte, H. (2009). Job insecurity and employability in fixed-term contractors, agency workers, and permanent workers: associations with job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *14*(2), 193-205.

De Gieter, S., De Cooman, R., Pepermans, R., & Jegers, M. (2008). *Manage through rewards, not only through pay: establishing the Psychological Reward Satisfaction Scale (PReSS)*. Reward management: Facts and Trends in Europe, 97-117.

De Witte, H., De Cuyper, N., Handaja, Y., Sverke, M., Näswall, K., & Hellgren, J. (2010). Associations between quantitative and qualitative job insecurity and well-being: A test in Belgian banks. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, *40*(1), 40-56.

Dekker, S. W., & Schaufeli, W. B. (1995). The effects of job insecurity on psychological health and withdrawal: A longitudinal study. *Australian Psychologist*, *30*(1), 57-63.

Delaney, J. T., & Huselid, M. A. (1996). The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*(4), 949-969.

Delery, J. E., & Doty, D. H. (1996). Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency, and configurational performance predictions. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*(4), 802-835.

Delery, J. E. (1998). Issues of fit in strategic human resource management: Implications for research. *Human Resource Management Review*, *8*(3), 289-309.

Delery, J. E., & Shaw, J. D. (2001). *The strategic management of people in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and extension.* Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 165-197. doi:10.1016/s0742-7301(01)20003-6

Dello Russo, S., Vecchione, M., & Borgogni, L. (2013). Commitment Profiles, Job Satisfaction, and Behavioral Outcomes. *Applied Psychology*, *62*(4), 701-719.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., De Jonge, J., Janssen, P. P., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). Burnout and engagement at work as a function of demands and control. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health*, 279-286.

Demerouti, E., & Cropanzano, R. (2010). *From thought to action: Employee work engagement and job performance.* Work engagement: A Handbook of Essential Theory and Research, 147-163.

Den Hartog, D. N., Boon, C., Verburg, R. M., & Croon, M. A. (2013). HRM, Communication, Satisfaction, and Perceived Performance A Cross-Level Test. *Journal of Management*, *39*(6), 1637-1665.

Dess, G. G., Lumpkin, G. T., & Covin, J. G. (1997). Entrepreneurial strategy making and firm performance: Tests of contingency and configurational models. *Strategic Management Journal*, *18*(9), 677-695.

Dhaka Stock Exchange (DSE) is a virtual space designed especially for financial database. (http://www.dsebd.org/ltp_industry.php?area=11).

Diaz-Fernandez, M., Bornay-Barrachina, M., & Lopez-Cabrales, A. (2015). Innovation and firm performance: the role of human resource management practices. *Evidence-based HRM: a Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship, 3*(1), 64-80.

Dillman, D. A. (2011). *Mail and Internet surveys: The Tailored Design Method--2007 Update with new Internet, Visual, and Mixed-mode Guide*. John Wiley & Sons.

Dollard, M. F., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). Psychosocial safety climate as a precursor to conducive work environments, psychological health problems, and employee engagement. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *83*(3), 579-599.

Domenighetti, G., d'Avanzo, B., & Bisig, B. (2000). Health effects of job insecurity among employees in the Swiss general population. *International Journal of Health Services*, *30*(3), 477-490.

Donate, M. J., Peña, I., & Sánchez de Pablo, J. D. (2015). HRM practices for human and social capital development: effects on innovation capabilities. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(9), 928-953.

Duarte, P. A. O., & Raposo, M. L. B. (2010). *A PLS model to study brand preference: An application to the mobile phone market. Handbook of partial least squares*. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 449-485.

Ducharme, L. J., & Martin, J. K. (2000). Unrewarding work, coworker support, and job satisfaction a test of the Buffering Hypothesis. *Work and Occupations*, *27*(2), 223-243.

Dyer, L., & Reeves, T. (1995). Human resource strategies and firm performance: what do we know and where do we need to go?. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *6*(3), 656-670.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 500-507.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 565-573.

Eisenberger, R., Jones, J. R., Aselage, J., & Sucharski, I. L. (2004). Perceived organizational support. In J. A.-M. Coyle-Shapiro, L. M. Shore, M. S. Taylor, & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *The employment relationship: Examining psychological and contextual perspectives* (pp. 206-225). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellinger, A. E., Musgrove, C. C. F., Ellinger, A. D., Bachrach, D. G., Baş, A. B. E., & Wang, Y. L. (2013). Influences of organizational investments in social capital on service employee commitment and performance. *Journal of Business Research*, *66*(8), 1124-1133.

Emerson, R. M. (1976). Social exchange theory. *Annual review of sociology*, *2*(1), 335-362.

Emmerik, I. H. V., Jawahar, I. M., & Stone, T. H. (2005). Associations among altruism, burnout dimensions, and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Work & Stress*, *19*(1), 93-100.

Ensher, E. A., Thomas, C., & Murphy, S. E. (2001). Comparison of traditional, step-ahead, and peer mentoring on protégés' support, satisfaction, and perceptions of career success: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *15*(3), 419-438.

Fabi, B., Lacoursière, R., & Raymond, L. (2015). Impact of high-performance work systems on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit in Canadian organizations. *International Journal of Manpower*, *36*(5), 772-790.

Fairlie, P. (2011). Meaningful Work, Employee Engagement and Other Key Employee Outcomes: Implications for Human Resource Development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources 13*(4) 508–525

Falk, R. F., & Miller, N. B. (1992). *A primer for soft modeling*. University of Akron Press.

Farr-Wharton, R., & Brunetto, Y. (2007). Organisational relationship quality and service employee acceptance of change in SMEs: a social exchange perspective. *Journal of Management & Organization*, *13*(02), 114-125.

Fazio, J., Gong, B., Sims, R., & Yurova, Y. (2017). The role of affective commitment in the relationship between social support and turnover intention. *Management Decision*, *55*(3), 512-525.

Ferrie, J. E., Shipley, M. J., Marmot, M. G., Martikainen, P., Stansfeld, S. A., & Smith, G. D. (2001). Job insecurity in white-collar workers: Toward an explanation of association with health. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6*(1), 26-42.

Ferris, G. R., & Rowland, K. M. (1996). *Research in personnel and human resource management*. JAI Press, Greenwich.

Ferris, G. R., Hochwarter, W. A., Buckley, M. R., Harrell-Cook, G., & Frink, D. D. (1999). Human resources management: Some new directions. *Journal of Management*, *25*(3), 385-415.

Ferris, G. R., Hall, A. T., Royle, M. T., & Martocchio, J. J. (2004). Theoretical development in the field of human resources management: Issues and challenges for the future. *Organizational Analysis*, *12*(3), 231-254.

Ferrer, J. (2005). Employee engagement: Is it organizational commitment renamed? Unpublished working paper, *Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia*. Retrieved from
http://eprints.vu.edu.au/123/1/wp8_2005_ferrer.pdf

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Sage publications.

Findley Musgrove, C., E. Ellinger, A., & D. Ellinger, A. (2014). Examining the influence of strategic profit emphases on employee engagement and service climate. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *26*(3/4), 152-171.

Fisher, C. D. (2010). Happiness at work. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *12*(4), 384-412.

Fleck, S., & Inceoglu, I. (2010). *A comprehensive framework for understanding and predicting engagement.* The Handbook of Employee Engagement: Perspectives, Issues, Research, & Practice, 31-42.

Flynn, F. J. (2003). How much should I give and how often? The effects of generosity and frequency of favor exchange on social status and productivity. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46*(5), 539-553.

Foa, U. G., & Foa, E. B. (1975). *Resource theory of social exchange*. General Learning Press.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(3), 382-388.

Frederiksen, N. (1986). Toward a broader conception of human intelligence. *American Psychologist*, *41*(4), 445-452.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, *56*(3), 218-226.

Freeney, Y., & Tiernan, J. (2006). Employee engagement: An overview of the literature on the proposed antithesis to burnout. *The Irish Journal of Psychology*, *27*(3-4), 130-141.

Frye, N. K., & Breaugh, J. A. (2004). Family-friendly policies, supervisor support, work–family conflict, family–work conflict, and satisfaction: A test of a conceptual model. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *19*(2), 197-220.

248

Fu, N., Ma, Q., Bosak, J., & Flood, P. (2015). Exploring the relationships between HPWS, organizational ambidexterity and firm performance in Chinese professional service firms. *Journal of Chinese Human Resource Management*, *6*(1), 52-70.

Gabris, G. T., & Simo, G. (1995). Public sector motivation as an independent variable affecting career decisions. *Public Personnel Management*, *24*(1), 33-51.

Gallardo, E., Sánchez-Cañizares, S. M., López-Guzmán, T., & Margarida Nascimento Jesus, M. (2010). Employee satisfaction in the Iberian hotel industry: the case of Andalusia (Spain) and the Algarve (Portugal). *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *22*(3), 321-334.

Gallucci, M., & Perugini, M. (2003). Information seeking and reciprocity: A transformational analysis. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *33*(4), 473-495.

Gallup Consulting (2017). *State of the global workplace.* Gallup Management Journal.

Gallup Consulting (2016). *The Worldwide Employee Engagement Crisis.* Gallup Management Journal.

Gan, T., & Gan, Y. (2014). Sequential development among dimensions of job burnout and engagement among IT employees. *Stress and Health*, *30*(2), 122-133.

Ganster, D. C., Fusilier, M. R., & Mayes, B. T. (1986). Role of social support in the experience of stress at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(1), 102-110.

Gardner, T. M., Wright, P. M., & Moynihan, L. M. (2011). The impact of motivation, empowerment, and skill-enhancing practices on aggregate voluntary turnover: The mediating effect of collective affective commitment. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*(2), 315-350.

Gay, L. R., & Diehl, P. L. (1992). *Research methods for business and management*. Macmillan Coll Division.

Geisser, S. (1974). A predictive approach to the random effect model. *Biometrika*, *61*(1), 101-107.

George, J. M., Reed, T. F., Ballard, K. A., Colin, J., & Fielding, J. (1993). Contact with AIDS patients as a source of work-related distress: Effects of organizational and social support. *Academy of Management Journal*, *36*(1), 157-171.

Ghosh, P., Rai, A., & Sinha, A. (2014). Organizational justice and employee engagement: Exploring the linkage in public sector banks in India. *Personnel Review*, *43*(4), 628-652.

Ghosh, P., Rai, A., Chauhan, R., & Srivastava, D. (2016). Rewards and recognition to engage private bank employees: Exploring the "obligation dimension". *Management Research Review*, *39*(12), 1738-1751.

Gill, C. (1999). *Use of hard and soft models of HRM to illustrate the gap between rhetoric and reality in workforce management*. RMIT Business.

Glazer, S. (2006). Social support across cultures. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *30*(5), 605-622.

Goffman, E. (1961). *Encounters: Two studies in the sociology of interaction.* Oxford, England: Bobbs-Merrill.

Gold, A. H., & Arvind Malhotra, A. H. S. (2001). Knowledge management: An organizational capabilities perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *18*(1), 185-214.

Gong, Y., & Chang, S. (2008). Institutional Antecedents and performance consequences of employment security and career advancement practices. *Human Resource Management*, *47*(1), 33-48.

Gong, Y., Law, K. S., Chang, S., & Xin, K. R. (2009). Human resources management and firm performance: The differential role of managerial affective and continuance commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(1), 263-275.

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 161-178.

González-Romá, V., Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Lloret, S. (2006). Burnout and work engagement: Independent factors or opposite poles?. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *68*(1), 165-174.

Gottlieb, D. (2015). The multidimensional adequacy of social insurance benefits and insurability. *International Social Security Review*, *68*(3), 69-98.

Government of Bangladesh (GOB). *The Bank Companies Act, 1991*. Ministry of Finance, GOB.

Götz, O., Liehr-Gobbers, K., & Krafft, M. (2010). Evaluation of structural equation models using the partial least squares (PLS) approach. *In Handbook of partial least squares* (pp. 691-711). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Graen, G. B. (2008). Enriched engagement through assistance to systems' change: A proposal. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *1*(1), 74-75.

Grandey, A. A., Goldberg, L. S., & Pugh, S. D. (2011). Why and When do Stores With Satisfied Employees Have Satisfied Customers? *Journal of Service Research*, *14*(4), 397-409.

Grau, L., Chandler, B., Burton, B., & Kolditz, D. (1991). Institutional loyalty and job satisfaction among nurse aides in nursing homes. *Journal of Aging and Health*, *3*(1), 47-65.

Gruman, J. A., & Saks, A. M. (2011). Performance management and employee engagement. *Human Resource Management Review*, *21*(2), 123-136.

Guchait, P., Paşamehmetoğlu, A., & Dawson, M. (2014). Perceived supervisor and co-worker support for error management: Impact on perceived psychological safety and service recovery performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *41(1)*, 28-37.

Guest, D. E. (1987). Human resource management and industrial relations. *Journal of Management Studies*, *24*(5), 503-521.

Guest, D. E. (1990). Human Resource Management and the American Dream. *Journal of Management Studies*, *27*(4), 377-397.

Guest, D. E. (1997). Human resource management and performance: a review and research agenda. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *8*(3), 263-276.

Gunlu, E., Aksarayli, M., & Sahin Perçin, N. (2010). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment of hotel managers in Turkey. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *22*(5), 693-717.

Gupta, V., & Kumar, S. (2012). Impact of performance appraisal justice on employee engagement: a study of Indian professionals. *Employee Relations*, *35*(1), 61-78.

Guthrie, J. P. (2001). High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: Evidence from New Zealand. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*(1), 180-190.

Gutierrez, A. P., Candela, L. L., & Carver, L. (2012). The structural relationships between organizational commitment, global job satisfaction, developmental experiences, work values, organizational support, and person-organization fit among nursing faculty. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *68*(7), 1601-1614.

Guzzo, R. A., & Noonan, K. A. (1994). Human resource practices as communications and the psychological contract. *Human Resource Management*, *33*(3), 447-462.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). Work redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Haines, V. Y., & St-Onge, S. (2012). Performance management effectiveness: practices or context? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *23*(6), 1158-1175.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (Vol. 6). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hair Jr, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2009). *Multivariate data analysis. (7th ed.).* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Mena, J. A. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *40*(3), 414-433.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling: Rigorous Applications, Better Results and Higher Acceptance. *Long Range Planning*, *46*(1-2), 1-12.

Hair, J.F., Hult, G.T.M., Ringle, C.M. & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling.* Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology*, *43*(6), 495-513.

Hakanen, J. J., Schaufeli, W. B., & Ahola, K. (2008). The Job Demands-Resources model: A three-year cross-lagged study of burnout, depression, commitment, and work engagement. *Work & Stress*, *22*(3), 224-241.

Hakanen, J. J., & Roodt, G. (2010). Using the job demands-resources model to predict engagement: Analysing a conceptual model. *Work Engagement: A Handbook of Essential Theory and Research*, 85-101.

Halbesleben, J. R. (2006). Sources of social support and burnout: a meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(5), 1134-1145.

Halbesleben, J. R., & Rotondo, D. M. (2007). Developing Social Support in Employees: Human Resource Development Lessons From Same-Career Couples. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *9*(4), 544-555.

Halbesleben, J. R. (2010). *A meta-analysis of work engagement: Relationships with burnout, demands, resources, and consequences.* Work engagement: A Handbook of Essential Theory and Research, 8, 102-117.

Hallberg, U. E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). "Same same" but different? Can work engagement be discriminated from job involvement and organizational commitment?. *European Psychologist*, *11*(2), 119-127.

Hallberg, U. E., Johansson, G., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2007). Type A behavior and work situation: Associations with burnout and work engagement. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *48*(2), 135-142.

Hansen, A., Byrne, Z., & Kiersch, C. (2014). How interpersonal leadership relates to employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *29*(8), 953-972.

Harman, H. H. (1976). *Modern factor analysis*. University of Chicago Press.

Hartline, M. D., Maxham III, J. G., & McKee, D. O. (2000). Corridors of influence in the dissemination of customer-oriented strategy to customer contact service employees. *Journal of Marketing*, *64*(2), 35-50.

252

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(2), 268-279.

Hassanzadeh, O., Chiang, F., Lee, H. C., & Miller, R. J. (2009). Framework for evaluating clustering algorithms in duplicate detection. *Proceedings of the VLDB Endowment*, *2*(1), 1282-1293.

Hatton, C., & Emerson, E. (1998). Brief report: Organisational predictors of actual staff turnover in a service for people with multiple disabilities. *Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities*, *11*(2), 166-171.

Hayes, D. K., & Ninemeier, J. D. (2009). *Human Resources Management in the Hospitality Industry*. John Wiley & Sons.

Hayes, A. F., & Preacher, K. J. (2010). Quantifying and testing indirect effects in simple mediation models when the constituent paths are nonlinear. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *45*(4), 627-660.

Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach* (1st ed.). New York: Guilford Press.

Hellgren, J., & Sverke, M. (2003). Does job insecurity lead to impaired well-being or vice versa? Estimation of cross-lagged effects using latent variable modelling. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *24*(2), 215-236.

Hemdi, M. A., & Nasurdin, A. M. (2005). Turnover intentions of Malaysian Hotel Employees: The role of human resource management practices and trust in organization. *Asean Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, *4*(2), 115-127.

Heneman, H. G. (1985). Pay satisfaction. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, *3*(2), 115-139.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009). The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. In *New Challenges to International Marketing* (pp. 277-319). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Henseler, J., & Fassott, G. (2010). Testing moderating effects in PLS path models: An illustration of available procedures. In V. E. Vinzi, W. W. Chin, J. Henseler & H. Wang (Eds.), *Handbook of partial least squares* (pp. 713-735). London: Springer.

Henseler, J., & Sarstedt, M. (2012). Goodness-of-fit indices for partial least squares path modeling. *Computational Statistics*, *28*(2), 565-580.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Academy of Marketing Science. Journal*, *43*(1), 115.

Henseler, J., Hubona, G., & Ray, P. A. (2016). Using PLS path modeling in new technology research: updated guidelines. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, *116*(1), 2-20.

Hennekam, S., & Herrbach, O. (2013). HRM practices and low occupational status older workers. *Employee Relations*, *35*(3), 339-355.

Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. P. (2002). Commitment to organizational change: extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 474-487.

Herzberg, F. (1968). *Work and the Nature of Man.* Granada, London.

Herzberg, F. (1986). *One more time: How do you motivate employees.* New York: The Leader Manager, 433-448.

Hewitt Associates LLC. (2004). Research brief: employee engagement higher at double-digit growth companies.

Hewitt, A. (2013). Managing engagement during times of change.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychology*, *6*(4), 307-324.

Hobfoll, S. E., Johnson, R. J., Ennis, N., & Jackson, A. P. (2003). Resource loss, resource gain, and emotional outcomes among inner city women. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*(3), 632-643.

Hochwarter, W. A., Witt, L. A., Treadway, D. C., & Ferris, G. R. (2006). The interaction of social skill and organizational support on job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(2), 482-489.

Hooi, L. W., & Ngui, K. S. (2014). Enhancing organizational performance of Malaysian SMEs The role of HRM and organizational learning capability. *International Journal of Manpower*, *35*(7), 973-995.

Hoon Song, J., Kolb, J. A., Hee Lee, U., & Kyoung Kim, H. (2012). Role of transformational leadership in effective organizational knowledge creation practices: Mediating effects of employees' work engagement. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *23*(1), 65-101.

Hoon Song, J., Hun Lim, D., Gu Kang, I., & Kim, W. (2014). Team performance in learning organizations: mediating effect of employee engagement. *The Learning Organization*, *21*(5), 290-309.

Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J. (2005). *Cultures and Organizations. Software of the Mind.* McGrawHill, New York.

Hombrados-Mendieta, I., & Cosano-Rivas, F. (2013). Burnout, workplace support, job satisfaction and life satisfaction among social workers in Spain: A structural equation model. *International Social Work*, *56*(2), 228-246.

Huang, C. C., You, C. S., & Tsai, M. T. (2012). A multidimensional analysis of ethical climate, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Nursing Ethics*, *19*(4), 513-529.

Huang, Y., Ma, Z., & Meng, Y. (2017). High-performance work systems and employee engagement: empirical evidence from China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*. Retrieved from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1744-7941.12140

Hudson, L. A., & Ozanne, J. L. (1988). Alternative ways of seeking knowledge in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(4), 508-521.

Hur, W. M., Han, S. J., Yoo, J. J., & Moon, T. W. (2015). The moderating role of perceived organizational support on the relationship between emotional labor and job-related outcomes. *Management Decision*, *53*(3), 605-624.

Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*(3), 635-672.

Huston, T. L., & Burgess, R. L. (1979). *Social exchange in developing relationships: An overview.* Social Exchange in Developing Relationships, 3-28.

Ibrahim, M., & Al Falasi, S. (2014). Employee loyalty and engagement in UAE public sector. *Employee Relations*, *36*(5), 562-582.

Ichniowski, C., Shaw, K., & Prennushi, G. (1997). The effects of human resource practices on manufacturing performance: A study of steel finishing lines. *American Economic Review*, *87*(3), 291-313.

Innanen, H., Tolvanen, A., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2014). Burnout, work engagement and workaholism among highly educated employees: Profiles, antecedents and outcomes. *Burnout Research*, *1*(1), 38-49.

Innstrand, S. T., Langballe, E. M., & Falkum, E. (2012). A longitudinal study of the relationship between work engagement and symptoms of anxiety and depression. *Stress and Health*, *28*(1), 1-10.

Ishak, N.K., Abdullah, F.Z., Ramli, Z.A., 2011. The association between hard and soft human resource management orientations in the Malaysian hotel organizations. *International Journal of Business and Social Science 2* (22), 213–220.

Iwasaki, Y., & Mannell, R. C. (2000). Hierarchical dimensions of leisure stress coping. *Leisure Sciences*, *22*(3), 163-181.

Iwata, N., & Suzuki, K. (1997). Role stress—mental health relations in Japanese bank workers: a moderating effect of social support. *Applied Psychology*, *46*(2), 207-218.

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1995). Understanding Human Resource Management in the Context of Organizations and their Environments. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *46*(1), 237-264.

Jahan, S. (2014, November-December). Employee Turnover of selected Commercial Banks in Bangladesh: An empirical study. *The cost and management, 42*(6), 16-23

Jaiswal, D., & Dhar, R. L. (2016). Impact of perceived organizational support, psychological empowerment and leader member exchange on commitment and its subsequent impact on service quality. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *65*(1), 58-79.

Jamaludin, Z. (2009). Perceived organizational justice and its impact to the development of commitments: a regression analysis. *World Journal of Management*, *1*(1), 49-61.

Jaros, S. J., Jermier, J. M., Koehler, J. W., & Sincich, T. (1993). Effects of continuance, affective, and moral commitment on the withdrawal process: An evaluation of eight structural equation models. *Academy of Management Journal*, *36*(5), 951-995.

Jawahar, I. M. (2007). The influence of perceptions of fairness on performance appraisal reactions. *Journal of Labor Research*, *28*(4), 735-754.

Jenaro, C., Flores, N., Orgaz, M. B., & Cruz, M. (2011). Vigour and dedication in nursing professionals: towards a better understanding of work engagement. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *67*(4), 865-875.

Jiang, K., Lepak, D. P., Hu, J., & Baer, J. C. (2012). How does human resource management influence organizational outcomes? A meta-analytic investigation of mediating mechanisms. *Academy of management Journal*, *55*(6), 1264-1294.

Jin, M., McDonald, B., & Park, J. (2016). Followership and job satisfaction in the public sector: The moderating role of perceived supervisor support and performance-oriented culture. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, *29*(3), 218-237.

Jinzhao, W. (2007). Innovations of Human Resource Management in Lodging Industry. *Canadian Social Science*, 3(6), 58-63.

Joarder, M. H., Sharif, M. Y., & Ahmmed, K. (2011). Mediating role of affective commitment in HRM practices and turnover intention relationship: A study in a developing context. *Business and Economics Research Journal*, *2*(4), 135-158.

Johari, J. O. H. A. N. I. M., Yean, T. F., Adnan, Z. U. R. I. N. A., Yahya, K. K., & Ahmad, M. N. (2012). Promoting employee intention to stay: Do human resource management practices matter. *International Journal Economics and Management*, *6*(2), 396-416.

256

Johari, J., Adnan, Z., Tan, F. Y., Yahya, K. K., & Isa, S. N. (2013). Fostering employee engagement through human resource practices: A case of manufacturing firms in Malaysia. *Jurnal Pengurusan*, *38(1)*, 15-26.

Johnston, M. W., Parasuraman, A., Futrell, C. M., & Black, W. C. (1990). A longitudinal assessment of the impact of selected organizational influences on salespeople's organizational commitment during early employment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 27(3), 333-344.

Johnson, K. (1983). Payment in the hotel industry: The role of fringe benefits. *Service Industries Journal*, *3*(2), 191-213.

Johnson, G. (2004). Otherwise engaged. *Training, 41* (10), 4-4.

Joiner, T. A. (2007). Total quality management and performance: The role of organization support and co-worker support. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, *24*(6), 617-627.

Joo, B. K., & Park, S. (2010). Career satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention: The effects of goal orientation, organizational learning culture and developmental feedback. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *31*(6), 482-500.

Joolideh, F., & Yeshodhara, K. (2009). Organizational commitment among high school teachers of India and Iran. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *47*(1), 127-136.

Jordan, P. J., Lawrence, S. A., & Troth, A. C. (2006). The impact of negative mood on team performance. *Journal of Management & Organization*, *12*(2), 131-145.

Jose, G., & Mampilly, S. R. (2014). Psychological Empowerment as a Predictor of Employee Engagement: An Empirical Attestation. *Global Business Review*, *15*(1), 93-104.

Jorge Correia de Sousa, M., & van Dierendonck, D. (2014). Servant leadership and engagement in a merge process under high uncertainty. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *27*(6), 877-899.

Juhdi, N., Pa'wan, F., & Hansaram, R. M. K. (2013). HR Practices and Turnover intention: The mediating roles of organizational commitment and organizational engagement in a selected region in Malaysia. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(15), 3002-3019.

Kacmar, K. M., Carlson, D. S., & Brymer, R. A. (1999). Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment: A comparison of two scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *59*(6), 976-994.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, *33*(4), 692-724.

Kahn, W. A. (1992). To be fully there: Psychological presence at work. *Human relations*, 45(4), 321-349.

Kalemci Tuzun, I., & Arzu Kalemci, R. (2012). Organizational and supervisory support in relation to employee turnover intentions. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *27*(5), 518-534.

Kalliath, T. J., & Beck, A. (2001). Is the path to burnout and turnover paved by a lack of supervisory support? A structural equations test. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, *30*(2), 72-78.

Kamoche, K. (1996). Strategic human resource management within a resource-capability view of the firm. *Journal of Management Studies*, *33*(2), 213-233.

Kang, M., & Sung, M. (2017). How symmetrical employee communication leads to employee engagement and positive employee communication behaviors: The mediation of employee-organization relationships. *Journal of Communication Management*, *21*(1), 82-102.

Kanter, R. M. (1968). Commitment and social organization: A study of commitment mechanisms in utopian communities. *American Sociological Review*, 33(4), 499-517.

Kara, D., Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., & Lee, G. (2013). The effects of leadership style on employee well-being in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *34*, 9-18. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.02.001

Karasek, R. A. (1985). *Job content instrument: Questionnaire and user's guide (Rev. 1.1).* Los Angeles: University of Southern California.

Karasek, R. A., & Theorell, T. (1990). *Health work. Basic Book,* New York.

Karatepe, O. M., & Kilic, H. (2007). Relationships of supervisor support and conflicts in the work–family interface with the selected job outcomes of frontline employees. *Tourism Management*, *28*(1), 238-252.

Karatepe, O. M. (2011). The effects of coworker and perceived organizational support on hotel employee outcomes: The moderating role of job embeddedness. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 36(*4), 495-516

Karatepe, O. M. (2011). Do job resources moderate the effect of emotional dissonance on burnout? A study in the city of Ankara, Turkey. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *23*(1), 44-65.

Karatepe, O. M., & Olugbade, O. A. (2009). The effects of job and personal resources on hotel employees' work engagement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *28*(4), 504-512.

258

Karatepe, O. M. (2013). High-performance work practices and hotel employee performance: The mediation of work engagement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *32*, 132-140. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.05.003

Karatepe, O. M., Keshavarz, S., & Nejati, S. (2010). Do core self-evaluations mediate the effect of coworker support on work engagement? A study of hotel employees in Iran. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *17*(1), 62-71.

Karatepe, O. M., Beirami, E., Bouzari, M., & Safavi, H. P. (2014). Does work engagement mediate the effects of challenge stressors on job outcomes? Evidence from the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *36(1)*, 14-22.

Katou, A. A. (2017). How does Human Resource Management influence Organisational Performance? An Integrative Approach Based Analysis. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *66*(6), 797-821.

Kane, M., & Sand, P. (1988). *Economic Development: what works at the local Level*. National League of Cities.

Kaufmann, G. M., & Beehr, T. A. (1986). Interactions between job stressors and social support: Some counterintuitive results. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 522-526.

Keat, R., & Urry, J. (1975). *Social theory as science.* (Routledge Revivals). Routledge

Keller, K. L. (2003). Building, measuring, and managing brand equity. *International Edition, Peatson Edition*.

Kelman, H. C. (1958). Compliance, identification, and internalization three processes of attitude change. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, *2*(1), 51-60.

Khatoon, T., Amin, M. R., & Hossain, M. M. (2013). Strategic human resource management (SHRM) practices and its effect on financial performance: evidence from some selected scheduled private commercial banks in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Economics, Finance and Management Sciences, 1(*3), 151-158.

Kifle, H., Wohlgemuth, L., & Olukoshi, A. O. (1997). *Towards a New Partnership for African Development—An Introductory Synthesis.* A New Partnership for African Development: Issues and Parameters, 9.

Kim, S. (2005). Factors affecting state government information technology employee turnover intentions. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *35*(2), 137-156.

Kim, B. P., Murrmann, S. K., & Lee, G. (2009a). Moderating effects of gender and organizational level between role stress and job satisfaction among hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *28*(4), 612-619.

Kim, H. J., Shin, K. H., & Swanger, N. (2009b). Burnout and engagement: A comparative analysis using the Big Five personality dimensions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *28*(1), 96-104.

Kim, A., & Lee, C. (2012). How does HRM enhance strategic capabilities? Evidence from the Korean management consulting industry. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *23*(1), 126-146.

Kingir, S., & Mesci, M. (2010). Factors that affect hotel employees motivation the case of Bodrum. *Serbian Journal of Management*, *5*(1), 59-76.

Kinnunen, U., Feldt, T., & Mäkikangas, A. (2008). Testing the effort-reward imbalance model among Finnish managers: The role of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *13*(2), 114-127.

Kirmeyer, S. L., & Dougherty, T. W. (1988). Work load, tension, and coping: Moderating effects of supervisor support. *Personnel Psychology*, *41*(1), 125-139.

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Methodology in the social sciences.* New York: Guilford Press.

Kline, R. B. (2011). Convergence of Structural Equation Modeling and Multilevel Modeling. In M. Williams (Ed.), *Handbook of methodological innovation.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ko, J., & Smith-Walter, A. (2013). The Relationship between HRM Practices and Organizational Performance in the Public Sector: Focusing on Mediating Roles of Work Attitudes. *International Review of Public Administration*, *18*(3), 209-231.

Koch, J. L., & Steers, R. M. (1978). Job attachment, satisfaction, and turnover among public sector employees. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *12*(1), 119-128.

Korczynski, M. (2003). Communities of coping: collective emotional labour in service work. *Organization*, *10*(1), 55-79.

Korunka, C., Kubicek, B., Schaufeli, W. B., & Hoonakker, P. (2009). Work engagement and burnout: Testing the robustness of the Job Demands-Resources model. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *4*(3), 243-255.

Kossek, E. E., Pichler, S., Bodner, T., & Hammer, L. B. (2011). Workplace social support and work–family conflict: A meta-analysis clarifying the influence of general and work–family-specific supervisor and organizational support. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*(2), 289-313.

Kottke, J. L., & Sharafinski, C. E. (1988). Measuring perceived supervisory and organizational support. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *48*(4), 1075-1079.

Kowalski, B. (2003). The engagement gap. *Training, 40* (4), 62-62.

Koys, D. J. (1988). Human resourec management and a culture of Respect: Effects on employees' organizational commitment. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *1*(1), 57-68.

Koys, D. J. (1991). Fairness, legal compliance, and organizational commitment. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *4*(4), 283-291.

Kraimer, M. L., Wayne, S. J., Liden, R. C., & Sparrowe, R. T. (2005). The role of job security in understanding the relationship between employees' perceptions of temporary workers and employees' performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(2), 389-398.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). *Determining sample size for research activities.* Educ Psychol Meas.

Krischer, M. M., Penney, L. M., & Hunter, E. M. (2010). Can counterproductive work behaviors be productive? CWB as emotion-focused coping. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(2), 154-166.

Kühnel, J., Sonnentag, S., & Westman, M. (2009). Does work engagement increase after a short respite? The role of job involvement as a double-edged sword. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *82*(3), 575-594.

Kular, S., Gatenby, M., Rees, C., Soane, E., & Truss, K. (2008). *Employee Engagement: a Literature Review*. Kingston Business School, Kingston University.

Kumar, B. P., & Giri, V. N. (2009). Effect of age and experience on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *ICFAI Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *8*(1), 28-36.

Kupczynski, M. (2015). Significance tests and sample homogeneity loophole. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1505.06349*. Retrieved from https://arxiv.org/ftp/arxiv/papers/1505/1505.06349.pdf

Kusluvan, S., Kusluvan, Z., Ilhan, I., & Buyruk, L. (2010). The human dimension a review of human resources management issues in the tourism and hospitality industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *51*(2), 171-214.

La Rocco, J. M., & Jones, A. P. (1978). Co-worker and leader support as moderators of stress-strain relationships in work situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *63*(5), 629-634.

Laabs, J. (2000). Strategic HR Won't Come Easily Being a" strategic partner" may sound like business as usual for human resources. *Workforce-Costa Mesa*, *79*(1), 52-61.

Lado, A. A., & Wilson, M. C. (1994). Human resource systems and sustained competitive advantage: A competency-based perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *19*(4), 699-727.

Laka-Mathebula, M. R. (2004). *Modelling the Relationship Between Organizational Commitment, Leadership Style, Human Resources Management Practices and Organizational Trust* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria Pretoria).

Lamba, S., & Choudhary, N. (2013). Impact of HRM practices on organizational commitment of employees. *International Journal of Advancements in Research & Technology*, *2*(4), 407-423.

Lambert, D. M., & Harrington, T. C. (1990). Measuring nonresponse bias in customer service mail surveys. *Journal of Business Logistics*, *11*(2), 5-12

Langford, C. P. H., Bowsher, J., Maloney, J. P., & Lillis, P. P. (1997). Social support: a conceptual analysis. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *25*(1), 95-100.

Lardner, S. (2015). Effective reward ensures effective engagement. *Strategic HR Review*, *14*(4), 131-134.

Laschinger, H. K. S., Finegan, J., Shamian, J., & Casier, S. (2000). Organizational trust and empowerment in restructured healthcare settings: effects on staff nurse commitment. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, *30*(9), 413-425.

Latham, G. P., & Mann, S. (2006). *Advances in the science of performance appraisal: Implications for practice.* John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Leavy, R. L. (1983). Social support and psychological disorder: A review. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 11(1), 3-21

Lee, S. H., & Olshfski, D. (2002). An examination of variations in the nature of employee commitment: The case of paid and volunteer firefighters. *International Review of Public Administration*, *7*(1), 29-38.

Lee, C. H., & Bruvold, N. T. (2003). Creating value for employees: investment in employee development. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *14*(6), 981-1000.

Lee, N., & Cadogan, J. W. (2009). Sales force social exchange in problem resolution situations. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *38*(3), 355-372.

Lee, J., & Ok, C. (2015). Hotel Employee Work Engagement and Its Consequences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 25(2), 133-166

Lee, J. J. (2015). Drivers of work engagement: An examination of core self-evaluations and psychological climate among hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *44(1)*, 84-98.

Lee, J. J., & Ok, C. M. (2013). Examination of Factors Affecting Hotel Employees' Service Orientation: An Emotional Labor Perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 39(4), 437-468.

Lee, J. J., & Ok, C. M. (2014). Understanding hotel employees' service sabotage: Emotional labor perspective based on conservation of resources theory. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *36(1)*, 176-187.

Lee, Y. K., Kim, S., & Kim, S. Y. (2014). The Impact of Internal Branding on Employee Engagement and Outcome Variables in the Hotel Industry. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *19*(12), 1359-1380.

Legge, K. (1975). Authority, ambiguity and adaptation: the personnel specialist's dilemma. *Industrial Relations Journal*, *6*(3), 51-65.

Legge, K. (1995). *Human resource management: Rhetorics and Realities*. London: Macmillan.

Legge, K. (2006). *HRM: Rhetorics and realities (2e.)*. Basinstoke, Macmillan.

Lemieux, T., MacLeod, W. B., & Parent, D. (2009). Performance Pay and Wage Inequality*. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *124*(1), 1-49.

Leroy, H., Anseel, F., Dimitrova, N. G., & Sels, L. (2013). Mindfulness, authentic functioning, and work engagement: A growth modeling approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *82*(3), 238-247.

Levy, P. E., & Williams, J. R. (2004). The social context of performance appraisal: A review and framework for the future. *Journal of Management*, *30*(6), 881-905.

Lewicka, D., & Krot, K. (2015). The model of HRM-trust-commitment relationships. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, *115*(8), 1457-1480.

Li, J. (2003). Strategic human resource management and MNEs' performance in China. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *14*(2), 157-173.

Li, X., Sanders, K., & Frenkel, S. (2012). How leader–member exchange, work engagement and HRM consistency explain Chinese luxury hotel employees' job performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *31*(4), 1059-1066.

Liao, H., Toya, K., Lepak, D. P., & Hong, Y. (2009). Do they see eye to eye? Management and employee perspectives of high-performance work systems and influence processes on service quality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(2), 371-391.

Liden, R. C., Sparrowe, R. T., & Wayne, S. J. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, *15*, 47-120.

Lin, Y. S., Huang, W. S., Yang, C. T., & Chiang, M. J. (2014). Work–leisure conflict and its associations with well-being: The roles of social support, leisure participation and job burnout. *Tourism Management*, *45*, 244-252.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry* (Vol. 75). Sage.

Ling Suan, C., & Mohd Nasurdin, A. (2016). Supervisor support and work engagement of hotel employees in Malaysia: Is it different for men and women?. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, *31*(1), 2-18.

Liu, Y., Combs, J. G., Ketchen, D. J., & Ireland, R. D. (2007). The value of human resource management for organizational performance. *Business Horizons*, *50*(6), 503-511.

Lively, K. J. (2000). Reciprocal emotion management working together to maintain stratification in private law firms. *Work and Occupations*, *27*(1), 32-63.

Lively, K. J., & Powell, B. (2006). Emotional expression at work and at home: Domain, status, or individual characteristics?. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *69*(1), 17-38.

Lockwood, N. R. (2007). *Leveraging employee engagement for competitive advantage.* Society for Human Resource Management Research Quarterly, 1, 1-12.

Loi, R., Hang-Yue, N., & Foley, S. (2006). Linking employees' justice perceptions to organizational commitment and intention to leave: The mediating role of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *79*(1), 101-120.

Loi, R., Ao, O. K., & Xu, A. J. (2014). Perceived organizational support and coworker support as antecedents of foreign workers' voice and psychological stress. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *36(1)*, 23-30.

López-Gamero, M. D., Molina-Azorín, J. F., & Claver-Cortes, E. (2009). The whole relationship between environmental variables and firm performance: Competitive advantage and firm resources as mediator variables. *Journal of Environmental Management*, *90*(10), 3110-3121.

Loscocco, K. A., & Spitze, G. (1990). Working conditions, social support, and the well-being of female and male factory workers. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 31(4), 313-327.

Lowry, P. B., & Gaskin, J. (2014). Partial least squares (PLS) structural equation modeling (SEM) for building and testing behavioral causal theory: When to choose it and how to use it. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *57*(2), 123-146.

Lu, K., Zhu, J., & Bao, H. (2015). High-performance human resource management and firm performance: The mediating role of innovation in China. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, *115*(2), 353-382.

Luk, D. M., & Shaffer, M. A. (2005). Work and family domain stressors and support: Within-and cross-domain influences on work–family conflict. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *78*(4), 489-508.

Luna-Arocas, R., & Camps, J. (2007). A model of high performance work practices and turnover intentions. *Personnel Review*, *37*(1), 26-46.

Lytle, R. S. (1997). *Service orientation, market orientation, and performance: An Organizational Culture Perspective*. University Microfilms.

M. Karatepe, O., & Demir, E. (2014). Linking core self-evaluations and work engagement to work-family facilitation: A study in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *26*(2), 307-323.

Ma, S., Silva, M. G., Callan, V. J., & Trigo, V. (2015). Control and commitment HR practices, job satisfaction and turnover intentions: a comparison between local and multinational firms in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(9), 974-990.

Mackay, M. M., Allen, J. A., & Landis, R. S. (2017). Investigating the incremental validity of employee engagement in the prediction of employee effectiveness: A meta-analytic path analysis. *Human Resource Management Review*, *27*(1), 108-120.

Macky, K., & Boxall, P. (2007). The relationship between 'high-performance work practices' and employee attitudes: an investigation of additive and interaction effects. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(4), 537-567.

Masum, A. K. M., Azad, M. A. K., & Beh, L. S. (2015). The role of human resource management practices in bank performance. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 27(3-4), 382-397.

Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *1*(1), 3-30.

Macey, W. H., Schneider, B., Barbera, K. M., & Young, S. A. (2009). *Employee engagement: Tools for analysis, practice, and competitive advantage.* John Wiley & Sons.

MacDuffie, J. P. (1995). Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: Organizational logic and flexible production systems in the world auto industry. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, *48*(2), 197-221.

MacKinnon, D. P. (2000). Contrasts in multiple mediator models. In J. Rose, L. Chassin, C. C. Presson, & S. J. Sherman (Eds.), *Multi-variate applications in substance use research: New methods for new questions* (141-160). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum

MacKinnon, D. P. (2008). *Introduction to Statistical Mediation Analysis*. Routledge.

MacLeod, D., & Clarke, N. (2009). *Engaging for success: enhancing performance through employee engagement: a report to government.* PsycEXTRA Dataset

Maertz, C. P., Stevens, M. J., & Campion, M. A. (2003). A turnover model for the Mexican maquiladoras. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *63*(1), 111-135.

Maertz, C. P., Griffeth, R. W., Campbell, N. S., & Allen, D. G. (2007). The effects of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support on employee turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *28*(8), 1059-1075.

Majumder, M. T. H. (2012). Human resource management practices and employees' satisfaction towards private banking sector in Bangladesh. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, *2*(1), 52-58.

Manion, J. (2004). Strengthening organizational commitment: Understanding the concept as a basis for creating effective workforce retention strategies. *The Health Care Manager*, *23*(2), 167-176.

Mansour, N., Gara, E., & Gaha, C. (2014). Getting inside the black box: HR practices and firm performance within the Tunisian financial services industry. *Personnel Review*, *43*(4), 490-514.

Marescaux, E., De Winne, S., & Sels, L. (2012). HR practices and HRM outcomes: The role of basic need satisfaction. *Personnel Review*, *42*(1), 4-27.

Martin, A., Mactaggart, D., & Bowden, J. (2006). The barriers to the recruitment and retention of supervisors/managers in the Scottish tourism industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *18*(5), 380-397.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*(1), 397-422.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (1997). *The truth about burnout: how organization cause, personal stress and what to do about it.* San. Rancisco: Jossey-Bass.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2008). Early predictors of job burnout and engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(3), 498-512.

Maslow, A. H., Frager, R., & Cox, R. (1970). *Motivation and Personality* (Vol. 2). J. Fadiman, & C. McReynolds (Eds.). New York: Harper & Row.

Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, *108*(2), 171-194.

Mathieu, A., Bruvold, N. T., & Ritchey, P. N. (2000). Subcultural research on organizational commitment with the 15 OCQ invariant instrument. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, *20*(3), 129-138.

Mauno, S., Kinnunen, U., & Ruokolainen, M. (2007). Job demands and resources as antecedents of work engagement: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *70*(1), 149-171.

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *77*(1), 11-37.

Mellahi, K., Demirbag, M., Collings, D. G., Tatoglu, E., & Hughes, M. (2013). Similarly different: a comparison of HRM practices in MNE subsidiaries and local firms in Turkey. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(12), 2339-2368.

Menaghan, E. G. (1991). Work experiences and family interaction processes: the long reach of the job?. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 17(1), 419-444.

Mendelson, H., & Pillai, R. R. (1999). Information age organizations, dynamics and performance. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, *38*(3), 253-281.

Meng, F., & Wu, J. (2015). Merit pay fairness, leader-member exchange, and job engagement: Evidence from mainland China. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *35*(1), 47-69.

Menguc, B., & Boichuk, J. P. (2012). Customer orientation dissimilarity, sales unit identification, and customer-directed extra-role behaviors: Understanding the contingency role of coworker support. *Journal of Business Research*, *65*(9), 1357-1363.

Menguc, B., Auh, S., Fisher, M., & Haddad, A. (2013). To be engaged or not to be engaged: The antecedents and consequences of service employee engagement. *Journal of Business Besearch*, *66*(11), 2163-2170.

Meyer, J. P., Paunonen, S. V., Gellatly, I. R., Goffin, R. D., & Jackson, D. N. (1989). Organizational commitment and job performance: It's the nature of the commitment that counts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(1), 152-156.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, *1*(1), 61-89.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(4), 538-551.

Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N.J. (1997). *Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research an Application.* Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review*, *11*(3), 299-326.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *61*(1), 20-52.

Meyer, J., Becker, T., & Van Dick, R. (2007). Social identities and commitments at work: Toward an integrative model. In *Human Resources Abstracts* 27(5), 665-683.

Meyer, J. P., & Maltin, E. R. (2010). Employee commitment and well-being: A critical review, theoretical framework and research agenda. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *77*(2), 323-337.

Mian, A. (2003). Foreign, private domestic, and government banks: New evidence from emerging markets. *Journal of Banking and Finance*, *27*(7), 1219-1410.

Miller, P. (1987). Strategic industrial relations and human resource management: distinction, definition and recognition. *Journal of Management Studies*, *24*(4), 347-361.

Miller, N. G., Erickson, A., & Yust, B. L. (2001). Sense of place in the workplace: The relationship between personal objects and job satisfaction and motivation. *Journal of Interior Design*, *27*(1), 35-44.

Milgrom, P., & Roberts, J. (1995). Complementarities and fit strategy, structure, and organizational change in manufacturing. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, *19*(2), 179-208.

Moideenkutty, U., Al-Lamki, A., & Sree Rama Murthy, Y. (2011). HRM practices and organizational performance in Oman. *Personnel Review*, *40*(2), 239-251.

Mohapatra, M., & Sharma, B. R. (2010). Study of employee engagement and its predictors in an indian public sector undertaking. *Global Business Review*, *11*(2), 281-301.

Mondy, R. W., & Noe, R. M. (2005). *Human Resource Management Ninth Edition: International Edition.* New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall

Mone, E. M., & London, M. (2014). *Employee engagement through effective performance management: A practical guide for managers*. Routledge.

Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. L., & Niehoff, B. P. (1998). Does perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior?. *Academy of Management Journal*, *41*(3), 351-357.

Morley, M. J., Gunnigle, P., O'Sullivan, M., & Collings, D. G. (2006). New directions in the roles and responsibilities of the HRM function. *Personnel Review*, *35*(6), 609-617.

Motowidlo, S. J. (1983). Predicting sales turnover from pay satisfaction and expectation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *68*(3), 484-489.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *14*(2), 224-247.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkage. The Psychology of Commitment Absenteism, and Turn Over.* Academic Press Inc. London.

Mueller, F. (1996). Human resources as strategic assets: an evolutionary resource-based theory. *Journal of Management Studies*, *33*(6), 757-785.

Munn, E. K., Berber, C. E., & Fritz, J. J. (1996). Factors affecting the professional well-being of child life specialists. *Children's Health Care*, *25*(2), 71-91.

Murphy, K. R., & Cleveland, J. (1995). *Understanding performance appraisal: Social, Organizational, and Goal-based Perspectives*. Sage.

Murrell, A. J., & Dietz, B. (1992). Fan support of sport teams: The effect of a common group identity. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *14(1), 28-39*.

N. Theriou, G., & Chatzoglou, P. (2014). The impact of best HRM practices on performance–identifying enabling factors. *Employee Relations*, *36*(5), 535-561.

Nahum-Shani, I., Bamberger, P. A., & Bacharach, S. B. (2011). Social support and employee well-being the conditioning effect of perceived patterns of supportive exchange. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, *52*(1), 123-139.

Nahum-Shani, I., & Bamberger, P. A. (2011). Work hours, retirement, and supportive relations among older adults. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*(2), 345-369.

Nahum-Shani, I., & Bamberger, P. A. (2011). Explaining the variable effects of social support on work-based stressor–strain relations: The role of perceived pattern of support exchange. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *114*(1), 49-63.

Narsavage, D. (Ed.). (2008). *A History of Human Resources Management*. Alexandria, VA:
Society for Human Resources Management.

Nasomboon, B. (2014). The Relationship among Leadership Commitment, Organizational Performance, and Employee Engagement. *International Business Research*, *7*(9), 77-90.

Nazir, S., Shafi, A., Qun, W., Nazir, N., & Tran, Q. D. (2016). Influence of organizational rewards on organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *Employee Relations*, *38*(4), 596-619.

Nazir, O., & Islam, J. U. (2017). Enhancing organizational commitment and employee performance through employee engagement: An empirical check. *South Asian Journal of Business Studies*, *6*(1), 98-114.

Neuman, W. L. (1997). *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Allyn & Bacon. Needham Heights, USA.

Neuman, W. L. (2000). *Social research method.* University of Wisconsin at Whitewater.

Ngo, H. Y., Jiang, C. Y., & Loi, R. (2014). Linking HRM competency to firm performance: an empirical investigation of Chinese firms. *Personnel Review*, *43*(6), 898-914.

Nguyen C. V., Islam A. M., & Ali M. M. (2011). *The Current State of the Financial Sector of Bangladesh: An Analysis.* AIUB Bus Econ Working Paper Series, No. 2011-03.

Nishii, L. H., Lepak, D. P., & Schneider, B. (2008). Employee attributions of the "why" of HR practices: Their effects on employee attitudes and behaviors, and customer satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, *61*(3), 503-545.

Noe, R. A., Hollenbeck, J. R., Gerhart, B., & Wright, P. M. (2010). *Manajemen Sumber Daya Manusia: Mencapai Keunggulan Bersaing.* Human Resources Management: Gaining a Competitive Advantage.

Northcraft, T., & Neale, H. (1996). Organisation behaviour. *London: Prentice-Hall. Nwagwu, CC (1997). The environment of crisis in the Nigerian Education System. Journal of Comparative Education*, *33*(1), 87-95.

Nugent, P. D., & Abolafia, M. Y. (2006). The creation of trust through interaction and exchange the role of consideration in organizations. *Group & Organization Management*, *31*(6), 628-650.

Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric Theory.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

O'Donohue, W., & Torugsa, N. (2016). The moderating effect of 'Green'HRM on the association between proactive environmental management and financial performance in small firms. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *27*(2), 239-261.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2007). Sampling designs in qualitative research: Making the sampling process more public. *The qualitative report*, *12*(2), 238-254.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 492-499.

Ogunyomi, P., & Bruning, N. S. (2015). Human resource management and organizational performance of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Nigeria. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(6), 612-634.

Ostrom, E. (2010). Beyond markets and states: polycentric governance of complex economic systems. *The American Economic Review*, 100(3), 641-672.

Othman, N., & Nasurdin, A. M. (2013). Social support and work engagement: a study of Malaysian nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *21*(8), 1083-1090.

Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS survival manual: A step-by-step guide to data analysis using SPSS version 15.* Maidenhead, Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill Education.

Pallant, J. (2011). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS* (4th ed.). Crows Nest, Australia: McGraw-Hill International.

Panaccio, A., & Vandenberghe, C. (2009). Perceived organizational support, organizational commitment and psychological well-being: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *75*(2), 224-236.

Panari, C., Guglielmi, D., Simbula, S., & Depolo, M. (2010). Can an opportunity to learn at work reduce stress? A revisitation of the job demand-control model. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *22*(3), 166-179.

Papalexandris, N., & Galanaki, E. (2009). Leadership's impact on employee engagement: Differences among entrepreneurs and professional CEOs. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *30*(4), 365-385.

Parker, S. K., & Griffin, M. A. (2011). Understanding active psychological states: Embedding engagement in a wider nomological net and closer attention to performance. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *20*(1), 60-67.

Parzefall, M. R., & Hakanen, J. (2010). Psychological contract and its motivational and health-enhancing properties. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *25*(1), 4-21.

Payne, S. C., & Huffman, A. H. (2005). A longitudinal examination of the influence of mentoring on organizational commitment and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(1), 158-168.

Payne, M. (2005). *The Path from an Administrative to a Strategic Function: A Comparative Study of Human Resource Managers' Competencies.* Available on ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 304909568). Ph.D. Thesis.

Pereira, C. M., & Gomes, J. F. (2012). The strength of human resource practices and transformational leadership: impact on organisational performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *23*(20), 4301-4318.

Perrin, T. (2003). *Working today: Understanding what drives employee engagement.* Retrieved on January 22, 2015.

Perrone, V., Zaheer, A., & McEvily, B. (2003). Free to be trusted? Organizational constraints on trust in boundary spanners. *Organization Science*, *14*(4), 422-439.

Perugini, M., & Gallucci, M. (2001). Individual differences and social norms: The distinction between reciprocators and prosocials. *European Journal of Personality*, *15*(1), 19-35.

Perugini, M., Gallucci, M., Presaghi, F., & Ercolani, A. P. (2003). The personal norm of reciprocity. *European Journal of Personality*, *17*(4), 251-283.

Peterson, R. B., & Lewin, D. (2000). Research on unionized grievance procedures: Management issues and recommendations. *Human Resource Management*, *39*(4), 395-406.

Peterson, R. A., & Kim, Y. (2013). On the relationship between coefficient alpha and composite reliability. Journal of Applied Psychology, 98(1), 194-198.

Petrocelli, J. V. (2003). Hierarchical multiple regression in counseling research: Common problems and possible remedies. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, *36*(1), 9-22.

Pfeffer, J. (1998). *The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First*. Harvard Business Press.

Pfeffer, J. (2010). Building sustainable organizations: The human factor. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, *24*(1), 34-45.

Piasna, A., Smith, M., Rose, J., Rubery, J., Burchell, B., & Rafferty, A. (2013). Participatory HRM practices and job quality of vulnerable workers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(22), 4094-4115.

Pizam, A., & Thornburg, S. W. (2000). Absenteeism and voluntary turnover in Central Florida hotels: a pilot study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *19*(2), 211-217.

Plaza-Úbeda, J. A., de Burgos-Jiménez, J., & Carmona-Moreno, E. (2010). Measuring stakeholder integration: knowledge, interaction and adaptational behavior dimensions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *93*(3), 419-442.

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Management*, *12*(4), 531-544.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879.

Pokrant, B. (2001). Economic Development in Bangladesh: Recent Trends. *Curtin University of Technology* viewed on 10 August 2015, <http://www.sueztosuva.org.au/south_asia/2007/Pokrant.pdf>.

Popaitoon, S., & Siengthai, S. (2014). The moderating effect of human resource management practices on the relationship between knowledge absorptive capacity and project performance in project-oriented companies. *International Journal of Project Management*, *32*(6), 908-920.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *59*(5), 603-609.

Porter, M. (2006). Leader as strategist: Create a unique position. *Leadership Excellence*,

23(6), 6-7.

Poyraz, K., & Kama, U. B. (2008). Perceived job security, job satisfaction, examining their impact on organizational commitment and intention to leave the job. Süleyman Demirel University *Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences, 13* (2), 143-164.

Prajapati, B., Dunne, M., & Armstrong, R. (2010). Sample size estimation and statistical power analyses. *Optometry Today*, *16*(07), 10-18.

Presbitero, A. (2017). How do changes in human resource management practices influence employee engagement? A longitudinal study in a hotel chain in the Philippines. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, *16*(1), 56-70.

Price, J. L. (2001). Reflections on the determinants of voluntary turnover. *International Journal of Manpower*, *22*(7), 600-624.

Probst, T. M. (2003). Development and validation of the Job Security Index and the Job Security Satisfaction Scale: A classical test theory and IRT approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 76(4), 451-467.

Pugliesi, K. (1995). Work and well-being: Gender differences in the psychological consequences of employment. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 36(1), 57-71.

Purang, P., & Sharma, A. (2007). Value Institutionalization Enhances Commitment: Perspective of Culture in Indian Organisations. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 43(1), 13-32.

Qureshi, T. M., Akbar, A. K., & MA, S. RA, & Hijazi, ST (2010). *Do Human Resource Management Practices Have an Impact on Financial Performance of Banks*? African Journal of Business Management, 4(7), 1281-1288.

Raeder, S., Knorr, U., & Hilb, M. (2012). Human resource management practices and psychological contracts in Swiss firms: an employer perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *23*(15), 3178-3195.

Rahman, S., Pervin, J., Jahan, S., Nasrullah, N., & Begum, N. (2011). Socio-economic development of Bangladesh: the role of Islami Bank Bangladesh Limited. *World*, *1*(4), 85-94.

Rahman, M. M., Uddin, M. J., & Mia, M. A. S. (2012). The Role of Human Resource Management practices on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in Banking Sector of Bangladesh-A Comparative Analysis. Journal of Faculty of Business Administration (JFBA), 9(1), 1-14.

Rai, A., Ghosh, P., Chauhan, R., & Mehta, N. K. (2017). Influence of job characteristics on engagement: does support at work act as moderator?. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, *37*(1/2), 86-105.

Raihan, S., Khondker, B. H., Ferdous, F. B., & Uddin, S. A. H. (2015*). Bangladesh Country Paper: Employment Effects of Different Development Policy Instruments.* Workin paper on Swiss Programme for Research on Global Issues for Development.

Ram, P., & Prabhakar, G. V. (2011). The role of employee engagement in work-related outcomes. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business*, *1*(3), 47-61.

Ramayah, T., Lee, J. W. C., & In, J. B. C. (2011). Network collaboration and performance in the tourism sector. *Service Business*, *5*(4), 411-428.

Ramdani, B., Mellahi, K., Guermat, C., & Kechad, R. (2014). The efficacy of high performance work practices in the Middle East: Evidence from Algerian firms. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(2), 252-275.

Rana, M., & Hossain, M. N. (2014). Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices of the Banking Sector in Bangladesh: A Comparative Study. *Banglavision Research Journal, 14*(1), 1-10.

Rana, S., Ardichvili, A., & Tkachenko, O. (2014). A theoretical model of the antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement: Dubin's method. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *26*(3/4), 249-266.

Randall, D. M., & Cote, J. A. (1991). Interrelationships of work commitment constructs. *Work and Occupations*, *18*(2), 194-211.

Rees, C., Alfes, K., & Gatenby, M. (2013). Employee voice and engagement: connections and consequences. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(14), 2780-2798.

Reichers, A. E. (1985). A review and reconceptualization of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*(3), 465-476.

Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: the contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(5), 825-836.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 698-714.

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*(3), 617-635.

Richman, A. (2006). Everyone wants an engaged workforce how can you create it? Workspan, 49(1), 36-39.

Richardsen, A. M., Burke, R. J., & Martinussen, M. (2006). Work and health outcomes among police officers: The mediating role of police cynicism and engagement. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *13*(4), 555-574.

Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., & Straub, D. (2012). A critical look at the use of PLS-SEM. *MIS Quarterl, 36(1), 3-14.*

Ritzer, G., & Trice, H. M. (1969). *An occupation In conflict: A study of the Personnel Manager*. Ilr Pr.

Robert Jr, L. P., Dennis, A. R., & Ahuja, M. K. (2008). Social capital and knowledge integration in digitally enabled teams. *Information Systems Research*, *19*(3), 314-334.

Robertson, I. T., & Cooper, C. L. (2010). Full engagement: the integration of employee engagement and psychological well-being. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *31*(4), 324-336.

Robertson, I. T., Jansen Birch, A., & Cooper, C. L. (2012). Job and work attitudes, engagement and employee performance: Where does psychological well-being fit in?. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *33*(3), 224-232.

Robinson, D., Perryman, S., & Hayday, S. (2004). *The drivers of employee engagement.* Institute for Employment Studies, Brighton.

Robison, J. (2012, January 5). *Boosting engagement at Stryker.* Gallup Management Journal. Retrieved from http://gmj.gallup.com/content/150956/Boosting-Engagement-Stryker.aspx.

Roscoe, J. T. (1975). *Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences* [by] John T. Roscoe. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, NY..

Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *46*(4), 655-684.

Rousseau, D. M., & Greller, M. M. (1994). Human resource practices: Administrative contract makers. *Human Resource Management*, *33*(3), 385-401.

Rousseau, V., Salek, S., Aubé, C., & Morin, E. M. (2009). Distributive justice, procedural justice, and psychological distress: the moderating effect of coworker support and work autonomy. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *14*(3), 305-317.

Rutledge, T. (2009). *Getting engaged: The new workplace loyalty*. Mattanie Press.

Ryan, C., Ghazali, H., & Mohsin, A. (2011). Determinants of intention to leave a non-managerial job in the fast-food industry of West Malaysia. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *23*(3), 344-360.

Saher, N., & Mayrhofer, W. (2014). The role of Vartan Bhanji in implementing HRM practices in Pakistan. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(13), 1881-1903.

Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *21*(7), 600-619.

Salami, S. O. (2010). Career plateauing and work attitudes: Moderating effects of mentoring others with Nigerian employees. *Europe's Journal of Psychology*, *6*(4), 71-92.

Salanova, M., Agut, S., & Peiró, J. M. (2005). Linking organizational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty: the mediation of service climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(6), 1217-1227.

Salkind, N. J. (1997). *Exploring Research. (3rd Ed.).* New Jersey, Upper Saddle River, Prentice Hall, Inc.

Samina, Q. S., & Alam Md. R. (2011). Promotional Activity Involvement of Commercial Banks: A Comparative Analysis among Three Generation Banks in Bangladesh. *International Review of Business Research Papers. 7*(5), 35-52

Sarker, M. A. R. (2014). Increasing employee job satisfaction as well as organizational performance through effective HRM practices in private commercial banking sector of Bangladesh. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, *5*(10), 157-164.

Sarti, D. (2014). Job Resources as Antecedents of Engagement at Work: Evidence from a Long-Term Care Setting. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *25*(2), 213-237.

Sawang, S. (2012). Is there an inverted U-shaped relationship between job demands and work engagement: The moderating role of social support?. *International Journal of Manpower*, *33*(2), 178-186.

Schat, A. C., & Kelloway, E. K. (2003). Reducing the adverse consequences of workplace aggression and violence: the buffering effects of organizational support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *8*(2), 110-122.

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *3*(1), 71-92.

Schaufeli, W., & Salanova, M. (2007). *Work engagement.* Managing Social and Ethical Issues in Organizations, 135-177.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *25*(3), 293-315.

Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire a cross-national study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *66*(4), 701-716.

Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W., & Van Rhenen, W. (2008). Workaholism, burnout, and work engagement: three of a kind or three different kinds of employee well-being?. *Applied Psychology*, *57*(2), 173-203.

276

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). *Defining and measuring work engagement: Bringing clarity to the concept.* Work engagement: A Handbook of Essential Theory and Research, 10-24.

Schmitt, N. (1994). Method bias: The importance of theory and measurement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *15*(5), 393-398.

Schneider, B., & Bowen, D. E. (2010). *Winning the Service Game*. Springer US.

Schneider, B., White, S. S., & Paul, M. C. (1998). Linking service climate and customer perceptions of service quality: Tests of a causal model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*(2), 150-163.

Scholl, R. W. (1981). Differentiating organizational commitment from expectancy as a motivating force. *Academy of Management Review*, *6*(4), 589-599.

Schuler, R. S., & Jackson, S. E. (1987). Linking competitive strategies with human resource management practices. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 1(3), 207-219.

Schuler, R. S., & MacMillan, I. C. (1984). Gaining competitive advantage through human resource management practices. *Human Resource Management*, *23*(3), 241-255.

Seers, A., McGee, G. W., Serey, T. T., & Graen, G. B. (1983). The interaction of job stress and social support: A strong inference investigation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *26*(2), 273-284.

Seiger, C. P., & Wiese, B. S. (2009). Social support from work and family domains as an antecedent or moderator of work–family conflicts?. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *75*(1), 26-37.

Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research Methods for Business* . Hoboken.

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2003). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill-building Approach.* USA: John Willey & Sons.

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). Edisi 5. *Research methods for business: A skill building approach.* Wiley.

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2013). Edisi 6. *Research Methods for Business*. Wiley.

Selenko, E., Mäkikangas, A., Mauno, S., & Kinnunen, U. (2013). How does job insecurity relate to self-reported job performance? Analysing curvilinear associations in a longitudinal sample. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *86*(4), 522-542.

Selvarajan, T. T., Cloninger, P. A., & Singh, B. (2013). Social support and work–family conflict: A test of an indirect effects model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *83*(3), 486-499.

Şenol, F. (2011). The Effect of Job Security on the Perception of External Motivational Tools: A Study in Hotel Businesses. *Journal of Economic and Social Studies*, *1*(2), 33-67.

Settoon, R. P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R. C. (1996). Social exchange in organizations: Perceived organizational support, leader–member exchange, and employee reciprocity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*(3), 219-227.

Shahnawaz, M. G., & Juyal, R. C. (2006). Human resource management practices and organizational commitment in different organizations. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, *32*(3), 171-178.

Shantz, A., Alfes, K., Truss, C., & Soane, E. (2013). The role of employee engagement in the relationship between job design and task performance, citizenship and deviant behaviours. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(13), 2608-2627.

Shantz, A., Alfes, K., & Latham, G. P. (2014). The Buffering Effect of Perceived Organizational Support on the Relationship Between Work Engagement and Behavioral Outcomes. *Human Resource Management*, 55(1), 25-38.

Sharma, Y., & Sharma, B. R. (2010). Search for the Drivers of Employee Engagement among Executives of a Manufacturing Organisation. *Management and Labour Studies*, *35*(2), 189-207.

Sharma, B. R., & Joshi, R. J. (2001). Determinants of organisational commitment in a manufacturing organisation in the private sector. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 37(2), 199-216.

Sharma, J., & Dhar, R. L. (2016). Factors influencing job performance of nursing staff: mediating role of affective commitment. *Personnel Review*, *45*(1), 161-182.

SheeMun, Y., Suhaimi, M. N., Abdullah, S. S., Rahman, S. A., & Mat, N. K. N. (2013). Employee Engagement: A Study from the Private Sector in Malaysia. *Human Resource Management Research*, *3*(1), 43-48.

Shen, J., & Leggett, C. (2014). The effects of hukou (official household residential status) on perceived human resource management practices and organizational justice in China. *Personnel Review*, *43*(2), 168-183.

Sheth, J. N. (1996). Organizational buying behavior: past performance and future expectations. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, *11*(3/4), 7-24.

Sherony, K. M., & Green, S. G. (2002). Coworker exchange: relationships between coworkers, leader-member exchange, and work attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 542-548.

Shore, L. M., & Barksdale, K. (1998). Examining degree of balance and level of obligation in the employment relationship: A social exchange approach. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *19*(1), 731-744.

278

Showail, S. J., McLean Parks, J., & Smith, F. L. (2013). Foreign workers in Saudi Arabia: a field study of role ambiguity, identification, information-seeking, organizational support and performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(21), 3957-3979.

Shuck, B., & Wollard, K. (2010). Employee engagement and HRD: A seminal review of the foundations. *Human Resource Development Review*, 9(1), 89-110.

Shuck, B., Twyford, D., Reio, T. G., & Shuck, A. (2014). Human Resource Development Practices and Employee Engagement: Examining the Connection With Employee Turnover Intentions. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *25*(2), 239-270.

Shuck, B., & Reio, T. G. (2011). The employee engagement landscape and HRD: how do we link theory and scholarship to current practice?. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 13(4), 419-428.

Shuck, B. (2011). Integrative Literature Review: Four Emerging Perspectives of Employee Engagement: An Integrative Literature Review. *Human Resource Development Review*, *10*(3), 304-328.

Shuck, B., Ghosh, R., Zigarmi, D., & Nimon, K. (2013). The jingle jangle of employee engagement further exploration of the emerging construct and implications for workplace learning and performance. *Human Resource Development Review*, *12*(1), 11-35.

Shuck, B., & Reio, T. G. (2014). Employee engagement and well-being a moderation model and implications for practice. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *21*(1), 43-58.

Shuck, B., Reio Jr, T. G., & Rocco, T. S. (2011). Employee engagement: An examination of antecedent and outcome variables. *Human Resource Development International*, *14*(4), 427-445.

Shuck, B., Owen, J., Manthos, M., Quirk, K., & Rhoades, G. (2016). Co-workers with benefits: The influence of commitment uncertainty and status on employee engagement in romantic workplace relationships. *Journal of Management Development*, *35*(3), 382-393.

Shumaker, S. A., & Brownell, A. (1984). Toward a theory of social support: Closing conceptual gaps. *Journal of social issues*, *40*(4), 11-36.

Sikorska-Simmons, E. (2005). Predictors of organizational commitment among staff in assisted living. *The Gerontologist*, *45*(2), 196-205.

Simons, T., & Enz, C. A. (1995). Motivating Hotel Employees. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *36*(1), 20-27.

Simpson, M. R. (2009). Predictors of work engagement among medical-surgical registered nurses. *Western journal of nursing research*, *31*(1), 44-65.

Sims, R. R. (1994). Human resource management's role in clarifying the new psychological contract. *Human Resource Management*, *33*(3), 373-382.

Singh, R. N., Bhagat, M., & Mohanty, R. P. (2011). Pay Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment: Moderating Role of Employee's Cultural Values'. *Vilakshan: The XIMB Journal of Management*, *7*(3), 37-51.

Singh, S., Sidhu, J., Joshi, M., & Kansal, M. (2016). Measuring intellectual capital performance of Indian banks: A public and private sector comparison. *Managerial Finance*, *42*(7), 635-655.

Singh, R., & Nayak, J. K. (2015). Mediating role of stress between work-family conflict and job satisfaction among the police officials: Moderating role of social support. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *38*(4), 738-753.

Singleton, R. A., & Bruce, C. Straits (2005): *Approaches to Social Research.* Nueva York: Oxford University Press.

Slattery, J. P., Selvarajan, T. T., Anderson, J. E., & Sardessai, R. (2010). Relationship between job characteristics and attitudes: A study of temporary employees. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *40*(6), 1539-1565.

Slåtten, T., & Mehmetoglu, M. (2011). Antecedents and effects of engaged frontline employees: A study from the hospitality industry. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, *21*(1), 88-107.

Sloan, M. M. (2004). The effects of occupational characteristics on the experience and expression of anger in the workplace. *Work and Occupations*, *31*(1), 38-72.

Sloan, M. M., Newhouse, R. J. E., & Thompson, A. B. (2013). Counting on coworkers race, social support, and emotional experiences on the job. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *76*(4), 343-372.

Sonnentag, S., & Fritz, C. (2007). The Recovery Experience Questionnaire: development and validation of a measure for assessing recuperation and unwinding from work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *12*(3), 204-221.

Spencer, D. G. (1986). Employee voice and employee retention. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(3), 488-502.

Snell, S. A., Youndt, M. A., & Wright, P. M. (1996). *Establishing a framework for research in strategic human resource management: Merging resource theory and organizational learning.* Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 61-90.

Snell, S., & Bohlander, G. (2007). *Training and development: Managing human resources.* South-Western Cengage Learning.

Snell, S., & Bohlander, G. (2013). *Managing Human Resources. South-Western. Australia, Cengage Learning.*

Soane, E., Shantz, A., Alfes, K., Truss, C., Rees, C., & Gatenby, M. (2013). The Association of Meaningfulness, Well-Being, and Engagement with Absenteeism: A Moderated Mediation Model. *Human Resource Management*, *52*(3), 441-456.

Sonnentag, S. (2003). Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behavior: a new look at the interface between nonwork and work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(3), 518-528.

Sonnentag, S. (2012). Psychological detachment from work during leisure time: The benefits of mentally disengaging from work. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *21*(2), 114-118.

Sora, B., Caballer, A., & Peiró, J. M. (2011). Consequences of job insecurity. The moderating role of organizational support from a multilevel perspective. *Psicothema*, *23(3)*, 394-400.

Saunders, M. Lewis. P., and Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research methods for business students.* Harlow, England: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes, and Consequences* (Vol. 3). Sage.

Spector, P. E. (1994). Using self-report questionnaires in OB research: A comment on the use of a controversial method. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *15*(5), 385-392.

Spell, C. S., & Arnold, T. (2007). An appraisal perspective of justice, structure, and job control as antecedents of psychological distress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *28*(6), 729-751.

Srivastava, A. P., & Dhar, R. L. (2016). Impact of Leader member exchange, human resource management practices and psychological empowerment on extra role performances: the mediating role of organisational commitment. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *65*(3), 351-377.

Staufenbiel, T., & König, C. J. (2010). A model for the effects of job insecurity on performance, turnover intention, and absenteeism. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *83*(1), 101-117.

Strazdins, L., D'Souza, R. M., L-Y Lim, L., Broom, D. H., & Rodgers, B. (2004). Job strain, job insecurity, and health: rethinking the relationship. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *9*(4), 296-305.

Steensma, H., & Visser, E. (2007). Procedural justice and supervisors' personal power bases: effects on employees' perceptions of performance appraisal sessions, commitment, and motivation. *Journal of Collective Negotiations*, *31*(2), 101-118.

281

Stone, M. (1974). Cross-validatory choice and assessment of statistical predictions. *Journal of The Royal Statistical Society. Series B (Methodological)*, 36(2), 111-147.

Stone, E. F., & Hollenbeck, J. R. (1984). Some issues associated with the use of moderated regression. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *34*(2), 195-213.

Stone, D. N., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2009). Beyond talk: Creating autonomous motivation through self-determination theory. *Journal of General Management*, *34*(3), 75-91.

Storey, J. (1992). *Developments in the management of human resources: an analytical review*. Blackwell.

Storey, J. (1995). Is HRM catching on?. *International Journal of Manpower*, *16*(4), 3-10.

Strom, D. L., Sears, K. L., & Kelly, K. M. (2014). Work engagement the roles of organizational justice and leadership style in predicting engagement among employees. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *21*(1), 71-82.

Sturges, J., Guest, D., Conway, N., & Davey, K. M. (2002). A longitudinal study of the relationship between career management and organizational commitment among graduates in the first ten years at work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *23*(6), 731-748.

Suan, C. L., & Mohd Nasurdin, A. (2014). Do Human Resource Management Practices Affect Employees' Service-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior? Evidence from the Malaysian Hotel Industry. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, *31*(2), 253-266.

Suan, C. L., & Nasurdin, A. M. (2013). Role clarity, supervisory support, peer support, and work engagement of customer-contact employees in hotels: A future research agenda. *Tourisms: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism, 8*(1), 315-329.

Suan Choo, L., Mat, N., & Al-Omari, M. (2013). Organizational practices and employee engagement: a case of Malaysia electronics manufacturing firms. *Business Strategy Series*, *14*(1), 3-10.

Sulea, C., Virga, D., Maricutoiu, L. P., Schaufeli, W., Zaborila Dumitru, C., & Sava, F. A. (2012). Work engagement as mediator between job characteristics and positive and negative extra-role behaviors. *Career Development International*, *17*(3), 188-207.

Suliman, A. M., & Iles, P. A. (2000). The multi-dimensional nature of organisational commitment in a non-western context. *Journal of Management Development*, *19*(1), 71-83.

Suliman, A. A., & Al-Junaibi, Y. (2010). Commitment and turnover intention in the UAE oil industry. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *21*(9), 1472-1489.

Sundin, L., Hochwälder, J., & Lisspers, J. (2010). A longitudinal examination of generic and occupational specific job demands, and work-related social support associated with burnout among nurses in Sweden. *Work (Reading, Mass.)*, *38*(4), 389-400.

Susskind, A. M., Kacmar, K. M., & Borchgrevink, C. P. (2003). Customer service providers' attitudes relating to customer service and customer satisfaction in the customer-server exchange. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(1), 179-187.

Sverke, M., Hellgren, J., & Näswall, K. (2002). No security: a meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *7*(3), 242-264.

Swailes, S. (2002). Organizational commitment: a critique of the construct and measures. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *4*(2), 155-178.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Multivariate analysis of variance and covariance.* Using Multivariate Statistics, 402-407.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics (6th edition).* Boston. MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Taipale, S., Selander, K., Anttila, T., & Nätti, J. (2011). Work engagement in eight European countries: The role of job demands, autonomy, and social support. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, *31*(7/8), 486-504.

Takeuchi, R., Lepak, D. P., Wang, H., & Takeuchi, K. (2007). An empirical examination of the mechanisms mediating between high-performance work systems and the performance of Japanese organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(4), 1069-1083.

Takeuchi, N., & Takeuchi, T. (2013). Committed to the organization or the job? Effects of perceived HRM practices on employees' behavioral outcomes in the Japanese healthcare industry. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(11), 2089-2106.

Tekleab, A. G., & Chiaburu, D. S. (2011). Social exchange: Empirical examination of form and focus. *Journal of Business Research*, *64*(5), 460-466.

Talukder, M. F. H., Hossain, M. Y., & Hossain, M. N. (2014). HRM practice in commercial banks: A case study of Bangladesh.*Journal of Business and Management, 16*(2), 29-36

Tan, C. L., & Nasurdin, A. M. (2011). Human resource management practices and organizational innovation: assessing the mediating role of knowledge management effectiveness. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, *9*(2), 155-167.

283

Tang, T. W., & Tang, Y. Y. (2012). Promoting service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors in hotels: The role of high-performance human resource practices and organizational social climates. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *31*(3), 885-895.

Tansky, J. W., & Cohen, D. J. (2001). The relationship between organizational support, employee development, and organizational commitment: An empirical study. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *12*(3), 285-300.

Taylor, S. (2005). HRM in small firms: Hunting the Snark? In S. Marlow, D. Patton, & M. Ram (Eds.), *Managing labour in small firms.* London: Routledge.

Teclemichael Tessema, M., & Soeters, J. L. (2006). Challenges and prospects of HRM in developing countries: testing the HRM–performance link in the Eritrean civil service. *The international Journal of Human Resource Management*, *17*(1), 86-105.

Tekleab, A. G., Takeuchi, R., & Taylor, M. S. (2005). Extending the chain of relationships among organizational justice, social exchange, and employee reactions: The role of contract violations. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(1), 146-157.

Ten Brummelhuis, L. L., Bakker, A. B., Hetland, J., & Keulemans, L. (2012). Do new ways of working foster work engagement?. *Psicothema, 24(*1), 113-120.

Tenenhaus, M., Amato, S., & Esposito Vinzi, V. (2004, June). A global goodness-of-fit index for PLS structural equation modelling. In *Proceedings of the XLII SIS Scientific Meeting*, Padova: CLEUP, 739-742.

Teo, T., Lee, C. B., & Chai, C. S. (2008). Understanding pre-service teachers' computer attitudes: applying and extending the technology acceptance model. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, *24*(2), 128-143.

Thoits, P. A. (2011). Perceived social support and the voluntary, mixed, or pressured use of mental health services. *Society and Mental Health*, *1*(1), 4-19.

Thomas, L. T., & Ganster, D. C. (1995). Impact of family-supportive work variables on work-family conflict and strain: a control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *80*(1), 6-15.

Thompson, G., Buch, R., & Kuvaas, B. (2017). Political skill, participatory decision-making and organizational commitment. *Personnel Review*, 46(4), 740-749.

Timms, C., Brough, P., O'Driscoll, M., Kalliath, T., Siu, O. L., Sit, C., & Lo, D. (2015). Flexible work arrangements, work engagement, turnover intentions and psychological health. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *53*(1), 83-103.

Treen, D. (2000). Feature Editorial-Strategic Human Resources-Some CEOs get it... that HR has a crucial role to play in rolling out strategy. Others need to get it still. *Ivey Business Journal*, *64*(3), 62-67.

Trevor, C. O., Gerhart, B., & Boudreau, J. W. (1997). Voluntary turnover and job performance: Curvilinearity and the moderating influences of salary growth and promotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *82*(1), 44-61.

Trigg, R. (1985). *Understanding social science: A philosophical introduction to the social sciences*. Basil Blackwell.

Triguero-Sánchez, R., C. Peña-Vinces, J., & Sánchez-Apellániz, M. (2013). Hierarchical distance as a moderator of HRM practices on organizational performance. *International Journal of Manpower*, *34*(7), 794-812.

Trinchero, E., Brunetto, Y., & Borgonovi, E. (2013). Examining the antecedents of engaged nurses in Italy: Perceived Organisational Support (POS); satisfaction with training and development; discretionary power. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *21*(6), 805-816.

Trochim, W., & Donnelly, J. P. (2006). *The research methods knowledge base (3rd ed.)*. Mason, OH: Thomson Publishing.

Truss, C., Shantz, A., Soane, E., Alfes, K., & Delbridge, R. (2013). Employee engagement, organisational performance and individual well-being: exploring the evidence, developing the theory. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(14), 2657-2669.

Tsai, W. C., Chen, C. C., & Liu, H. L. (2007). Test of a model linking employee positive moods and task performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(6), 1570-1583.

Tsai, W. C., Chen, H. W., & Cheng, J. W. (2009). Employee positive moods as a mediator linking transformational leadership and employee work outcomes. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *20*(1), 206-219.

Tsui, A. S. (2004). Contributing to global management knowledge: A case for high quality indigenous research. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, *21*(4), 491-513.

Tummers, L., Steijn, B., Nevicka, B., & Heerema, M. (2016). The effects of leadership and job autonomy on vitality: survey and experimental evidence. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 1-23. doi.org/10.1177/0734371X16671980

Turner, R. J., & Marino, F. (1994). Social support and social structure: A descriptive epidemiology. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 35(3), 193-212.

Uddin, M. J., & Rahman, M. M. Measurement of Employees' Job Satisfaction on HRM Practices of Commercial Banks in Bangladesh. *In Proceedings of 11th Asian Business Research Conference, BIAM Foundation,* Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Ugaddan, R. G., & Park, S. M. (2017). Quality of leadership and public service motivation: A social exchange perspective on employee engagement. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, *30*(3), 270-285.

Ugwu, C. C., & Okojie, J. O. (2017). Human resource management (HRM) practices and work engagement in Nigeria: The mediating role of psychological capital (PSYCAP). *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Review*, *6*(4), 71-87.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Maslyn, J. M. (2003). Reciprocity in manager-subordinate relationships: Components, configurations, and outcomes. *Journal of Management*, *29*(4), 511-532.

Ulrich, D., & Lake, D. G. (1990). *Organizational capability: Competing from the inside out*. John Wiley & Sons.

Urbach, N., & Ahlemann, F. (2010). Structural equation modeling in information systems research using partial least squares. *JITTA: Journal of Information Technology Theory and Application*, *11*(2), 5-40.

Vandenberghe, C., Bentein, K., & Stinglhamber, F. (2004). Affective commitment to the organization, supervisor, and work group: Antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *64*(1), 47-71.

Van De Voorde, K., & Beijer, S. (2015). The role of employee HR attributions in the relationship between high-performance work systems and employee outcomes. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *25*(1), 62-78.

Van den Broeck, A., Vansteenkiste, M., De Witte, H., & Lens, W. (2008). Explaining the relationships between job characteristics, burnout, and engagement: The role of basic psychological need satisfaction. *Work & Stress*, *22*(3), 277-294.

Van der Heijden, B. I. J. M., Kümmerling, A., Van Dam, K., Van der Schoot, E., Estryn-Béhar, M., & Hasselhorn, H. M. (2010). The impact of social support upon intention to leave among female nurses in Europe: Secondary analysis of data from the NEXT survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, *47*(4), 434-445.

van der Velde, M. E., Bossink, C. J., & Jansen, P. G. (2003). Gender differences in the influence of professional tenure on work attitudes. *Sex Roles*, *49*(3-4), 153-162.

Van Dick, R. (2001). Identification in organizational contexts: Linking theory and research from social and organizational psychology. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *3*(4), 265-283.

van Gelderen, B. R., & Bik, L. W. (2016). Affective organizational commitment, work engagement and service performance among police officers. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *39*(1), 206-221.

Van Jaarsveld, D. D., & Yanadori, Y. (2011). Compensation management in outsourced service organizations and its implications for quit rates, absenteeism and workforce performance: Evidence from Canadian call centres. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, *49*(1), 1-26.

Vanhala, S., & Stavrou, E. (2013). Human resource management practices and the HRM-performance link in public and private sector organizations in three Western societal clusters. *Baltic Journal of Management*, *8*(4), 416-437.

Verardi, V., & Croux, C. (2008). Robust regression in Stata. *Stata Journal, 9(*3), 439–453.

Vargo, S. L., & Lusch, R. F. (2004). Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *68*(1), 1-17.

Vecina, M. L., Chacón, F., Marzana, D., & Marta, E. (2013). Volunteer engagement and organizational commitment in nonprofit organizations: what makes volunteers remain within organizations and feel happy?. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *41*(3), 291-302.

Vemic´-Đurkovic´, J., Jotic´, J., & Maric´, R. (2013). A comparative analysis of contribution of human resource management to organizational performance of banks in Serbia. *Industrija, 41*(4), 91–107.

Vera, M., Martínez, I. M., Lorente, L., & Chambel, M. J. (2015). The Role of Co-worker and Supervisor Support in the Relationship Between Job Autonomy and Work Engagement Among Portuguese Nurses: A Multilevel Study. *Social Indicators Research*, 126(3), 1143-1156.

Vincent-Höper, S., Muser, C., & Janneck, M. (2012). Transformational leadership, work engagement, and occupational success. *Career Development International*, *17*(7), 663-682.

Vinzi, V. E., Chin, W. W., Henseler, J., & Wang, H. (2010). Perspectives on partial least squares. In *Handbook of Partial Least Squares* (pp. 1-20). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Viswesvaran, C., Sanchez, J. I., & Fisher, J. (1999). The role of social support in the process of work stress: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *54*(2), 314-334.

Volpone, S. D., Avery, D. R., & McKay, P. F. (2012). Linkages between racioethnicity, appraisal reactions, and employee engagement. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *42*(1), 252-270.

Vosburgh, R. M. (2007). The evolution of HR: Developing HR as an internal consulting organization. *Human Resource Planning*, *30*(3), 11-16.18-23

Walton, R. E. (1985). *From Control to Commitment in the Workplace: In factory after factory, there is a revolution under way in the management of work*. US Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor-Management Relations and Cooperative Programs.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, *40*(1), 82-111.

Weiss, H. M. (2002). Deconstructing job satisfaction: Separating evaluations, beliefs and affective experiences. *Human Resource Management Review*, *12*(2), 173-194.

Welch, M. (2011). The evolution of the employee engagement concept: communication implications. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, *16*(4), 328-346.

Westman, M. (2001). Stress and strain crossover. *Human Relations*, *54*(6), 717-751.

Wetzels, M., Odekerken-Schröder, G., & Van Oppen, C. (2009). Using PLS path modeling for assessing hierarchical construct models: Guidelines and empirical illustration. *MIS Quarterly*, 33(1), 177-195.

Whelan, T. J. (2007). Anonymity and confidentiality: Do survey respondents know the difference. In *Poster presented at the 30th annual meeting of the Society of Southeastern Social Psychologists, Durham, NC*.

Wiener, Y. (1982). Commitment in organizations: A normative view. *Academy of Management Review*, *7*(3), 418-428.

Wiesner, R., McDonald, J., & Banham, H. C. (2007). Australian small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs): A study of high performance management practices. *Journal of Management & Organization*, *13*(03), 227-248.

Wijnmaalen, J., Heyse, L., & Voordijk, H. (2016). Organisational commitment and turnover intentions in humanitarian organisations. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, *16*(1-2), 47-66.

Wiley, C. (1997). What motivates employees according to over 40 years of motivation surveys. *International Journal of Manpower*, *18*(3), 263-280.

Wilkinson, A., Dundon, T., & Grugulis, I. (2007). Information but not consultation: exploring employee involvement in SMEs. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(7), 1279-1297.

Wilkinson, A., & Fay, C. (2011). New times for employee voice?. *Human Resource Management*, *50*(1), 65-74.

Wilson, B., & Henseler, J. (2007). *Modeling reflective higher-order constructs using three approaches with PLS path modeling: a Monte Carlo Comparison*. ANZMAC.

Witt, L. A., & Carlson, D. S. (2006). The work-family interface and job performance: moderating effects of conscientiousness and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *11*(4), 343-357.

Wollard, K. K., & Shuck, B. (2011). Antecedents to employee engagement a structured review of the Literature. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *13*(4), 429-446.

Woods, S. A., & Sofat, J. A. (2013). Personality and engagement at work: the mediating role of psychological meaningfulness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *43*(11), 2203-2210.

Woodman, R. W., Sawyer, J. E., & Griffin, R. W. (1993). Toward a theory of organizational creativity. *Academy of Management Review*, *18*(2), 293-321.

Wong, J. Y., & Lin, J. H. (2007). The role of job control and job support in adjusting service employee's work-to-leisure conflict. *Tourism Management*, *28*(3), 726-735.

World Fact Book (2014). *Section: Bangladesh.* Accessed on 20th November, 2015.

Wright, P. M., & McMahan, G. C. (1992). Theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management. *Journal of Management*, *18*(2), 295-320.

Wright, P. M., McMahan, G. C., & McWilliams, A. (1994). Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: a resource-based perspective. *International journal of Human Resource Management*, *5*(2), 301-326.

Wright, P. M., & Snell, S. A. (1991). Toward an integrative view of strategic human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review*, *1*(3), 203-225.

Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., & Moynihan, L. M. (2003). The impact of HR practices on the performance of business units. Human Resource Management Journal,13(3), 21–36.

Wright, P. M., & Kehoe, R. R. (2008). Human resource practices and organizational commitment: A deeper examination. Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 46(1), 6-20.

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2007). The role of personal resources in the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *14*(2), 121-124.

Xanthopoulou, D., Baker, A. B., Heuven, E., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Working in the sky: a diary study on work engagement among flight attendants. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *13*(4), 345-356.

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Work engagement and financial returns: A diary study on the role of job and personal resources. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *82*(1), 183-200.

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Reciprocal relationships   between job resources, personal resources, and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *74*(3), 235-244.

Xu, J., & Cooper Thomas, H. (2011). How can leaders achieve high employee engagement?. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *32*(4), 399-416.

Yalabik, Z. Y., Popaitoon, P., Chowne, J. A., & Rayton, B. A. (2013). Work engagement as a mediator between employee attitudes and outcomes. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(14), 2799-2823.

Yang, H., & Fu, H. (2009). Contemporary human resource management issues and concerns in the hotel industry: Identifying the priorities. *International Journal of Organizational Innovation*, *2*(1), 201-224.

Yasin Ghadi, M., Fernando, M., & Caputi, P. (2013). Transformational leadership and work engagement: The mediating effect of meaning in work. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *34*(6), 532-550.

Ye, J., Marinova, D., & Singh, J. (2007). Strategic change implementation and performance loss in the front lines. *Journal of Marketing*, *71*(4), 156-171.

Yeganeh, H., & Su, Z. (2008). An examination of human resource management practices in Iranian public sector. *Personnel Review*, *37*(2), 203-221.

Yeh, C. M. (2013). Tourism involvement, work engagement and job satisfaction among frontline hotel employees. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *42(1)*, 214-239.

Yin, R. K. (2003). Case study research design and methods third edition. *Applied Social Research Methods series*, *Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc. Afacan, Y., & Erbug, C.(2009).* An interdisciplinary heuristic evaluation method for universal building design. Journal of Applied Ergonomics, 40, 731-744.

Yoon, D., Jang, J., & Lee, J. (2016). Environmental management strategy and organizational citizenship behaviors in the hotel industry: The mediating role of organizational trust and commitment. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *28*(8), 1577-1597.

Young-Ybarra, C., & Wiersema, M. (1999). Strategic flexibility in information technology alliances: The influence of transaction cost economics and social exchange theory. *Organization Science*, *10*(4), 439-459.

Young, S., Bartram, T., Stanton, P., & Leggat, S. G. (2010). High performance work systems and employee well-being: a two stage study of a rural Australian hospital. *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, *24*(2), 182-199.

Youndt, M. A., Snell, S. A., Dean, J. W., & Lepak, D. P. (1996). Human resource management, manufacturing strategy, and firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*(4), 836-866.

Yousef, D. A. (2002). Job satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between role stressors and organizational commitment: A study from an Arabic cultural perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *17*(4), 250-266.

Yu, B. B., & Egri, C. P. (2005). Human resource management practices and affective organizational commitment: A comparison of Chinese employees in a state-owned

enterprise and a joint venture. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *43*(3), 332-360.

Zaitouni, M., Sawalha, N. N., and Sharif, A. E., (2011), The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Organizational Commitment in the Banking Sector in Kuwait, *International Journal of Business and Management,* 6(6), 108-123.

Zakaria, N., Zainal, S. R. M., & Nasurdin, A. M. (2011). Investigating the role of human resource management practices on the performance of SME: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Global Management*, *3*(1), 74-92.

Zangaro, G. A. (2001, April). Organizational commitment: A concept analysis. In *Nursing forum 36(2), 14-21.* Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Zedeck, S. (1971). Problems with the use of" moderator" variables. *Psychological Bulletin*, *76*(4), 295-310.

Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J., & Gremler, D. D. (1996). *Services Marketing.* McGraw Hill. New York.

Zhang, T., C. Avery, G., Bergsteiner, H., & More, E. (2014). Do follower characteristics moderate leadership and employee engagement?. *Journal of Global Responsibility*, *5*(2), 269-288.

Zheng, C. (2009). Keeping talents for advancing service firms in Asia. *Journal of Service Management*, *20*(5), 482-502.

Zikmund, W. G. (2003). *Sample designs and sampling procedures.* Business research methods, 368-400.

Zikmund, W.G., Babin, B.J., Carr, J.C. & Griffin, M. (2010). *Business research methods*. 9th edn, Canada: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Zikmund, W., Babin, B., Carr, J., & Griffin, M. (2012). *Business research methods*. Cengage Learning.

Zhou, J. (2003). When the presence of creative coworkers is related to creativity: role of supervisor close monitoring, developmental feedback, and creative personality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(3), 413-422.

Zhou, J., & George, J. M. (2001). When job dissatisfaction leads to creativity: Encouraging the expression of voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*(4), 682-696.

Zhu, W., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2009). Moderating role of follower characteristics with transformational leadership and follower work engagement. *Group & Organization Management*, 34(5), 590-619.

291

Zhu, C. J., Cooper, B. K., Fan, D., & De Cieri, H. (2013). HR practices from the perspective of managers and employees in multinational enterprises in China: Alignment issues and implications. *Journal of World Business*, *48*(2), 241-250.

Zopiatis, A., Constanti, P., & Theocharous, A. L. (2014). Job involvement, commitment, satisfaction and turnover: Evidence from hotel employees in Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, *41(*1), 129-140.

APPENDIX A

Table 3.1
The number of employees and branches located in the Dhaka city

Sl. No	Name of the Banks	No. of Branches			No. of Employees		
		Total	Dhaka City	%	Total	Dhaka City	%
1	AB Bank Limited	93	19	0.20	2220	635	0.29
2	Al-Arafah Islami Bank	119	30	0.25	2649	935	0.35
3	Bank Asia Ltd.	91	29	0.32	1773	791	0.45
4	BRAC Bank Ltd.	97	25	0.26	6886	2485	0.36
5	City Bank	112	27	0.24	2535	856	0.34
6	Dhaka Bank	81	21	0.26	1503	546	0.36
7	Dutch-Bangla Bank	145	33	0.23	5556	1770	0.32
8	Eastern Bank	76	20	0.26	1559	574	0.37
9	EXIMBANK	87	21	0.24	2515	850	0.34
10	First Security Islami Bank Limited	137	25	0.18	2673	683	0.26
11	ICB Islamic Bank Limited	33	13	0.39	617	340	0.55
12	IFIC Bank	120	28	0.23	2527	825	0.33
13	Islami Bank	294	39	0.13	13574	2521	0.19
14	Jamuna Bank Ltd.	97	24	0.25	2204	763	0.35
15	Mercantile Bank Ltd.	100	23	0.23	1962	632	0.32
16	Mutual Trust Bank Ltd.	103	25	0.24	1586	539	0.34
17	National Bank Ltd.	179	29	0.16	4236	961	0.23
18	National Credit and Commerce Bank Ltd.	103	27	0.26	2277	836	0.37
19	One Bank Limited	77	20	0.26	1861	677	0.36
20	Premier Bank Ltd.	92	21	0.23	1350	431	0.32
21	Prime Bank	140	33	0.24	2867	946	0.33
22	Pubali Bank	434	56	0.13	7645	1381	0.18
23	Rupali Bank	535	55	0.10	4293	618	0.14
24	Shahjalal Islami Bank Ltd.	93	24	0.26	2145	775	0.36
25	Social Islami Bank Limited	100	26	0.26	1922	700	0.36
26	Southeast Bank	113	27	0.24	1780	595	0.33
27	Standard Bank Limited	96	21	0.22	1548	474	0.31
28	Trust Bank Limited	89	21	0.24	1610	532	0.33
29	United Commercial Bank Ltd.	139	34	0.24	3445	1180	0.34
30	Uttara Bank	223	56	0.25	3730	1311	0.35
	Total	**4198**	**852**	**0.20**	**93048**	**27161**	**0.29**

Source: Data collected from the annual reports of the banks for the purposes of this study

APPENDIX B: Questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

I am a doctoral student at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM). I am going to conduct a research regarding employee engagement among employees in private commercial banks in Dhaka city, Bangladesh. The purpose of this study is to understand the human resource management (HRM) practices of your banks that may affect your work-related behavior and attitudes.

In this Regard, your deliberate participation is extremely appreciated. The questionnaire is designed to collect your personal opinion regarding HRM practices of your banks. It is to inform you that your responses will be highly confidential and only used as an aggregated data for the academic research purposes.

It is requested to read the instructions carefully before attaining every single section of the questionnaire. You are requested to give only one answer for each question and make sure that all the questions are filled up properly. Once you will complete the questionnaire, please put it in the envelope so that I can collect it personally at your convenient. If you have any queries regarding questionnaire or study, please contact with me anytime at the following contact details.

Thank you very much in advance for spending your valuable time to complete this questionnaire.

Yours sincerely,
Alima Aktar, PhD Student
Email: alima.uum@gmail.com, Contact No. 01918366398
School of Business Management (SBM)
College of Business (COB)
Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM)

Part 1: Research Variables

Instructions: Please *TICK* (√) in the appropriate box that is suitable to you. All information received on this form will only be used for the purpose of **academic research** and **will be strictly held in confidentiality.**

1 = Strongly Disagree | 2 = Disagree | 3 = Neutral |4 = Agree| 5 = Strongly Agree

No.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Employee Engagement						
1	At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy					
2	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose					
3	Time flies when I'm working					
4	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous					
5	I am enthusiastic about my job					
6	When I am working, I forget everything else around me					
7	My job inspires me					
8	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work					
9	I feel happy when I am working intensely					
10	I am proud of the work that I do					
11	I am immersed in my work					
12	I can continue working for very long periods at a time					
13	To me, my job is challenging					
14	I get carried away when I'm working					
15	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally					
16	It is difficult to detach myself from my job					
17	At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well					
Performance Feedback						
1	My manager gives me sufficient information about work goals					
2	My manager gives me feedback on my performance					
3	My manager gives me feedback on how I can improve my work performance					
Job Security						
1	I can stay in the bank for as long as I wish.					
2	It is difficult to dismiss employees from this bank.					
3	Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this bank.					
4	If the bank were facing economic problems, employees in this job would be the last to get cut.					

No.	Items	Scale				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Career Advancement						
1	I have clear career paths in this bank.					
2	I have a very strong future within this bank.					
3	My career aspirations within this bank are known by immediate supervisors.					
4	Employees in this job who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.					
Training & Development						
1	Extensive training and development programs are offered by the bank to improve my job skills.					
2	Employees in this bank normally go through training programs every few years.					
3	There are formal training programs to teach new hires the skills they need to perform their jobs.					
4	Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this bank.					
Rewards & Recognition						
1	Employees in this bank receive a pay raise for improving the level of performance.					
2	If I improve the level of performance, I get more freedom to do my work in this bank.					
3	If I improve the level of service to the bank, I get more challenging work assignments.					
4	People I work with in this bank show a respect for better performance.					
5	If I improve the level of job performance, I receive a praise from my manager					
6	Employees in this bank receive a public recognition (e.g. employee of the month/year) for their excellent job performance					
7	Employees in this bank receive a token of appreciation (e.g. lunch) for improving the level of service to the bank.					
Employee Participation						
1	Employees in this bank are allowed to make many decisions.					
2	Employees in this bank are often asked by their supervisor to participate in decisions.					
3	Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done.					

| 4 | Superiors keep open communications with employees in this bank. | | | | | |

No.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
				Scale		
Supervisor Support						
1	My immidiate supervisor in this bank demonstrates trust and confidence on me.					
2	My immidiate supervisor in this bank treats me with dignity and respect.					
3	My immidiate supervisor in this bank gives me authority to do the job.					
4	My immidiate supervisor in this bank is concerned about the well-being of those employees under him					
Co-Worker Support						
1	My colleagues in this bank provide helpful information or advice about my work.					
2	My colleagues in this bank provide clear and helpful feedback about my work.					
3	The people I work with in this bank are helpful in getting the job done					
4	People I work with are competent in doing their jobs.					
Perceived Organizational Support						
1	My bank really cares about my well-being.					
2	My bank strongly considers my goals and values.					
3	My bank shows a strong concern for me					
4	My bank cares about my opinions.					
5	My bank is willing to help me if I need a special favor.					
6	Help is available from my bank when I have a problem.					
7	My bank would forgive an honest mistake on my part.					
8	If given the opportunity, my organization never try to take advantage of me					

No.	Items	Scale				
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Organizational Commitment						
1	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this bank.					
2	I enjoy discussing about my bank with people outside it.					
3	I really feel as if this bank's problems are my own.					
4	I think that I could not easily become attached to another bank as I am to this one.					
5	I feel like 'part of the family' at my bank.					
6	I feel 'emotionally attached' to this bank.					
7	This bank has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
8	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my bank.					
9	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.					
10	It would be very hard for me to leave my bank right now, even if I wanted to.					
11	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decide I wanted to leave my bank now.					
12	It would be too costly for me to leave my bank now.					
13	Right own, staying with my bank is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
14	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this bank.					
15	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this bank would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
16	One of the major reasons I continue to work in this bank is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice and the current benefits may not match with other banks.					
17	I think that people these days move from bank to bank too often.					
18	I believe that an employee must always be loyal to his or her bank.					
19	Jumping from bank to bank seems unethical for me.					
20	One of the major reasons I continue in this bank is that loyalty is important, and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.					
21	If I got another better offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my bank.					
22	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one bank.					

23	Things were better in days when people stayed with one bank for most of their careers.					
24	I think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible.					

Part 2: Respondent Profile

1. Gender:　　□ Male　　　　□ Female

2. Marital status:　　□ Married　　□ Single

3. Age:　□ Less than 30 year　　□ 30 to 35 years　　□ 36 to 40 years　　□
More than 40 years

4. How long have you been working for this Bank (approximately):

　□Less than 3 years　□ 3-5 years　　□ 6-10 years　　□ 11-15 years　　　□
More than 15 years

5. Your educational level attained:　□Bachelor degree　　□ Master or equivalent
　　　　□MBA　　□others (Please specify):

6. Total experiences in the banking sector including current experience (approximately):
years

Thank you for your time and efforts!!

APPENDIX C

Table 4.3

Results of Common Method Bias using Harman's (1976) single-factor test

	Total Variance Explained					
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Components	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	21.187	25.527	25.527	21.187	25.527	25.527
2	4.404	5.306	30.832			
3	4.072	4.906	35.738			
4	2.982	3.592	39.330			
5	2.553	3.076	42.406			
6	2.158	2.600	45.006			
7	2.102	2.533	47.539			
8	1.912	2.303	49.842			
9	1.862	2.243	52.085			
10	1.698	2.046	54.130			
11	1.668	2.009	56.140			
12	1.523	1.835	57.974			
13	1.454	1.752	59.726			
14	1.399	1.686	61.412			
15	1.276	1.538	62.950			
16	1.178	1.420	64.370			
17	1.159	1.396	65.766			
18	1.126	1.356	67.122			
19	1.077	1.297	68.419			
20	1.047	1.262	69.681			
21	0.995	1.199	70.879			
22	0.951	1.146	72.025			
23	0.917	1.105	73.130			
24	0.902	1.087	74.216			
25	0.847	1.020	75.236			
26	0.819	0.987	76.224			
27	0.775	0.934	77.157			
28	0.763	0.919	78.077			
29	0.733	0.883	78.959			
30	0.701	0.845	79.804			
31	0.680	0.820	80.624			
32	0.656	0.790	81.414			
33	0.616	0.742	82.156			

34	0.610	0.735	82.890
35	0.593	0.714	83.604
36	0.570	0.687	84.291
37	0.549	0.662	84.953
38	0.534	0.643	85.596
39	0.525	0.632	86.228
40	0.510	0.614	86.842
41	0.498	0.600	87.443
42	0.463	0.558	88.000
43	0.461	0.556	88.556
44	0.447	0.539	89.095
45	0.422	0.508	89.603
46	0.421	0.507	90.110
47	0.388	0.468	90.578
48	0.380	0.457	91.035
49	0.373	0.449	91.485
50	0.369	0.445	91.929
51	0.353	0.425	92.354
52	0.335	0.404	92.758
53	0.325	0.392	93.149
54	0.314	0.379	93.528
55	0.302	0.364	93.892
56	0.296	0.357	94.249
57	0.291	0.351	94.600
58	0.281	0.339	94.939
59	0.271	0.326	95.265
60	0.259	0.312	95.577
61	0.246	0.297	95.874
62	0.239	0.288	96.162
63	0.231	0.278	96.440
64	0.224	0.270	96.710
65	0.215	0.259	96.969
66	0.211	0.254	97.222
67	0.190	0.228	97.451
68	0.181	0.218	97.668
69	0.172	0.207	97.876
70	0.170	0.205	98.080
71	0.164	0.198	98.278
72	0.152	0.184	98.462
73	0.147	0.177	98.639
74	0.141	0.170	98.808

75	0.133	0.161	98.969
76	0.131	0.158	99.127
77	0.124	0.149	99.276
78	0.116	0.140	99.416
79	0.113	0.137	99.553
80	0.111	0.133	99.686
81	0.100	0.120	99.806
82	0.091	0.110	99.916
83	0.070	0.084	100

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.