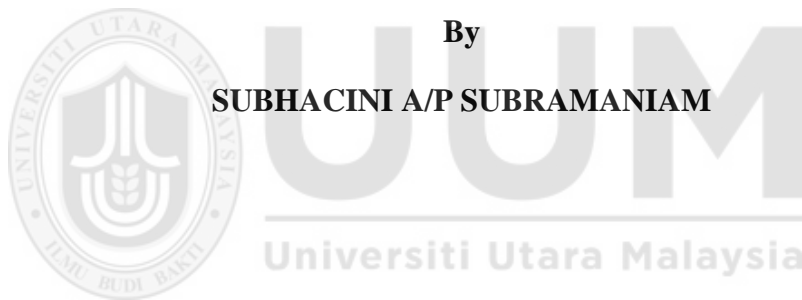


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**THE DETERMINANTS OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT: THE STUDY
AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF IN MALAYSIA PRIVATE HIGHER
EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS**



**Thesis Submitted to
Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business,
Universiti Utara Malaysia,
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Doctor of Business Administration**



OTHMAN YEOP ABDULLAH GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA

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ABSTRACT

Employee engagement is crucial for the development of any organisation. Abundant studies have shown that organisations with engaged employees experience greater benefits. However, studies found that there is a crisis in terms of employee engagement among academic staff working in the private higher education sector and it needs to be addressed at the earliest to achieve the aspiration of the government to position the country as a hub for tertiary education in the region. Thus, using social exchange theory and job demand-resource (JD-R) model, this study was carried out to investigate the relationship between job demands (work-family conflict, work overload) and job resource factors (perceived organisational support, rewards and recognition) and employee engagement. The data was collected from 341 academic staff working in the selected private universities through an online survey and the respondents were selected based on disproportionate stratified random sampling method. SPSS version 23 was used to test the proposed hypotheses of the study. The results of the study indicated that job demand factor of work-family conflict negatively influenced employee engagement. However, the other job demand factor, which is work overload, did not reveal an anticipated negative relationship with employee engagement. The result also found that job resource factors (perceived organisational support, rewards and recognition) are positively related to employee engagement. This study contributes to the engagement literature by examining the factors affecting employee engagement among Malaysian academic staff, which has been carefully selected to suit the academics' work setting and the nature of their job. Moreover, the study will also guide the practitioners to propose policies and strategies to enhance the engagement of academic staff.

Keyword: job demands, job resources, employee engagement

ABSTRAK

Penglibatan kerja adalah sangat penting bagi pembangunan mana-mana organisasi. Terdapat banyak kajian yang menunjukkan bahawa organisasi dengan keterlibatan pekerja mempunyai kelebihan. Namun, terdapat juga kajian yang telah mengenalpasti adanya krisis dari aspek penglibatan pekerja dalam kalangan staf akademik yang bekerja di sektor pendidikan tinggi swasta dan hal ini perlu diberi perhatian secepat mungkin bagi mencapai aspirasi kerajaan untuk menjadikan negara ini sebagai sebuah pusat pendidikan tinggi di rantau ini. Oleh itu, dengan teori pertukaran sosial dan model permintaan-sumber pekerjaan (JD-R), kajian ini dijalankan untuk menyiasat hubungan di antara permintaan pekerjaan (konflik kerja-keluarga, beban kerja berlebihan) dan faktor sumber pekerjaan (tanggapan sokongan organisasi, penghargaan dan pengiktirafan) dan penglibatan pekerja. Data telah dikumpulkan daripada 341 orang staf akademik yang bekerja di universiti swasta terpilih melalui soal selidik secara dalam talian dan responden dipilih berdasarkan kaedah persampelan berstrata secara berstruktur. SPSS versi 23 digunakan untuk menguji cadangan hipotesis kajian. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa faktor permintaan pekerjaan, konflik kerja-keluarga mempengaruhi penglibatan pekerja secara negatif. Walau bagaimanapun, faktor permintaan pekerjaan yang lain, iaitu beban kerja berlebihan tidak menunjukkan hubungan negatif yang dijangka dengan penglibatan pekerja. Dapatan juga menunjukkan bahawa faktor sumber pekerjaan (tanggapan sokongan organisasi, penghargaan dan pengiktirafan) berkait secara positif dengan penglibatan pekerja. Kajian ini menyumbang kepada literatur penglibatan dengan meneliti faktor yang mempengaruhi penglibatan pekerja dalam kalangan staf akademik di Malaysia, yang telah dipilih dengan teliti untuk disesuaikan dengan suasana kerja dan sifat pekerjaan mereka. Selain itu, kajian ini juga akan memberi panduan kepada pengamal untuk mencadangkan dasar dan strategi untuk meningkatkan penglibatan staf akademik.

Kata kunci: permintaan kerja, sumber pekerjaan, penglibatan pekerja

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Description of Abbreviations
WFC	Work-family conflict
WOL	Work overload
POS	Perceived organisational support
RR	Rewards and recognition
EE	Employee engagement
JD-R	Job Demand-Resource Model
SET	Social Exchange Theory



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of Study

Human capital is perceived to be one of the significant assets of an organisation. It is the one which determines the success of any business (Handa & Gulati, 2014) and it is crucial for sustained organisational performance (Luthans, Luthans & Luthans, 2004). Additionally, in his resource-based view, Barney (1986) also illustrates that acquiring the unique resources, which also includes competent and talented human capital is essential in attaining competitive advantage in the challenging business environment. Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) cited that organisations nowadays have shifted their focus from traditional practices such as management control, cost reduction, efficiency and cash flow to human capital. Organisations realise that their success depends significantly on their employees. There has been an increased recognition that more attention needs to be paid to human capital as it is considered as a significant contributing factor to economic success (Gianesini, Cubico, Favretto & Leitão, 2018). According to Bakker and Leiter (2010) in the process of recruiting and retaining the human capital, it becomes the responsibility of the organisations to confirm that their human capital is engaged physically as well as emotionally to their job. As such, engaged human capital becomes the foundation of sustainable competitive advantage of an organisation (Macey, Schneider, Barbera & Young, 2011; Fareed, Noor, Isa & Salleh, 2016).

The employees' role is pivotal to the economic growth of an organisation (Faggian, Modrego & McCann, 2019). Every employee, whether at the top level, middle or

subordinate, is an essential resource for the organisation they work for regardless of the nature of the industry. The employees, who are engaged, deliver better performance, which is critical to an organisation's success (Reijseger, Peeters, Taris & Schaufeli, 2017). Engaged employees can perform their job activities well despite any challenges they face in the working environment. According to Miller (2014) and Anitha (2014), engaged employees are more dedicated and voluntarily apply effort to their job as it results in the organisations' success. In contrast, disengaged employees will have an extreme degree of annoyance along with a pessimistic perception about the organisational approach (Bhuvanaiah & Raya, 2014). In line with that, Nelson (2017) has also reported that in the United States disengaged employees cause 300 billion dollars of loss in terms of productivity every year. Wollard (2011) stated that employees' who are disengaged will be less productive, have a negative influence on profitability, prone to accidents, suffer from illness, and often quit. Hence, they will become a threat to the organisation.

Researchers demonstrate a solid association between employee engagement and organisational performance (Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Shanmugam & Krishnaveni, 2012; Jena, Pradhan & Panigrahy, 2018). In particular, the work presented by Jena and Pradhan (2017) has gone one step further by pointing out that employees' are well bonded to their organisation when there is meaningful engagement. Such engagement results in employees showing improved productivity and satisfactory customer ratings. There are abundant studies claiming that organisations with engaged employees experience greater profitability and shareholder returns (Mokaya & Kipyegon, 2014; Parent & Lovelace, 2015). Predominantly, a study by Gallup (2020) which was conducted among 1.8 million employees across 230 organisations in the world reveals

that employee engagement leads to 41% lower absenteeism, 70% fewer safety incidents, 24% less turnover, 40% fewer defects in terms of quality, 21% increase in profit and a 17% growth in productivity. The engaged workforce's financial gains are significant. A study led by Aon Hewitt (2014) indicates that when employee engagement grows by 5% there is a 3% revenue increase in the subsequent year. Equally, it raises the level of productivity and efficiency of an organisation, which is again linked to financial performance. Furthermore, research scholars (Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015; Jha & Kumar, 2016) have also supported the fact that the performance of engaged employees will be better than those who are not engaged.

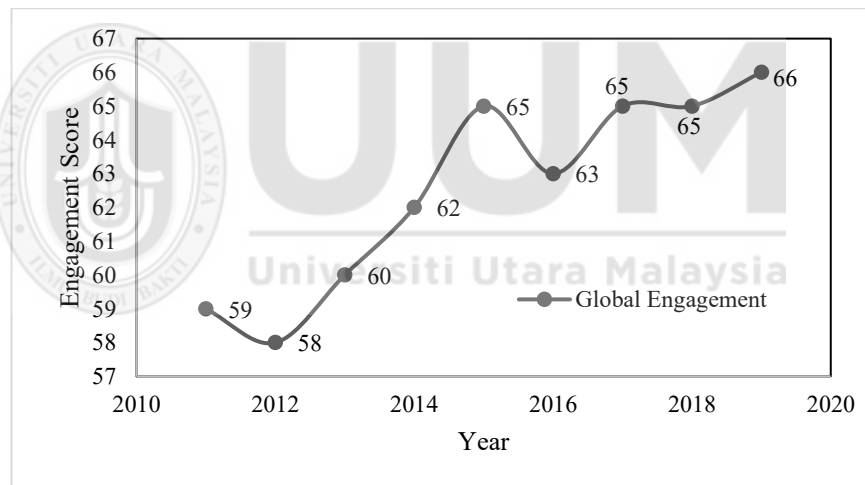


Figure 1.1
2019 Trends in Global Employee Engagement
Source: Aon.com (2019)

The challenges and complexities surrounding the business atmosphere have not deterred the growth of employee engagement (Aon Hewitt, 2019). Figure 1.1 depicts the global trend in employee engagement that has been conducted among 1000 organisations globally across 60 industries. Though the employee engagement score

descents in 2012 from 59% to 58% compared to the previous year, it has risen in the following years. In 2015, the global engagement trend rose to 65% and maintained at the same level in 2017 and 2018 though it had a 2% drop in 2016. However, in 2019 there was an increase of 1%. China and India which are the fastest-growing economies in the Asian regions have seen the growth of employee engagement in recent years (Aon Hewitt, 2018). The growth of employee engagement in Asia is significant, as the highly engaged workforce are able to hit the growth prospects that exist.

It is rather unfortunate that the highest percentage of disengaged employees in the world exist in Malaysia (Wan Hisham, 2016). A recent Qualtrics (2020) study found that the global average for employee engagement score is only 53%. In 2015, Malaysia recorded an engagement score of 61% (Latiff Ayob & Nor, 2019) and in 2020 it has declined to 54% (Qualtrics, 2020). Though it is apparent that it is slightly higher (1%) than the global average, it has been reported by Qualtrics that 30% of Malaysian are intended to leave their job in the next 2 years. Moreover, when compared to other Asian countries, such as Thailand (72%), India (79%) and Hong Kong (63%) the employee engagement is relatively low in Malaysia.

Having realised the significance of employee engagement, multiple organisations have taken appropriate steps. Indeed, Welch and Welch (2006) quoted that employee engagement is the first instrument in evaluating the health of an organisation and customer satisfaction and will result in cash flow. Past studies (Bates, 2004; Baumruk, 2004; Richman, 2006) found that individual attitudes, behaviour, performance, productivity, retention, financial gains and shareholder profits are influenced by employee engagement. Hence, it proves that the term “employee engagement” is well

established in the corporate world as well as in academic research. In 2015, Alagaraja and Shuck also highlighted that employee engagement is continually evolving in the field of human resource development (HRD) and management. Many engagement studies have steered across various industries. It includes information technology (Cooper-Thomas, Xu & Saks, 2018), manufacturing (Chalermjirapas, Theingi & Aryupong, 2019; Shuck, Reio Jr & Rocco, 2011), diamond mining (Masvaure, Ruggunan & Maharaj 2014), healthcare (Lowe, 2012; Shuck & Reio Jr, 2014), public sector (Mohapatra & Sharma, 2010; Jones & Sambrook, 2016), banking (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014) and also education (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Ndoro & Martins, 2019).

1.1.1 The Challenging Role of Academic Staff in Higher Education

The responsibility or legal obligation imposed on academicians is relatively high as the society views them as intellectual leaders (Rahman, 2016). This statement demonstrates the importance of academic staff in a social setting. The apparent reason behind this perhaps could be the vital role they play not only in education and training but also in the development and production of knowledge and innovation (Manogharan, Thivaharan & Rahman, 2018).

In the 1990s, when the transition to a knowledge-based economy occurred, there was a huge demand for higher education. The system was uncoupled into public and private entities during this period (Wong & Hamali, 2006). In 1996, to provide ample opportunities to its citizens for furthering their higher education, the Malaysian government paved the way for private universities and colleges (Ramachandran, Chong & Ismail, 2011; Tomé, Arokiasamy, Ismail, Ahmad & Othman, 2011). As soon

as the foreign and private universities were allowed to form branches under the Private Higher Education Institution Act, the number of private higher educational institutions (HEIs) has been rising, and there are now more than 400. A search in the Ministry of Higher Education's website discloses that as of December 2019, there were 443 registered private HEIs in Malaysia.

Table 1.1
Private Higher Education Institutions in Malaysia as of December 2019

State	University	University College	Branch Campus	College	Total
Johor	1	3	3	21	28
Melaka	1	2	0	13	16
Negeri Sembilan	3	2	0	15	20
Selangor	23	8	3	94	128
W.P. Kuala Lumpur	14	8	0	78	100
W.P. Putrajaya	0	0	1	0	1
Kedah	3	0	0	6	9
Perak	4	1	0	15	20
Perlis	0	1	0	2	3
Pulau Pinang	1	3	1	25	30
Kelantan	0	1	0	9	10
Pahang	2	3	0	9	14
Terengganu	1	2	0	9	12
Sabah	0	2	0	22	24
Sarawak	1	1	2	24	28
Total	54	37	10	342	443

Source: Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia

Table 1.1 above also displays that the most number of private HEIs are located in Selangor and Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur, which is generally known as Klang Valley. Mainly, 51.47% of private HEIs of the country are operating in this region. Even though public universities have grown in size and number, there is a substantially enormous growth witnessed in private HEIs as well.

These private HEIs are expected to observe the need and aspiration of the government to deliver quality education and transform Malaysia as a centre for educational excellence (Grappagasem, Krishnan & Mansor, 2014). According to Malaysia's Education Blueprint, by 2025 the private HEIs are expected to increase the student enrollment to 5.1% from 455,000 students in 2012 to 477,750. Apart from the target of increasing the number of students, there are also other significant goals to attain within the stipulated time frame. It includes increasing the graduate employability rate and so on.

In a layman's point of view, the job of higher education academic staff is relatively stress-free; they enjoy lower workload and flexibility, and they often get the opportunity of overseas trips for conferences (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua & Stough, 2001). Conversely, the actual truth is, the academic staff conduct a variety of roles in their academic activities including core research, teaching and administration (Zain, Abdullah & Yen, 2010). It cites that academicians need to perform various tasks apart from their traditional role of transmitting knowledge (Kwakman, 2003). However, Fauzi, Tan and Ramayah (2018) added that community service is also measured as the primary duty of academics. Sadly, the academicians are often paid a disproportionately low income for the multiple job tasks that they are performing as an educator (Ke, Zhang, Yan & Fu, 2017).

From the researcher's experience as academic staff, Malaysian academics are centring on both academic and non-academic related activities from the insufficient available time and resources they have. Along the similar lines, Azman, Yao, Yeo, Kong and Ju (2010) also postulated that academicians from higher learning institutions are required

to work long hours with insufficient resources and rewards. In addition, new challenges have been imposed on them such as research-based performance pressures, rankings and the requirement of quality certifications (Rajarajeswari, 2010) to attract more local and international students. All these requirements have imposed a burden on the academics which might influence their engagement towards work. Therefore, to overcome such challenges, academics need to be engaged. Engaged academics are foreseen to influence the direction of higher education positively and propel their institutions towards the nation-building. Employee engagement is vital for any organisation regardless of the nature of its business. As cited in Lowe (2012), engaged employees can achieve organisational goals better than the less engaged employees.

Barkhuizen and Rothman (2008), in their investigation on the occupational stress of academic staff, have indicated that the higher education institutions are generally considered as “stress factories” due to the challenges that they are facing. This has also been noticed by Taris, Schreurs, Van Iersel-Van Silfhout (2001) in their work and pointed out that the academicians are exposed to greater risks of health and wellness. This condition may lead to reduced employee engagement among academic staff. Unfortunately, a report by Gallup (2019) also reveals that only 34% of academic staff are engaged in their jobs. Hence, at this point, universities need to pay attention to the engagement of their academic staff.

Additionally, in the present-day education landscape, HEIs rankings are unavoidable. Ranking can be used as a benchmark to determine the strength of the education system. Altbach, in 2015 confirmed that governments and funding agencies are concerned about the ranking because they need to analyse the return on investments. Meanwhile,

universities are also trying to sustain their positions for various reasons including reputation issues, student enrolment, staff's recruitment, and to achieve other goals including getting investors. This applies to private HEIs as well. Table 1.2 shows the list of Malaysian HEIs featured in QS World University Rankings 2020.

Table 1.2
QS World University Ranking 2020

Ranking	University
70	Universiti Malaya
159	Universiti Putra Malaysia
160	Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia
165	Universiti Sains Malaysia
217	Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
442	UCSI University
482	Universiti Teknologi Petronas
512-520	Management and Science University
591-600	Universiti Utara Malaysia
651-700	International Islamic University Malaysia
651-700	Universiti Teknologi Mara
701-750	Universiti Malaysia Perlis
751-800	Sunway University
751-800	Universiti Malaysia Pahang
801-1000	Multimedia University
801-1000	Universiti Malaysia Sarawak
801-1000	Universiti Tenaga Nasional
801-1000	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman
801-1000	Universiti Malaysia Sabah

Source: <https://www.topuniversities.com/>

Table 1.2 clearly shows that, out of the 19 universities listed, only seven belongs to the private education sector. It indicates that the role of academicians in private HEIs also becoming extremely important and challenging not only in producing highly intellectual human capital but also in providing quality education. Energetically and positively engaged academicians, establish an emotional connection with both

students and the institution. As such, they passionately do things beyond the expectation. The degree to which an employee is attached to the university that he or she is working for depends on the level of employee engagement.

1.2 Problem Statement

Employee engagement is no longer a new concept. It has gained a significant amount of importance due to the global verdict called “perform or perish”. Intense competition and the need for survival has made the organisations from almost all sectors to leverage the idea of employee engagement, as the cost of disengaged employees is relatively huge. Amaya, Donegan, Conner, Edwards and Gipson (2019) assert that the growth and development of an organisation would be impaired if its employees are disengaged.

A recent Qualtrics (2020) study found that the global average for employee engagement score is only 53%. In 2015, Malaysia recorded an engagement score of 61% (Latiff Ayob & Nor, 2019) and in 2020 it has declined to 54%. Apart from that, Jobstreet Malaysia (2016) has steered a survey participated by 5,256 respondents from various backgrounds. The survey discloses that around 52% of employees were unhappy and felt disengaged within their roles, 23% felt neutral and only 25% were happy and had a sense of appreciation for their jobs. The higher education sector is not an exception in this context. In 2019, Marken and Matson through the human resource consulting firm Gallup have reported that among 75,000 academic staff interviewed globally, only 34% are engaged at work. The authors claim that this percentage is lower if compared to many other industries. Though there is no specific survey

conducted to identify the employee engagement level in Malaysian higher education sector, the global survey among academic staff is used as a benchmark. Hence, it is concluded that employee engagement among academic staff in the higher education sector is low. This alarming phenomenon needs to be addressed at the earliest to produce high-quality workforce as well as to meet the nation's aspiration to become the centre of educational excellence in this region.

Similar to the educational sector elsewhere in the world, the private higher institutions in Malaysia are also fronting many challenges over the last decade. They are under immense pressure to perform more efficiently and effectively. Furthermore, Malaysia's aspiration to become an international education hub is also compelling the private higher institutions to exhibit their excellence. Additionally, the country is also aiming for three universities to be in the first 100 rankings and one in the first 50 in world rankings by the end of 2020 (Hallinger, 2014). Unfortunately, the data in Table 1.2 shows that these goals have not been achieved as of today, especially by private higher education institutions. They were not even able to rank within the top 300 universities in the world. Thus, it becomes extremely important for the private higher education institutions to have high quality and committed academic staff to persistently progress towards the goals and objectives of the nation (Chong & Lee, 2017). At the same time, it is also undeniable that the private higher institutions are struggling to gain a competitive advantage as a result of extreme challenges that they have to face due to globalisation (Devi Ramachandran, Choy Chong & Ismail, 2009; Manogharan et al., 2018).

This situation gives significant impacts on academic staff in many ways. Many researchers (Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2011; Larson, Ghaffarzagdegan & Xue, 2013; Marginson & Considine, 2000) have quoted academic job as complicated because they are continuously affected by rising job demands. A study conducted in universities by Mohan and Suppareakchaisakul (2014) cited that the multifaceted work demands such as academic and technological demands, changing trends, policies and strategies in education have made their job even more challenging. In the similar line, Awang, Ahmad and Zin (2010) have also mentioned that lecturing is among the occupations which demand a greater commitment because they have a high workload and wider responsibilities as they are directed at the learning and developments of students. To put it simply, they do a complicated job in a challenging environment. On the contrary, job resources are generally known for their ability to influence employees positively. An adequate supply of job resources is expected to supplement employee engagement at a greater level. Few studies have revealed that employees are susceptible to extreme job demands and therefore, it is vital to have job resources to complement them. Most importantly, autonomy, social support and performance feedback are among the job resources, which has proven to enhance the level of engagement of academics (Alzyoud, Othman & Isa, 2015). Engaged academic staff will find their work more pleasant, more productive, more involved and committed towards their work (Alzyoud et al., 2015).

Job demands and job resources have been explored by many scholars especially in the field of employee engagement. They are known to be the most influencing factors of employee engagement. Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001) through their JD-R model have signposted that both job demands and job resources have two

distinct mechanisms of psychology which are strain and motivation. Bakker and Demerouti, (2007) further confirmed that job demands cause strain while job resources are the foundation of motivation. This reveals that job demands will always result in negative consequences such as burnout due to the strain and job resources, lead to favourable outcomes such as employee engagement (Bakker, 2015). Both job resources and engagement are reciprocal in nature. A work completed by Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2009) has also validated this reciprocal relationship by revealing the fact that employees feel valued and competent if they work in a resilient and supportive environment. Eventually, it will lead to positive work outcomes. Perceived organisational support (POS) and rewards and recognition are essential job resources that affect employees regardless of their industries. The research on POS reveals that the beliefs of the employees about how the organisation react and value their contribution will have positive effects on work performance (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). According to Nayir (2012), academics' feeling of being supported is essential as it will make them strive to achieve the goals of the institution. Besides, rewards and recognition are used as an instrument that contributes to the effectiveness of the organisation by influencing employees (Milne, 2001). Employees who are equally rewarded and recognised for their effort will portray a good feeling and positive mental state (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2017). These job resources (perceived organisational support, rewards and recognition) are crucial as they will impact the academic staffs' performance, enthusiasm and motivation which are crucial in determining quality education.

Conversely, high job demands will cause undesirable outcomes (Schaufeli, 2015) which includes burnout and stress. In the teaching profession, particularly in private

higher education, job demands are relatively high since they are facing quite many challenges apart from teaching (Evers, van der Heijden, Kreijns & Vermeulen, 2016). There is evidence confirming that many individuals from the teaching profession most likely to quit (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015) due to high demands. In higher education, work-family conflict (Gaio Santos & Cabral-Cardoso, 2008; Linn, Yager, Cope & Leake, 1985) and work overload (Winter & Sarros, 2002; Ylijoki & Ursin, 2015) are cited as critical job demands that affect academia and their well-being.

While work and family are indispensable for everyone, academic staff usually tend to use their “family time” to fulfil their work demands. It is reported that most academic staff involved in academic writing and other research-related activities while in their home to meet the work demands (Mohan & Suppareakchaisakul, 2014) and working overtime is important for them to pursue their academic career (Torp, Lysfjord & Midje, 2018). Thus, the demand in the work domain, make them incompatible when it comes to their family role. Hence, failure to address boundaries between work and family contributes to disharmony in the family context resulting in conflict. It leads to many unfavourable outcomes including decreased engagement. As for work overload is concerned, researchers persistently observed that academic staff are confronted with increasing administrative workload (Ylijoki & Ursin, 2015), teaching workload and research related works which include publishing in high ranked scientific journals (Torp et al., 2018). When there is no concrete option to avoid or adjust them, it portends them and consequently leads to disengagement.

Here, in addition to the JD-R model, it should be noted that this research is also guided by the theory of social exchange (SET). SET (Blau, 1964) emphasises that burden is

imposed on parties that are in mutual interdependence through a sequence of interactions (Jose, 2012). Further, this theory also advocates that “relationships evolve into trusting, loyal and reciprocal commitments,” (Cropanzo & Mitchell, 2005, p.875). However, this does not occur until the parties concerned respect the law of exchange. This rule frequently comprises the law of exchange, which means the behaviour of a party correlates to the other party’s response (Jose, 2012). In other words, if the employees get adequate support from their organisation, they would willingly repay with favourable job-related outcomes. Hence, the employees working in private higher education are predicted to exhibit a higher level of engagement as an outcome of obtaining valuable job resources (perceived organisational support, rewards and recognition). At the same time, if the universities fail not only to provide the resources needed by the employees but also fail in attending to the job demands (work-family conflict and work overload), they might choose to be disengaged.

Having addressed and discussed all the issues above, this study specifically aims to contribute to the body of knowledge relating to the engagement of academic staffs in private universities. Although the performance of academic staffs significantly impacts educational institutions, they are rarely been studied. Engaged academic staff are an essential asset for any higher learning institutions in achieving the goals of high-quality teaching and research. Thus, this study aims to examine the relationship between job demands (work-family conflict and work overload), job resources (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition) and employee engagement. As proposed and recommended by the JD-R model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001), this investigation, therefore, includes both job demands and job resources. The defined variables were specifically selected based on

the premise of social exchange (Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1962 & 1972) and also the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001).

1.3 Research Questions

On the ground of the background study and the problem statement addressed in the previous section, the following specific research questions are identified:

- i. Do work-family conflict have any significant relationship with employee engagement?
- ii. Do work overload have any significant relationship with employee engagement?
- iii. Do perceived organisational support have any significant relationship with employee engagement?
- iv. Do rewards and recognition have any significant relationship with employee engagement?

1.4 Research Objectives

In light of the domain of research, this study is undertaken to fulfil the following objectives:

- i. To investigate the relationship between work-family conflict and employee engagement;
- ii. To investigate the relationship between work overload and employee engagement;
- iii. To investigate the relationship between perceived organisational support and employee engagement; and
- iv. To investigate the relationship between rewards and recognition and employee engagement.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The main objective of this work is to explore how job demands and job resources of the academic staff employed in the Malaysian private higher education segment affect their engagement. Both scholars and practitioners will benefit from the findings of this research.

From the theoretical perspectives, the objective of this study is to contribute in several ways to the earlier research. There were limited numbers of studies conducted in the employee engagement area especially in Malaysia. Besides, the literature study reviews a small sample of speculative data about employee engagement among academic staff from the private higher education sector. Most studies on employee engagement were centring on nurses (Othman & Nasurdin, 2011, 2013; Sarti, 2014;

García-Sierra, Fernández-Castro & Martínez-Zaragoza, 2016) and dentists (Seppälä, Hakanen, Mauno, Perhoniemi, Tolvanen, & Schaufeli, 2015) from the health industry. Also, very few researchers explored the other sectors. It includes employees from the hotel industry (Karatepe, 2013), the telecommunication industry (Obeidat, 2016) and the software sector (Swetha & Kumar, 2015). Hence, extensive research is needed to comprehend the concept of employee engagement among academics from institutions of private higher education, as teaching is deemed to be one of the most challenging profession due to its nature of work. Moreover, Malaysian private higher education institutions are actively focusing on offering market-driven programmes (Wan, 2007) to gain profit. On the other hand, they have failed to develop career opportunities for their academic staff (Ismail & Arokiasamy, 2007). This has great potential to affect their engagement. Apart from that, the research piloted in other countries might be appropriate to a certain level but may have some hidden factors that influence the outcome. For example, Malaysians view about work-family conflict (job demands) might be different from others. It might influence the result of the output and consequently may challenge previous outcomes and therefore, add knowledge to the engagement field. The result of this study, therefore, increase the value of the engagement literature by expanding the number of investigations on factors affecting employee engagement among Malaysian academic staff. This empirical study could also become a reference for future researchers in the field of engagement.

Besides that, the findings from this study could be useful to the practitioners, especially the management of Malaysian private higher educational institutions, to enhance employee engagement among academic staff. This research will provide empirical evidence on the role of job demands and job resources in predicting employee

engagement. Accordingly, it will guide the practitioners to identify the significant factors influencing academic staff engagement and then develop strategies to enhance their engagement level. Additionally, it will also guide practitioners to understand that employee engagement contributes to sustainable human-based organisational success and long term results (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

1.6 Scope of the Study

Organisations must recognise that employee engagement strongly impacts organisational success. The success of the organisation can be achieved with the presence of employee engagement and positive financial performance. Employees, who are engaged, go further than their job prospects in the work environment, by being faithful and therefore maximise organisational productivity (Anand & Banu, 2011). Hence, this study aimed to examine a hypothesised employee engagement model by exploring the relationship between job demands (work-family conflict and work overload), job resources (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition) and employee engagement among the academic staff.

Precisely, this study intended to learn whether factors such as job demands (work-overload and work-family conflict) and job resources (POS and rewards and recognition) have a direct association with employee engagement. The data for this study was collected from 342 academic staff from three private universities, selected based on the 2019 QS Asia University Ranking report. The report, which featured most of the public universities clearly shows that there is a need to study the private universities and their employees. The private universities located in Klang Valley were

identified based on the following criteria: size, where they have more than 7,000 students; with branch campuses and also these universities were featured in recent QS Asia University Rankings 2019.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

1.7.1 Employee Engagement

Employee engagement is a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption”, (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002, p.74).

1.7.2 Job Demands

Job demands refer to those “physical, social or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and psychological effort and therefore associated with specific physiological and psychological cost”, (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501).

1.7.2.1 Work-Family Conflict

Work-Family Conflict (WFC) is defined as “the form of inter-role conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the job, interfere with performing family-related responsibilities”, (Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996, p. 400).

1.7.2.2 Work Overload

Day to day tasks which are so demanding and requires very high effort is termed as work overload (Schulz, Kirschbaum, Prübner and Hellhammer, 1998).

1.7.3 Job Resources

Job resources are those “physical, social or organisational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development”, (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501).

1.7.3.1 Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Perceived Organisational Support (POS) refers to “employee’s perception that the organisation values his or her work contributions and cares about the employee’s well-being,” (Eisenberger, Malone & Presson, 2016, p. 3).

1.7.3.2 Rewards and Recognition

Rewards referred to as intrinsic or monetary rewards, that employees obtain from their job performance (Ram & Prabhakar, 2011) such as performance bonus, incentives, promotions and salary increments (Imran, Ahmad, Nisar & Ahmad, 2014; Aktar, Sachu & Ali, 2012) while recognition is referred to as the extrinsic or non-monetary rewards such as acknowledgement and appreciation (Sajeve, 2014).

1.8 Organisation of the Thesis

This research is arranged according to chapters.

Chapter 1 addresses the background of the research, an overview of the higher education reforms in Malaysia, the problem statement, the research questions and objectives, significance and scope of the study and it is followed by the definition of key terms.

Chapter 2 focuses on the review of literature related to employee engagement. Discussion in Chapter 2 continues with the previous research on employee engagement. Further, it discusses the independent variables and identification of the research gap. Finally, underpinning theories, theoretical framework and hypotheses development have been discussed.

Chapter 3 emphasises on research methodology. It includes research design, population and sampling design, research instrument and measurement, data collection methods and techniques of data analysis.

Chapter 4 discusses the research findings. It consists of an analysis of survey responses, the outcome of the descriptive statistics and normality tests. It is followed by factor analysis, reliability, correlation and multiple regression analyses.

Chapter 5 focuses on discussion and conclusion. The explanation to verify the study with the proposed hypotheses is provided in this section. This is then followed by the theoretical and practical implications, limitations of the study, a section to highlight

the recommendation for future studies and subsequently summarises and concludes the whole study.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter investigates the existing literature and research findings of employee engagement and its determinants from the viewpoint of job demands (work-family conflict and work overload) and job resources (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition). The theoretical frameworks of employee engagement discussed after underpinning theories and it is followed by hypothesis development and the summary of the chapter.

2.1 Employee Engagement

2.1.1 The concept of Employee Engagement

A growing challenge about the concept of employee engagement is visible. Although many researchers have given their definitions to employee engagement, there is no universally recognised definition to the term (Markos & Sridevi, 2010). There have also been reported inconsistencies in the explanation given by many researchers (Kular, Gatenby, Rees, Soane & Truss, 2008).

The concept “employee engagement” was coined from the term personal engagement, which was first habituated by Kahn in the year 1990, in his qualitative study of engagement and disengagement. According to Google Scholar, the concept presented by Kahn has been cited for more than 6000 times by other researchers. The author has

defined engagement as the way employees connect themselves to work by expressing their position physically, emotionally and cognitively. It means that engagement appears to be psychologically extant when taking on an organisational role and doing that. Besides, Khan has also defined disengagement as “uncoupling of selves from work roles” (p.694). Rendering to the researcher’s explanation, in disengagement, employees tend to defend and protect themselves physically, emotionally and cognitively while executing their tasks. Schaufeli et al., (2002) and Saks (2006; 2019) contended that many employee engagement studies centred around Kahn’s engagement concept which were carried out earlier.

From that point forward, numerous professionals and researchers have given their viewpoints on the construct of employee engagement. However, some scholars contend that it must be coined as “employee engagement”, while others termed it as “job engagement” (Meng & Wu, 2015) or “work engagement” (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011; Leroy, Anseel, Dimitrova & Sels, 2012; Xanthapoulou, Bakker & Fiscbach, 2013). This term has also been interchangeably used with “work engagement” (Schaufeli & De Witte, 2017) even though employee engagement is perceived to be more concerned with relationship relative to the organisation whereas; work engagement involves a relationship to one’s work (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2010). However, for this particular research, the term “employee engagement” has been used.

“Engagement” scholars accept that “burnout” studies have fomented employee engagement. Through the work on burnout, Maslach and Leiter (1997) highlighted employee engagement as a constructive alternative to burnout. Kulikowski (2017) also endorsed the same. Further, they claim that there are three magnitudes of engagement

known as vigour, dedication and absorption. However, these are identified as the opposites of burnout dimensions. These burnout dimensions include exhaustion, cynicism and ineffectiveness. The scholars (Maslach & Leiter, 1997) have also posited that engagement, offers a more nuanced and comprehensive view of the relationship between an individual and his or her job.

Rendering back to the research done by Maslach and Leiter (1997), Schaufeli et al., in 2002 proposed that engagement and burnout as a phenomenon, which is different from each other and is to be evaluated separately. Further, Schaufeli and his colleagues (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p.74) in the attempt to develop a new measurement model for engagement, have delineated engagement as a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption”. Researchers in the engagement field prominently use this description stated by Schaufeli et al., (2002). According to the authors, with a transitory state, engagement can be termed as permanent and a pervasive affective-cognitive state, which is not in respect to any specific individual, behaviour, object and also events. Vigour is about mental spirit and high level of energy. The feeling of being immersed and committed to one’s work can be termed as absorption (Bakker & Demerouti, 2009) while dedication is the “feelings of significance, enthusiasm, challenge and eventually, substantial involvement in one’s work”, (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p.210).

However, the explanation by Robinson, Perrman and Hayday (2004) about employee engagement is very simple and straightforward which make the researchers easy to comprehend. These authors have defined employee engagement as a “positive attitude held by the employee towards the organisation and its values” (p.9). They further

clarified that an engaged employee would work towards achieving the goals set by the organisation by enhancing job performance.

On the other hand, Saks (2006), comprehends “employee engagement” as a distinct concept which includes cognitive, emotional and behavioural elements linked to an individual’s role performance. According to this researcher, the employees of an organisation play two leading roles which is classified as their work role and their role of the member of the organisation. Based on this, the scholar has separated “employee engagement” into job engagement and organisation engagement. Furthermore, he also put one step further to investigate the precursors and effects of employee engagement. Shuck and Wollard (2010) claimed that this (Saks, 2006) was the first explicit research conducted in academic literature in this direction.

Macey and Scheider (2008) claim that the academic community comprehends employee engagement as an attitude related to organisational outcomes, while practitioners simplify the term employee engagement as a positive consequence. They argue that this will not give any theoretical definition to the idea of engagement. Thus, through their conceptual framework, they demarcated employee engagement as, “a favourable state which has an organisational purpose and predicts involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort in which it has both attitudinal and behavioural components”.

However, Shuck and Wollard (2010) in their seminal work about employee engagement found that there are inconsistencies in defining the term. First, the inconsistency occurs where the decision of being engaged originates. The second

inconsistency is regarding types of engagement. These discrepancies have made the scholars recommend an evolving explanation about employee engagement which is “an individual employee’s cognitive, emotional, and behavioural state directed toward desired organisational outcomes.” (p.103). This definition is believed to be encircling the behavioural, cognitive, and emotional facets of employee engagement. It also offers a clear and comprehensive explanation for business and organisational leaders.

A summary of employee engagement definitions by various scholars discussed in the literature review is shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1
Summary of Definitions by Scholars

Employee Engagement (EE)	Source
“EE is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption.”	Schaufeli et al. (2002)
“EE is a positive attitude held by the employee towards the organisation and its values.”	Robinson et al. (2004)
“EE consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components that are associated with individual role performance.”	Saks (2006)
“EE is a desirable condition, has an organisational purpose, and connotes involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort, and energy, so it has both attitudinal and behavioural components.”	Macey et al. (2008)
“EE is about employee’s cognitive, emotional, and behavioural state directed toward desired organisational outcomes.”	Shuck et al. (2010)

The above-mentioned employee engagement literature reveals that all the discussion mainly arose between 2000 and 2010. Motyka (2018) however, endorsed that only a

few studies have been conducted in the past to explore the concept. In the systematic literature review of employee engagement, the author (Motyka, 2018) further claims that the majority of the later studies has been steered from the definition given by Schaufeli et al., (2002). For example, rendering to Schaufeli et al., (2002), Oke, Alo, Lanre-Babalola and Emmanuel (2019) argues that employee engagement is indeed a desirable factor, and an observable degree of positive and negative association to one's work, peers and organisations that deeply encourage the performance at work. Conversely, in their attempt to distinguish between engagement and disengagement, Green, Finkel, Fitzsimons and Gino (2017, pg. 21) concluded employee engagement as "a state of high energy characterised by an overarching state of positive emotion" and disengagement as "the lack of energy associated with an overarching state of negative emotion".

Excitingly, academics and HR practitioners or consulting firms outline engagement in different ways. For example, according to Aon Hewitt, employee engagement is "the level of an employee's psychological investment in their organisation" while Tower Perrin has defined engagement as "the involvement of both emotional and rational factors relating to work and the overall work experience". Although the term "employee engagement" appears to be ubiquitous, many organisations use a general meaning of engagement as something beyond satisfaction, which describes the discretionary effort of an employee.

Though the literature review exposes too many definitions of employee engagement, this particular study will espouse the meaning given by Schaufeli et al., (2002, p.74).

The authors defined employee engagement as the “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption”.

2.1.2 Previous studies on employee engagement

The literature review shows that employee engagement is a motivating concept that fosters constructive work outcomes. Along similar lines, many researchers have discovered the potential predictors and outcomes of engagement (Saks, 2006; Anitha, 2014). This part of the literature will be discussed further.

Saks (2006) has carried out a significant study in the domain of engagement in search of predictors and outcomes of engagement. The researcher steered this study since there was little academic literature on this part of the engagement. This was a significant development in this research area since the aptitude of engagement to exhibit instantaneous functional applicability remained essential for acceptance in the management field. The predictors and consequences of employee engagement, which has been proposed by Saks (2006), is depicted in Figure 2.1.

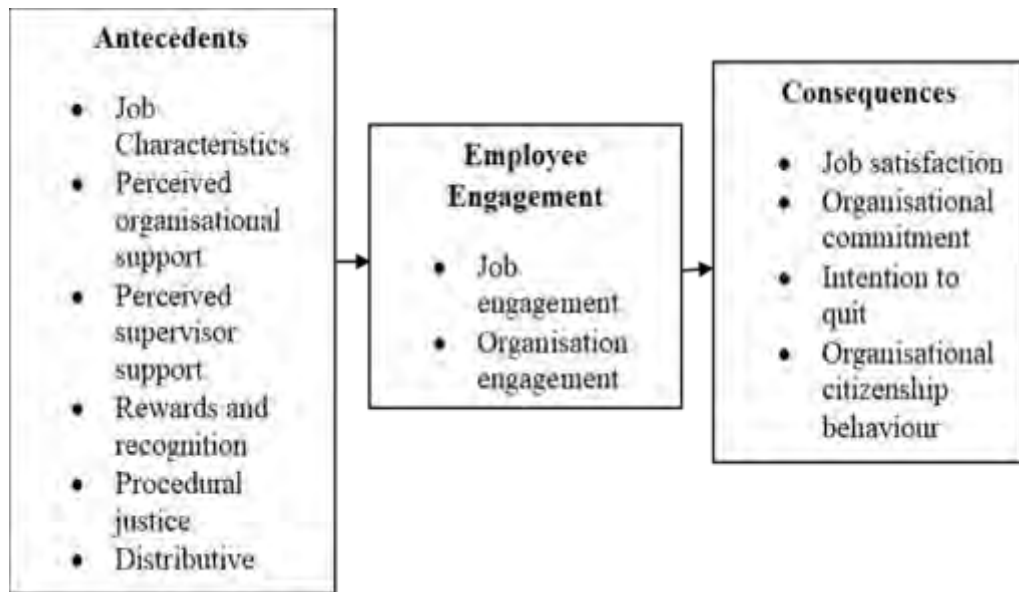


Figure 2.1
Sak's Model of Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement (2006)

Saks (2006) has separated employee engagement into two different classifications and they are job engagement and organisation engagement. The analysis carried out by the researcher (Saks, 2006) shows that job characteristics and organisational support are the important predictors of job engagement, whereas organisational support and procedural justice are precedents of organisation engagement. The research performed amongst 102 employees of various organisations, also exposed significant consequences of both types of engagement. The significances include job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit and organisational citizenship behaviour.

In 2014, Anitha found seven significant variables in the attempt to identify seven potential antecedents (work environment, leadership, team and co-worker, training and career development, compensation, organisational policies and workplace well-being) of employee engagement. In her research on 383 middle and lower-level managers working in small businesses in India, all the seven variables predicted engagement.

However, the most significant factors were the work environment and team and co-worker relationship.

Likewise, many other scholars have investigated various predictors and outcomes associated with employee engagement. First, organisational factors that lead to employee engagement will be discussed and it will be followed by individual factors. The outcomes of employee engagement will be discussed finally.

Researchers have revealed that organisational factors profoundly stimulate employee engagement. For instance, a research conducted on 3,653 employees from two companies in the United Kingdom (Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees & Gatenby, 2013) and 1058 employees in 17 units of a healthcare organisation in the Netherlands (Bal, Kooij & De Jong, 2013) have significantly proved the correlation amid human resource management (HRM) practices and employee engagement.

Leadership is another organisational factor regularly studied in the area of engagement. Soane (2014) states that there is numerous theoretical and scientific research done in the past for validating the association among leadership and positive work outcomes, particularly employee engagement. For example, an empirical study based on a sample of 530 full-time employees working in Australia (Ghadi, Fernando & Caputi, 2013), a study on 240 nurses employed by five public hospitals in Iran (Hayati, Charkhabi & Naami, 2014) and gender-based research on 530 women and 602 men mainly from engineering and computing background (Vincent-Höper, Muser & Janneck, 2012) showed a strong linkage between transformational leadership and employee engagement.

Interestingly, several studies have been steered to test the relationship between individual factors and employee engagement. The most common individual factor is personality traits. The existence of a correlation between personality traits and engagement was found in various studies. For example, a study conducted on 1050 working adults from a wide range of sectors tested the relationship between Big Five personality traits and engagement (Akhtar, Boustani, Tsivrikos & Chamorrow-Premuzic, 2015). The result shows that only openness, extraversion, and conscientiousness strongly predicted engagement. Another study by Langelaan, Bakker, Van Doornen and Schaufeli (2006) on 572 Dutch employees also revealed a positive relationship between the trait called extraversion and employee engagement. Additionally, in 2014 a study conducted by Ongore on 118 university personnel in Turkey also supported the positive association between personality traits (openness, extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness) and engagement.

Another individual factor that foster employee engagement is personal resources. By definition, personal resources are the characteristics possessed by a person connected to resilience and the ability to effectively manage one's environment (Lorente, Salanova, Martinez & Vera, 2014). Scholars (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014) believe that personal resources play a crucial role in enhancing the engagement of employees due to their motivational potential. This was demonstrated by Xanthopoulou et al., (2009) through their longitudinal research of 163 employees of a Netherland based engineering company. The authors have confirmed that personal attributes such as self-efficacy, self-esteem and optimism are among the personal resources that contribute to employee engagement.

However, in the academic context, Bakker et al., (2007) have concluded that job resources such as job control, supervisor support, climate, innovativeness, information and appreciation contribute to a vital role in aiding engagement among educators in Finland. Along the similar vein, Alzyoud, Othman and Faizal (2015) studied Jordanian public university academics and found autonomy, social support and performance feedback to be related to employee engagement. The authors also indicate that when academics experience greater job resources (autonomy, social support and performance feedback), they are likely to find the job more pleasing and therefore will be more participative and increase their commitment towards the job. Several other researchers have also claimed job satisfaction (Silman, 2014; Ali & Farooqi, 2014), quality of work-life (Alqarni, 2016), personality traits (Zaidi, Wajid, Zaidi, Zaidi & Zaidi, 2013; Scheepers, Arah, Heineman & Lombarts, 2016; Hau & Bing, 2018; Machiha & Brew, 2019) and leadership (Khan, Muhammad, Afridi & Sarwar, 2017) as strong predictors of employee engagement in the higher education sector.

The driving factor behind employee engagement is the positive consequences that it offers to organisations. One of the prevalent consequence is job satisfaction, among the critical research in the area of engagement. A cross-sectional survey on 312 Portuguese workers (Moura, Orgambidez-Ramos & Goncalves, 2014); a survey on 336 frontline workers of 20 reputed hotels in Taiwan (Yeh, 2015); a study on 123 clinicians specializing in surgery medicine in Germany (Mache, Vitzthum, Klapp & Danzer, 2014) have predicted that employee engagement promotes job satisfaction. Ensuring job satisfaction of employees is an essential task of an organisation (Aydin, Sarier & Uysal, 2013).

Another valuable outcome associated with employee engagement is job performance. According to an investigation done by Karatepe (2013) on 110 full-time frontline hotel employees and their managers in Romania and a study by Tims, Bakker, Derks and van Rhenen (2013) on 525 healthcare employees in the Netherlands have predicted that employee engagement stimulates job performance which is crucial for the success of any organisation.

Organisational commitment is another organisational outcome of employee engagement which often been studied by scholars. Research (Simons & Buitendach, 2013) steered on South African based call centre staff indicates employee engagement as the most vital indicator of organisational commitment. Other scholars (Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock & Farr-Wharton, 2012; Coffman & Gonzalez-Molina, 2002) also agree that organisational commitment is a result of vigorous engagement.

Apart from the aforementioned positive organisational outcomes, a meta-analysis investigation by Harter, Schmidt, Agrawal and Plowman (2013) based on 230 organisations in 49 industries, with 1,882,131 employees in 73 countries proved that employee engagement predicts customer loyalty, profitability and productivity. Similarly, a study was done by Xanthopoulou et al., (2009) reported that employee engagement has a positive relationship with financial returns. Further, the Gallup organisation (Attridge, 2009) also claims that employee engagement consistently linked with other favourable business outcomes including reduced turnover and customer satisfaction.

In the higher education sector, scholars from various countries have done several significant pieces of research on employee engagement and its outcomes. Hanaysha (2016) investigated academic staff from public universities in Malaysia and showed a robust and important relationship between employee engagement and productivity. The author further added that engaged employees tend to demonstrate higher emotional attachment to the organisation, which leads to higher productivity. Ironically, Christensen, Dyrstad and Innstrand (2020) who studied the academics in Norway found that engagement stimulated the productivity in favour of publication outputs and funding applications at the expense of teaching. Further, performance (Nazir & Islam, 2017; Pham-Thai, McMurray, Muenjohn & Muchiri, 2018) and commitment (Nazir & Islam, 2017; Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014) are also verified as the significant outcomes of employee engagement in the higher education sector.

Though the abovementioned studies evident a positive relationship with employee engagement (both as antecedent and outcome variable), there are also a few studies that showed a negative relationship. For instance, Van Mol, Nijkamp, Bakker, Schaufeli and Kompanje (2018) steered a cross-sectional study among 193 ICU professional in the Netherland found a weak negative connection between a group of job demands (workload, physical demands, cognitive demands and emotional demands) and employee engagement. Job demand such as workload is often been studied by scholars in association with employee engagement. In particular, Zahrah, Aziz and Hamid (2019); Ugwu and Onyishi (2020) testified the negative relationship between workload and work engagement among nurses from Malaysia and Nigeria respectively. A similar result was also obtained by Ahmed et al., (2017) when studied the bank employees of Pakistan. Apart from job demands such as workload, Crawford,

LePine, and Rich (2010) through Li, Wang, Li and Zhou (2017) cited that hindrance demands (such as situational constraints, hassles, role conflict role overload and role ambiguity) has the ability to lessen the employee engagement. Work-family conflict (Opie & Henn, 2013) and stress (Li, Cheung & Sun, 2019) are the other constructs which have been predominantly studied along with employee engagement to indicate a negative association. The apparent reason for this negative relationship is that job demands can evolve as work stressors because fulfilling these demands involves a high degree of commitment and it is often correlated with high costs that contribute to detrimental consequences such as burnout.

In summary, various factors have been examined by scholars in the past to predict employee engagement. Job resources such as organisational support and other factors like job characteristics and leadership are positively related to work engagement. On the contrary, job and hindrance demand showcased a negative relationship with employee engagement. This mixed result will provide opportunities for scholars to further explore the area of employee engagement to obtain a deeper understanding.

Next, section 2.2, will discuss the independent variables (job demands: work-family conflict and work overload) studied in this research, in which they are considered as the antecedents of employee engagement.

2.2 Job Demands

Reflecting on the research by Jones and Fletcher (1996, p. 34), demand, for instance, in an organisation's setting, is perceived as to what extent the organisation's environment possesses job elements and expectations that require constant and definite attention and response. In their work to address issues of developing and measuring burnout, Demerouti et al., (2001) proposed that job demands can be classified into several categories, that include aspects such as physiological, mental health, socialising and other aspects of a job in the organisation. That being said, these aspects, individually, requires unrelenting intellectual and emotive efforts, which may impose some undesirable consequences on the physiological and psychological aspects. Although some scholars opined that job demands might not necessarily be a negative element in an organisation's setting (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), some researchers relentlessly view job demands as stressors, especially in a job context which require high effort to maintain a performance standard, which may result in adverse effects, such as burnout (Hakanen et al., 2006). Maslach (1993) also opined that high job demands would drain one's energy and consequently lead to mental withdrawal. Rendering to the job demand-resources model portrayed in Figure 2.2, an employee is expected to exert more effort, whenever the demands for a particular job are high, to ensure that the tasks involved are completed on time (Bakker & Demrouti, 2018). On the other hand, the additional efforts put forth by the employee per se would have taken a great toll on his or her mental and physical health (Bakker and Demrouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

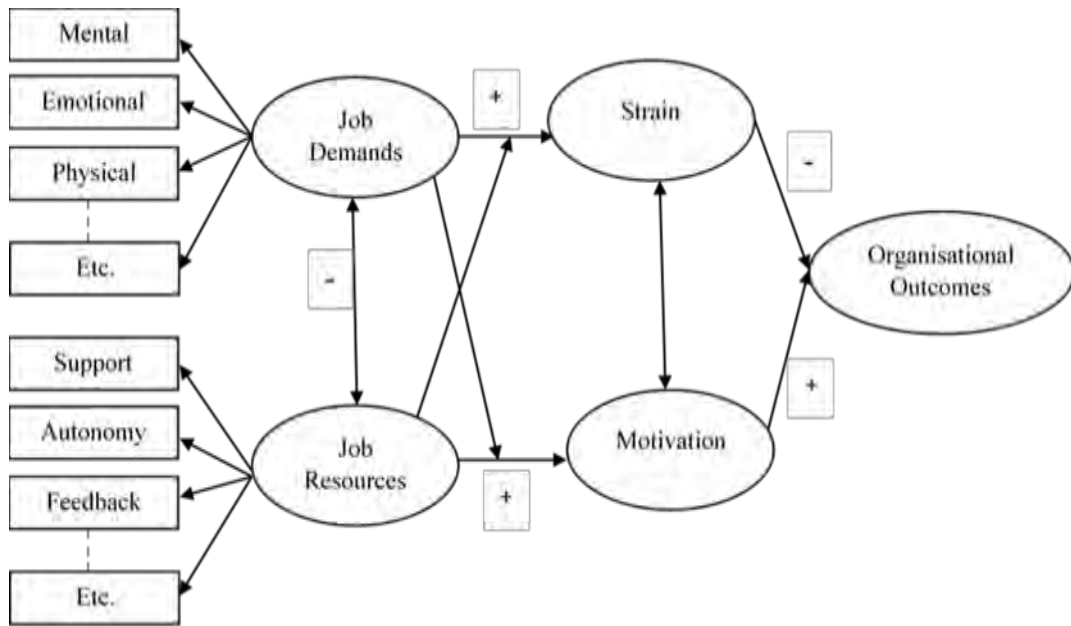


Figure 2.2
The Job Demand-Resource Model by Bakker & Demerouti (2007)

Next, in their critical review of the job demand-resource model (JD-R), Schaufeli and Taris (2014) revealed that this particular model does not have any restriction on specific job demands as one can assume that job demands can impact employees' health and also their well-being. Hence, the scope of job demands become wider and also flexible. However, the authors (Schaufeli et al., 2014) have also suggested some of the job demands which are emotional demands, interpersonal conflict, remuneration, role ambiguity, role conflict, unfavourable work conditions and work overload. Particularly, Van den Broeck and colleagues (2017) identified role conflict and work overload as energy-depleting job demands that constantly requires both physical and psychological efforts which in turn leads to the development of burnout.

Job demands have been measured in the teaching profession across the world by several proportions. Past empirical studies continuously proved that job demands such as disruptive pupil behaviours (Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004); work overload and

physical work environment (Roslan, Ho, Ng & Sambasivan, 2015); role conflict, ambiguity and techno stressors (Khan, Yusoff & Khan, 2014) and work pressure and emotional demands (Evers, van der Heijden, Kreijns & Vermeulen, 2016) play a crucial role in predicting employee engagement.

Based on the review of literature, two job demands are identified as critical in education: work-family conflict (Hardy, McDonald, Guijt, Leane, Martin, James & Green, 2016; Winefield, Boyd & Winefield, 2014) and work overload (Nasurdin & O'Driscoll, 2012; Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011). The selected constructs (work-family conflict and work overload) are deemed appropriate to investigate as job demands, suggested by Schaufeli et al., (2014) and Van den Broeck et al., (2017). They are explained subsequently.

2.2.1 Work-Family Conflict

Though work and family are two distinct domains, they are interrelated and able to influence each other (Clark, 2000). According to the literature study, work-family conflict (WFC) is the most observed concept in the context of work and family (Byron, 2005; Shockley, Shen & Johnson, 2018). It might be a result of the view of most individuals, that work and family are a significant aspect of one's life (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark & Baltes, 2011). They are now becoming highly antagonistic extremes that require the same volume of energy, time and obligation (Aboobaker & Erward, 2020).

WFC is a conflict that occurs between work roles and family roles, resulting from the extremely challenging demands, connected with each role and reducing performance in both roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Aboobaker & Erward, 2017). In other words, WFC happens when work demands affect home-related obligations. For instance, carrying office work to home and trying to complete it in the time that they are supposed to spend on family members (Moreno-Jimenez, Manyo, Sanz-Vergel, Geurts, Rodriguez-Munoz & Garrosa, 2009). Greenhaus et al., (1985) have also argued that WFC occurs as the result of three mechanisms namely time, strain and behaviour. Time-based conflict happens because it becomes extremely difficult to perform another role because of the amount of time allotted to one role. Whereas, strain-based conflict refers to the emotional fatigue happening when the stress or exhaustion of one role lessens the effectiveness of the other role. Lastly, behaviour based conflict arises when behaviours that are effective in one role are not efficient for the other role (Greenhaus, Allen & Spector, 2006; Matejević & Đorđević, 2019).

Most researchers emphasise that when role expectations are not compatible in terms of work and family domains, individuals experience conflict. In accordance with the literature and also referring to the work of Greenhaus et al., (1985); Netemeyer, Boles and Mc Murrian (1996) in their attempt to develop WFC scale, highlighted that WFC is an inter role conflict that occurs when individuals face inconsistencies between job and family-related responsibilities. It may instigate from long working or inflexible working schedules which reduces the time spent at home (Erdamar & Demirel, 2014).

However, studies on WFC have revealed that the association between work and family are bidirectional (Adams, King & King, 1996). This means that when work can

interfere with family and it creates work-family conflict, while family obstruct with work creates family-work conflict (Nohe & Sonntag, 2014).

Work-family conflict literature shows that, most of the studies conducted in this area typically researched either antecedents or consequences of the construct. However, it has always cast in a negative light due to their deleterious consequences. The research proposes that organisations which do not take action to lessen the level of WFC among employees will have to face negative consequences (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino & Rosner, 2005). They postulate that stress resulted from WFC may affect the efficiency of employees which consequently linked to the organisation's performance and profitability. Another research conducted by Aminah (2008) evidenced that high level of work-family conflict leads to a high level of emotional exhaustion. Thus it reduces work performance. In line with that, Balogun (2019) cites that the inability to handle the conflict between work and family could inevitably lead to stress and tension, which, in turn, will result in burnout.

However, this variable has turned into a priority for researchers and practitioners as it causes stress to many individuals (Carlson, Kacmar & Williams, 2000) where it influences a number of outcomes including psychological distress (Nohe, Meier, Sonntag & Michel, 2015), job satisfaction (Baral, 2016; Afzal & Yasir, 2014), organisational commitment (Wayne, Casper, Matthews & Allen, 2013), turnover intention (Nohe & Sonntag, 2014), and life satisfaction (Qiu & Fan, 2015). Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, McKnight and George (2007) also cites WFC as a strong indicator of job-related outcomes if compared to role conflict and role ambiguity. They claim that the role conflict and role ambiguity are less significant compared to WFC since

they epitomised within-role conflicts which affect one's work role identity. Hence, WFC creates severe distress.

In the field of education, much academic staff experience high levels of work-family conflict (Cinamon, Rich & Westman, 2007) because they face difficulties in preserving boundaries between the work and the family. Research conducted by Ukwai, Uko and Udida (2013) reveals that many families of academic staff suffer as a direct result of their jobs. Though many higher education institutions allow their academic staff to enjoy flexible working hours, they have a high tendency to work in the evenings and also on weekends (Winefield, Boyd & Winefield, 2014). Apparently, it will increase WFC.

2.2.2 Work Overload

Work overload is commonly observed as a stressor in the workplace (Cousins, Mackay, Clarke, Kelly, Kelly & McCaig, 2004). This construct describes everyday tasks which are so demanding that coping is only possible with very high effort (Schulz, Kirschbaum, Prübner & Hellhammer, 1998). It occurs when people are subject to very high expectations of their organisations (Srivastav, 2007). More precisely, Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) described work overload as “the perceived magnitude of work-role demands, and the feeling that there are too many things to do and not enough time to do them”. Consequently, it will result in exhaustion and strain (Skinner & Pocock, 2008). Along the similar vein, Jensen, Patel and Messersmith (2013) as cited in Kissi, Asare, Agyekum and Labaran (2019), related work overload to situations where an employee's perception of employment surpasses

the resources which includes time and energy. Kanbur (2018) and Gurlek (2020) also assert work overload as the amount of work that exceeds the employees' ability to complete. The authors also mentioned that the employees', whose work exceeds their ability, would result in deprivation.

Work overload, however, sometimes is being divided into two groups by researchers: quantitative overload and qualitative overload. Quantitative overload is the work that needs to be completed within a specific time frame which surpasses the employees' capabilities (Mazloun, Kumashiro, Izumi & Higuchi, 2008). While qualitative overload happens when employees' work become intricate which in return it becomes a stressor (Gilbreath, 2004). However, for this research, the expression work overload will be applied to describe the complicated job that academic staff have to accomplish which requires high effort (Cousins et al., 2004).

The construct, work overload has been discussed across the various literature. Shantz, Arevshatian, Alfes and Bailey (2016) found that employees who experience overload in their organisation will tend to manage the demands by exerting extra effort to perform which could lead to emotional drain. According to Karatepe (2013), work overload coupled with emotional exhaustion affects job embeddedness and job performance. This author's study on 110 hotel employees in Romania validates that, work overload is a major determinant of emotional exhaustion. The literature study also reveals the direct relationship of work overload with the psychological strain (Bliese & Castro, 2000). Another study by Michie and Williams (2003) also demonstrates the relationship between work overload and psychological ill-health.

Work overload is a significant issue for academic staff (Khan, Yusoff & Azam, 2014). Many studies have cited that the workload of academic staff in the higher education sector has increased and become more stressful (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua & Stough, 2001; Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper & Ricketts, 2005; Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008). Research shows that work overload has predicted emotional exhaustion. Therefore, it motivated academic staff to even leave the teaching profession (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Yusoff et al., (2013), argued that academic staff be overloaded with numerous type of works apart from teaching. They are expected to attract external research funds, perform administrative duties, publish high-quality papers and various meetings, and the list goes on. Recent innovations in technology have also put the burden on academic staff where they are expected to focus on blended learning. In proportion to this, Torp, Lysfjord and Midje (2018) also claim that academics are working intensely beyond working hours to meet the expectation of their institution for pursuing the academic profession.

2.2.3 Previous research on Job Demands

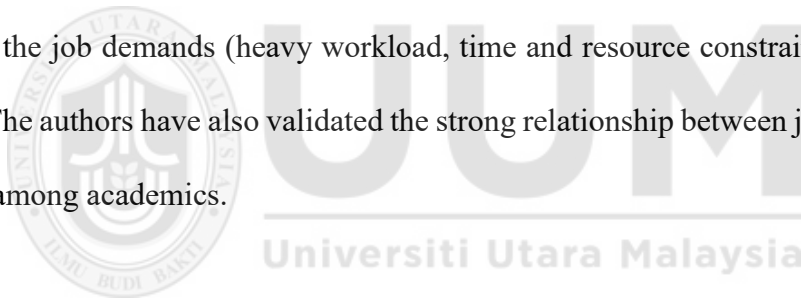
Research suggests that job demands are used to predict various outcomes which sometimes will be harmful when it requires high effort. Bakker and Demerouti (2018) proposed that job demands are the aspect of work that deplete the energy of employees due to workload, complex task and conflict. Many studies have vested job demands as a critical predictor of various outcomes. For example, Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, McKnight and George (2007) in the attempt to search for antecedents of turnover intention among 171 employees from the software service sector, found that both work

overload and work-family conflict are strong predictors of turnover intention through emotional exhaustion as mediator.

Additionally, work-family conflict (WFC) is also found to be negatively related to work engagement. In 2013, Opie and Henn conducted cross-sectional research among 267 working women from various organisations and proved a negative relationship between WFC and engagement. Many other studies also form a conclusion that there is a strong negative link between WFC and various organisational outcomes including engagement. Mian Zhang, Griffeth and Fried (2012) did an investigation on 264 managers from China posits the strong association between WFC and emotional exhaustion. In another research, Dyrbye and his colleagues (2014) surveyed 891 physicians from the United States and concluded that WFC firmly connected with burnout, quality of life, symptoms of depression and relationship difficulties. In the higher education sector, however, Winefield, Boyd and Winefield (2014) reported that academics are working in a stressful environment and facing many challenges (to attract research funding, to publish in high impact journal, to teach an increasing number of students and other administrative duties) due to high expectations from the universities. Further, the researchers (Winefield et al., 2014) added that these demands will require the academic staff to work extensively during nights and also weekends which may lead to work-family conflict.

A multi-sample research conducted by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) which include workload and emotional demands as job demands has predicted burnout. Another study (Montgomery, Spânu, Băban & Panagopoulou, 2015) on 1156 nurses from seven European countries also revealed that job demands (workload, emotional and

organisational demands) are positively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. These results infer that when a job requires high effort, employees experience burnout. More specifically, in 2006, Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli studied the association between work overload and work engagement among 2038 Finnish teachers and predicted that teachers' work overload would cause ill health through its effect on burnout. Similarly, there have been shreds of evidence observed in the context of higher education. For instance, Stelmokienė, Genevičiūtė-Janonė, Gustainienė and Kovalčikienė (2019), have investigated 257 university academics from Lithuania and concluded that quantitative (workload) and emotional demands have predicted professional burnout. Besides, Kinman and Jones (2008) examined the UK academic staffs confirms that occupational stress has increased among academics due to the job demands (heavy workload, time and resource constraints, publication, etc.). The authors have also validated the strong relationship between job demands and strain among academics.



The empirical research also exposes the positive outcomes of job demands. A study by Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari and Safavi (2014) on 195 hotel employees in Northern Cyprus reported that work overload heightens the level of engagement when it is seen as a challenge stressor. However, researchers show limited interest in finding positive outcomes of job demands.

Interestingly in some studies, job resources absorbed the fallout of job demands regarding burnout and engagement. Research by Gabel-Shemueli, Dolan and Ceretti (2014) on 481 nurses from health care centres studied three job demands: work overload, emotional demands and home-work imbalance. In this study, the job

resources absorbed the fallout of job demands on employee engagement in nurses. In another study, Hakanen, Seppälä and Peeters, (2017) investigated 470 dentists from Finland and the findings revealed, job crafting buffers the adverse effect of job demands (workload, emotional dissonance, work contents and physical demands) on burnout and to a certain extent on engagement. This buffering effects can also be seen in a study by Tadić, Bakker and Oerlemans (2015) on 158 school teachers in Croatia.

Next, the independent variables (job resources: perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition) selected for this research will be discussed, in which they are measured as the predictors of employee engagement.

2.3 Job Resources

Job resources are those “physical, social or organisational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development”, (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501). Further, in their work on providing an overview of employee engagement, Bakker and Demerouti (2008) have cited job resources as predictors of employee engagement. The authors claim that job resources play a motivational role in promoting employees to be engaged. On the contrary, lacking job resources will result in disengagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti 2007), explains that job resources foster employee motivation which positively linked with organisational outcomes such as high engagement, low cynicism and excellent performance. Van den Berg, Bakker and

Ten Cate (2013) opined that by offering adequate job resources, an organisation could ensure its employees' engagement. In other words, when employees believe that they have enough resources to accomplish their job, they will be more engaged. These job resources may come from four different levels: organisational, interpersonal, job position and the level of the task (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). For this research, two job resources called perceived organisational support (POS) from the interpersonal level, and rewards and recognition from the organisational level were selected as job resources. These two variables are significant predictors of employee engagement. Additionally, in their critical review of the job demand-resource model (JD-R), Schaufeli et al., (2014) claim that any job resources can be assumed as valid, as they have the potential to affect the employees' well-being and motivation. Thus, there is no restriction to select a specific job resource. However, the authors suggested a few variables as job resources such as advancement, appreciation, opportunities for professional development, financial rewards, social support and supervisory coaching. The selected variables (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition) are deemed to be appropriate to investigate as job resources as suggested by Schaufeli et al., (2014) and Saks (2006) to predict employee engagement.

A study piloted to examine the effect of POS, psychological empowerment (PE) and rewards on employee satisfaction through the mediation of employee engagement among 200 banking sector employees of Pakistan by Hassan, Hassan and Shoaib (2014) reveals that there is a significant relationship between POS, rewards and employee engagement. Another research conducted on 310 respondents from Jordanian hotel industry (Ram & Prabhakar, 2011) with the purpose of identifying predictors and outcomes of employee engagement also confirms the link amid POS,

rewards and employee engagement. Along the similar line, Sohrabizadeh and Sayfour (2014) in their cross-sectional study of 279 nurses from teaching hospitals in Iran found that POS and rewards and recognition are related to work engagement as its antecedents. This part of the literature gives an idea that the constructs, POS and rewards and recognition are widely studied as essential job resources in service-based industries. Based on this ground, the same variables were chosen as job resources to investigate the association with employee engagement among academic staff in Malaysia.

2.3.1 Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Perceived organisational support (POS) is one of the critical variables in organisational research. POS refers to the employees' overall beliefs concerning the extent to which their organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986). The employees build a sense of commitment towards the organisation that they are working for if they feel that they are valued and respected. In return, they earn remunerations such as recognition, appreciation, rewards and access to information and other means of support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Fundamentally, it portrays the exchange affiliation amid the organisation and its employees. Given the definition given by Rhoades et al., (2002), Le and Lei (2019) in their work on exploring the moderating effect of POS, characterised that POS represents the best efforts of workers to fulfil their personal duties and organisational priorities as a constructive response that derives from their perception that they are respected, well-being cared for and have meaningful

organisational support. Scholars (Nazir, Qun, Hui & Shafi, 2018) argued that this reciprocal relationship is developed based on social exchange norms.

It is evident that employees work in consensus with the norm of exchange or reciprocity (Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski & Aselage, 2009). When the relationship between an organisation and its employees decline, it will be detrimental to both the parties (Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog & Zagenczyk, 2013). Hence, POS is a critical factor in influencing employees' work behaviour and attitude. Khan (1990) has mentioned that employees who believe that the organisation provides the supportive working environment, have a tendency to take the risk, depict their real characters and will try to fail without fearing about the consequences. These qualities are vital in achieving organisational goals. Along a similar vein, Eisenberger et al., (2016); Wang and Wang (2020) claims that high POS leads to better performance.

This variable is widely used by many scholars to predict positive work outcomes such as jobs satisfaction (Mahmoud, 2008; Colakoglu, Culha and Atay, 2010; Cullen, Edwards, Casper & Gue, 2014; Sungu, Weng & Kitule, 2019) and organisational commitment (Garg & Dhar, 2014; Nazir et al., 2018). These studies posit a healthy relationship between POS and job satisfaction and also commitment. In other words, a high level of POS will result in positive work outcomes.

Organisational researchers always associate POS with withdrawal behaviours such as turnover and absenteeism. When employees feel unhappy or feel they are not valued, there are high chances for them to look for opportunities in the external environment. Several studies have shown that lower POS level will lead to turnover (Allen, Shore

& Griffeth, 2003; Perryer, Jordan, Firms & Travaglione, 2010) and absenteeism (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008).

In regards to the higher education sector, Bogler and Nir (2012) suggested a strong relationship between POS and educators' performance. According to them, educators experience greater job satisfaction if they believe their management is committed to them and act on their behalf voluntarily. As a subsequent reaction to that, they will be expected to enhance their work performance. Jais and Mohamad (2013) have also investigated those in the teaching profession and found that POS is positively associated with educators' commitment. It indicates that educators who feel that they are supported by the organisation will be motivated to deliver quality education.

2.3.2 Rewards and Recognition

Rewards are the monetary benefits which include performance bonus, incentives, promotions and salary increments (Imran, Ahmad, Nisar & Ahmad, 2014; Aktar, Sachu & Ali, 2012). This type of rewards are the psychological rewards that employees obtain from their job performance (Ram & Prabhakar, 2011). Such rewards can stimulate employees to be more engaged (Mone & London, 2009; Zainol, 2016) and they will feel valued (Husaain, Khaliq, Nisar, Kamboh & Ali, 2019). Sutherland (2004) validates that reward is the primary component which specifies how much employees earn by devoting their time and effort towards the achievements of the organisation's goals. More specifically, Bandura (1977) stated that rewards could control employees' behaviour when they perceive future benefits.

While recognition is about non-monetary rewards such as acknowledgement and appreciation (Šajevaa, 2014). Though recognition does not involve any financial reward, it indicates the management's appreciation for employees' effort will certainly provide a great impact on employees' engagement level (Bradler, Dur, Neckermann & Non, 2016; Ram & Prabhakar, 2011). Research has also evidenced that non-monetary rewards, such as recognition are more effective in motivating and engaging employees compared to monetary rewards (Šajevaa, 2014). Based on the social exchange theory, Saks (2019) opines that, when employees receive rewards and recognition from their organisation, they will be obliged to respond with a higher engagement level. Asaari, Desa and Subramaniam (2019) proclaim the same by adding motivation and satisfaction as a response to rewards and recognition while Sidhu and Nizam (2020) added that it has the potential to impact the employees' efficiency as well as the organisation's performance.

As discussed, both reward and recognition are used as the critical parameters in organisations to improve the performance behaviour of employees. Earlier studies theorised rewards and recognition as a strong predictor of workplace behaviours which allied directly to organisational outcomes. The study by Danish and Usman (2010) showed, this construct has predicted job satisfaction and motivation; Aktar, Sachu and Ali (2012), Hafiza, Shah, Jamsheed and Zaman (2011) and De Gieter and Hofmans, (2015) predicted job performance; Saks (2006) and Anitha (2014) had predicted employee engagement. This growing number of studies about reward and recognition clearly explains that employees will be positively influenced to perform their work if they receive favourable rewards from their employers. Also, as rewards and recognition is viewed as an integral component of job resources (Rai, Ghosh, Chauhan

& Singh, 2018), and it provides support to the positive correlation with employee engagement.

2.3.3 Previous studies on Job Resources

Many studies have evidenced that if job resources are consistently high, it will direct towards positive outcomes. For instance, a study on 288 chemical plant employees (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2013) and 786 Spanish employees from various backgrounds (Salanova, Del Libano, Llorens & Schaufeli, 2014) exhibited a positive relationship between job resources and employee well-being.

In addition to that, research piloted in East Asia by Yeh (2015) confirms that job resources which include earnings, job content and workplace relationships generated a positive effect on job satisfaction. The study concluded that job resources increase job satisfaction more than job demands. However, the author also indicates that the effects of the guanxi tradition also influence job satisfaction in this region, particularly in Japan, Taiwan and Korea.

Besides, job resources such as job control, access to information, supervisory support and innovative school climate have also predicted to support work engagement in a study conducted among 570 school teachers in Malaysia (Roslan, Ho, Ng & Sambasivan, 2015). Another study led by Altunel, Kocak and Cankir (2015) on 422 Turkish academics also verifies that job resources mainly autonomy, social support, coaching, opportunities for development and task significance are significant predictors of work engagement. Similarly, Scheepers, Lases, Arah, Heineman and

Lombarts (2017) shows a positive relationship between job resources of physicians' work engagement. The constructs used for job resources were autonomy, colleagues support, participation in decision making and learning opportunities. Along the similar line, Araya (2015) examined a sample of 155 participants from various industries through an online survey, and the result proposes that job resources, which is perceived organisational support in particular influence work engagement.

On the other side, job resources which include decision latitude, supervisor support and co-worker support have shown a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion in a study conducted by Li, Jiang, Yao and Li (2013) on 670 Chinese workers in the petroleum industry. It specifies that if the employees observe high job resources, the tendency to get exhausted will be lower. In a similar vein, Hsieh (2014) has also claimed that job resources consistently allied with decreased emotional exhaustion in a study on 208 public service workers in the state of Florida, United States.

Job resources are always studied together with employee engagement and other positive outcomes in the higher education sector. Machiha and Brew (2019) studied perceived organisational support (POS) as a stronger predictor of engagement among Sweden based university academics. Organisational support has also been studied among South African university academics along with other job resources (advancement and growth opportunities) and found to be significantly associated with work engagement (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006). The scholars claim that academics will invest in their job if two conditions are met. First is the availability of essential resources, and then the organisation must be able to provide a work atmosphere which

utilises the aptitude of employees that meets their needs. In the absence of these resources, the academics, therefore, might not be able to reduce the detrimental effects of job demands. Similar work in the higher education sector has been pursued by other researchers (Gupta, Acharya & Gupta, 2015) in which, coworker support and supervisor support are the other job resources that foster employee engagement. Likewise, Jonasson, Luring, Selmer and Trembath (2017) who investigated the job resources (teacher-student relationship) among expatriate academics in China reported a significant relationship with job satisfaction.

Next, the identification of the research gap will be discussed.

2.4 Identification of Research Gap

The above literature review identifies that research on employee engagement is phenomenal. The number of research in this area is continually growing as organisations and scholars realise the importance of employee engagement. However, some areas still need the attention of scholars. First and foremost, the systematic review of the literature did not provide a strict and firm description of employee engagement. Shuck et al., (2010), also highlight the variation in the conceptual definition. Hence, further research will be beneficial to understand the construct.

Apart from that, scholars often use various job demands and job resources to predict employee engagement. However, the “one size fits all approach” may not be appropriate in this context of research (Iddagoda & Opatha, 2016). The literature study also reiterates the fact that there is a shortage of empirical data to determine that work-

family conflict and work overload as job demands and perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition as job resources, that predict employee engagement.

Next, teaching is a stressful profession and it needs more research in the area of engagement. An individual working as an educator experience below than an average physical and psychological health (Johnson et al., 2005) and it will affect the engagement level badly. However, researchers seldom pay attention to academic staff (Ke, Zhang, Yan & Fu, 2017) working in the higher education sector although their contribution is vital to the nation's development. In the Malaysian context, there are limited studies about employee engagement amid academic staff from the private higher education sector. Earlier studies mostly were conducted on other professions from different industries such as nurses (Othman et al., 2011, 2013), HR officers (Andrew & Sofian, 2012), employees working in electronic manufacturing firms (Choo, Mat & Al-Omari, 2013), employees working in SMEs (Haruna & Marthandan, 2017) and also hotel employees (Suan & Nasurdin, 2016). Therefore, more research is required to comprehend the concept of employee engagement and the extent to which academics staff from the Malaysian private higher education sector are engaged as their contribution, is vital in nurturing the young minds of the nation.

2.5 Underpinning Theories

This study mainly targets to explore the relationship between employee engagement, job demands and job resources. Because of the type of variables applied in this research, various underpinning theories can be appropriate to underlie the framework

of this study theoretically. However, the widely used social exchange theory and job demand-resource model were selected to develop the theoretical framework. The following sub-sections elaborates these theories with supporting arguments.

2.5.1 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (SET) is one of the predominant models in the field of social psychology since the early writings of Homans (1961), Blau (1964) and Emerson (1962, 1972). SET is debated by some researchers and seems to be an appropriate and widely accepted theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) in understanding organisational behaviour. Notably, one of the eminent researchers in the field of engagement, Saks (2006) has also opined SET as the best theory in explaining employee engagement.

SET is commonly used to describe workplace exchange relationships and how it benefits the various stakeholders. It also explains that both organisations and employees will benefit if the relationships are more compelling. It also expresses that, organisations that invest in and provide recognition to its employees may expect strong social exchange relationships (Barkhuizen, Rothmann & Vijver, 2014). Based on this fact, it also can be concluded that employees who feel that they are supported in a work context, establish a high level of engagement.

Blau (1964) claims that an individual is expected to express his or her gratitude after receiving a service from another individual by repaying it. The social rewards received will act as a stimulus to encompass further assistance and results in a mutual exchange

of services, which subsequently will develop a social bond between the two parties. The SET thus provides a theoretical framework for understanding the reasons why university academics are either engaged or disengaged. Social exchange relationships excite beneficial consequences when employers start to take care of their employees (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). It means that academics staff feel gratified when they receive useful resources and therefore they demonstrate a higher level of engagement. At the same time, if the universities fail to offers such resources needed by academic staff, they might choose to be disengaged. It undoubtedly indicates the reciprocal relationship between the employer and employees.

Therefore, the variables selected for this study was developed based on the concept of exchange between employees and the organisations. Research has also acknowledged that job resources (rewards and recognition, perceived organisational support) are predictors of positive work outcomes and subsequently job demands (work-family conflict and work overload) due to strain that expects a low level of engagement.

2.5.2 The Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) Model

Job Demand – Resources (JD-R) model is another predominant theoretical model cited many times by scholars. From the time it was introduced, which is at the beginning of the twenty-first century, it has received a good response from the researchers around the globe. In November 2020, Google Scholar indicates that the article written by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001) cited 9862 times by researchers which itself explains the popularity of the model.

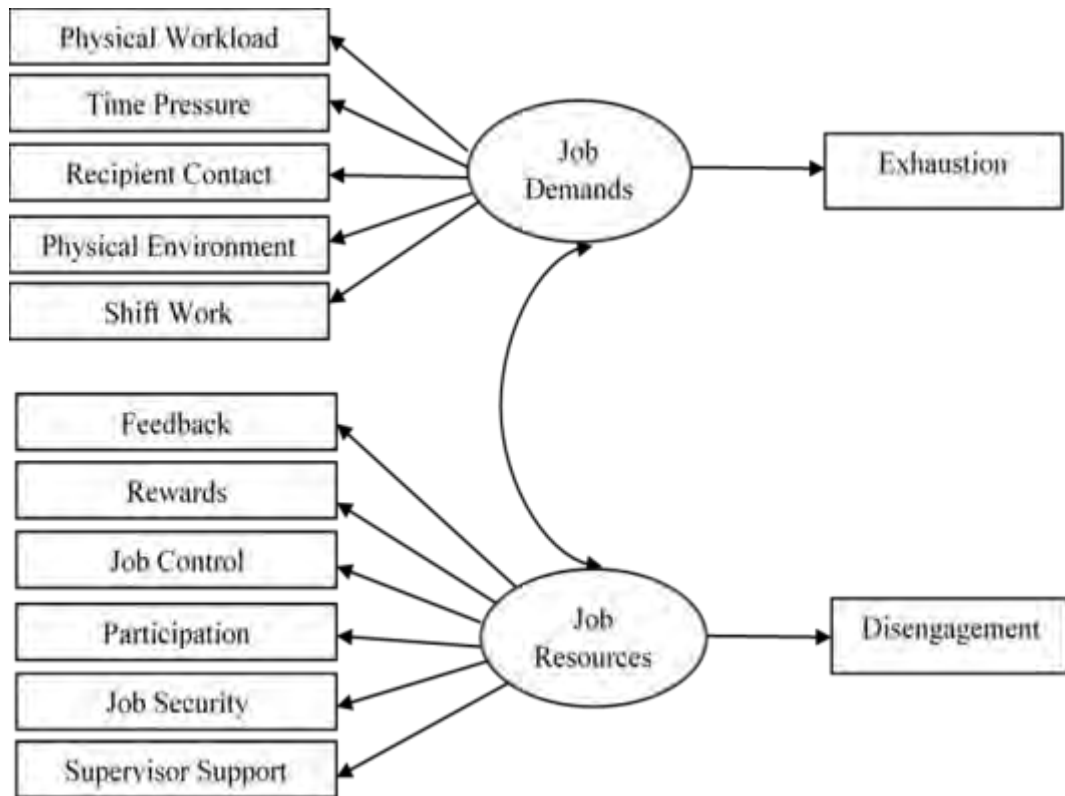


Figure 2.3
The JD-R Model Demerouti et al., (2001)

In 2001, Demerouti et al. developed the early JD-R model as illustrated in Figure 2.3. The authors established this model in the search for the predictors of burnout. Approximately 86% of research in the field of engagement were piloted based on this JD-R model (Bailey, Madden, Alfes & Fletcher, 2017). According to the model, there are two groups in the job environment called job demands and job resources. Bakker (2015) argues that when job demands are high, it will result in both strain and reduced performance. At the same time, job resources are expected to cause positive work outcomes such as engagement and excellent performance.

Job demands are the expectations of various areas of the job such as physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects, which require continuous physical and

psychological efforts, and, thus is usually linked with specific physical and mental detriments (Demerouti et al., 2001). The consistent association of job demand with undesirable employees' physical and mental health, unsurprisingly portrays a negative impression on itself, especially when excessive employee effort is required to meet the demands or expectations (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011).

Conversely, job resources are viewed as the physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects that purposefully support the execution and achievement of work goals, reduce job demands and set forth the impetus for personal growth and development for employees (Seppälä, Hakanen, Mauno, Perhoniemi, Tolvanen & Schaufeli, 2015). These resources may position at the level of organisation, interpersonal and social relations, the organisation of work and finally at the level of tasks (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006). Job resources play either a fundamental motivational role by fostering the growth and development of employees or an extrinsic motivational role by helping them achieve work objectives. In other words, resources nurture engagement in regards to vigour (energy), dedication (persistence) and absorption (focus) (Schaufeli, 2013). Numerous studies have exposed how the job resources which include job control, social support, learning avenues and performance reviews have a positive impact on work engagement (Bakker; 2011; Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008).

Basically, the model has repeatedly been used to predict job burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004), organisational commitment, work enjoyment (Bakker, Van Veldhoven & Xanthopoulou, 2010), connectedness (Lewig, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard & Metzger, 2007), work engagement (Hakanen, Bakker

& Schaufeli, 2006; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Brough, Timms, Siu, Kalliath, O'Driscoll, Sit, Lo & Lu, 2013; Lorente, Salanova, Martínez & Vera, 2014), psychological strain (Brough, Timms, Siu, Kalliath, O'Driscoll, Sit, Lo & Lu, 2013) and performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004).

In regards to the above findings, this study uses job demands and job resources as independent variables and employee engagement as a dependent variable.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework is the foundation of a research study (Sekaran, 2003). Based on the review of literature and underpinning theories called social exchange theory and JD-R model, the research model as seen in Figure 2.4 is formulated for the purpose of this research. As revealed in Figure 2.4, this research is aimed at examining job demands (work-family conflict and work overload) and job resources (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition) on employee engagement. For this specific work, both job demands and job resources should be seen as independent variables and employee engagement as a dependent variable. As portrayed in Figure 2.5, the arrow represented by H1 and H2 is to test the hypothesis between job demands factors (work-family conflict and work overload) and employee engagement. H3 and H4 on the other hand are to test the hypothesis between job resources (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition) and employee engagement.

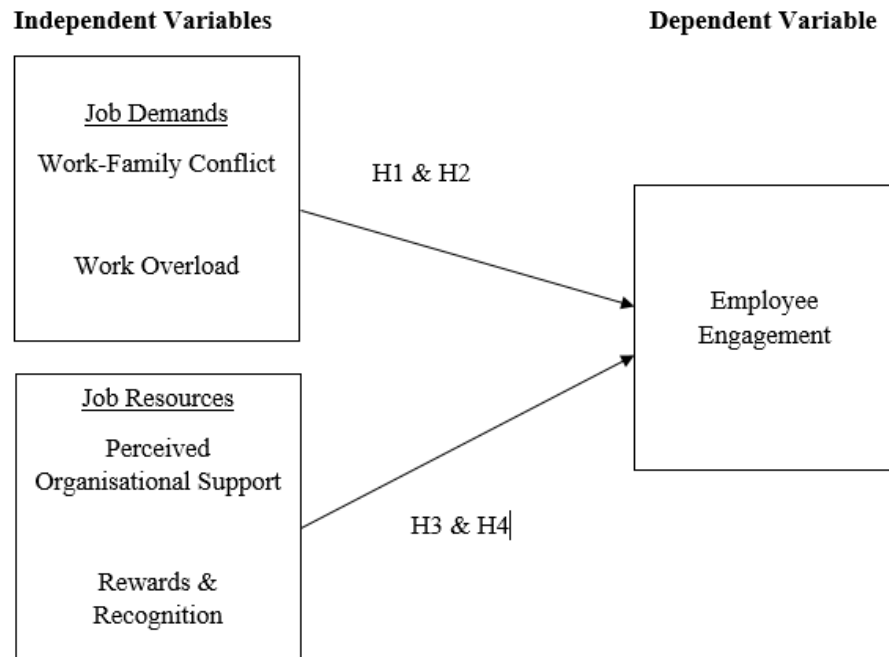


Figure 2.4
The proposed theoretical framework for this study

2.7 Hypotheses Development

According to Sekaran (2003), the hypothesis is a rationally estimated relationship between two or more constructs articulated in the form of a testable statement. Grounding on this statement, hypotheses for this study were developed based on earlier literature work done by numerous researchers. The following subsections illuminate how they were postulated based on previous studies.

2.7.1 Relationship between Job Demands and Employee Engagement

The job demands-resources (JD-R) model predicts that job demands lead to negative outcomes (Demerouti et al., 2001). Bakker, Demerouti and Euwema (2005) have

tested the JD-R model among employees of an institute for higher education in the Netherlands. The study investigated the most significant job demands. According to the study, work overload, emotional demands by students, physical demands and work-home interference were highlighted as the most significant job demands among academic staff. The scholar also concluded that large job demands have the ability to exhaust the psychological state of employees and will have an impact on them both mentally and psychically. When they withdraw mentally, the engagement level will decline (Coetzer and Rothmann, 2007). The study by Coetzer et al., (2007) in the South African manufacturing industry has also revealed that there is no significant correlation between job demands and employee engagement. A cross-sectional study (Mache, Vitzthum, Klapp & Danzer, 2014) on a sample of surgeons working in German hospitals have also predicted a less favourable relationship between job demands and employee engagement.

In particular, a study was conducted on 282 hotel frontline employees in Romania (Karatepe & Karadas, 2016) to investigate the work-family conflict (WFC) and employee engagement. The research claims that the employees are less engaged when they could not establish a balance between work and family. A similar study by Opie and Henn (2013) on working mothers from multimedia, finance and health sectors in South Africa has confirmed that greater degree of WFC is related to a lower level of employee engagement. It also advocates that the stress derived from WFC will prevent employees from being engaged and energetic in the workplace. Sayar, Jahanpour, Maroufi and Avazzadeh (2016) have also indicated a negative significant correlation between work-family conflict and employee engagement. Despite minimal studies about the consequence of WFC regarding employee engagement in the academic

sector, the variable relentlessly has been studied along with other notable organisational outcomes.

Likewise, Christiana (2013) piloted an investigation of female academic staff working in public universities in Nigeria to test the implications of WFC on job performance and well-being. The result revealed that WFC is strongly and negatively associated with their job and well-being. The study further indicated that WFC results in poor health and psychological strain. Also, a number of studies support the claim that WFC is strongly related to unfavourable outcomes such as lower job satisfaction (Rahman, Abdul, Mansor, Ali, Samuel, Uddin & Rahaman, 2018) and burnout (Záborská, Mudrák, Šolcová, Květon, Blatný & Machovcová, 2018). The study by Rahman et al., (2018) has tested the academics working in private universities in Bangladesh and reported that WFC has a significant negative association with job satisfaction. On the other hand, the study by Záborská et al., (2018) on 2,229 faculty members from the public universities in the Czech Republic has strongly predicted a significant relationship between WFC and burnout. These empirical studies strongly parade that a high level of WFC will negatively impact the job outcomes and therefore has a negative relationship with employee engagement. It is also consistent with the JD-R model proposed by Demerouti et al., (2001).

Furthermore, work overload, which is frequently known for its ability to drain the energy and affects the employees' engagement level has been studied widely by many researchers. Van den Broeck, Vander Elst, Baillien, Sercu, Schouteden, De Witte and Godderis (2017) have identified work overload as one of the core job demand. In an attempt to study 2,585 employees from several sectors in Belgium, the scholars found

that the effect of workload varies according to the sector. For instance, in the healthcare sector, work overload is often seen as a challenging demand especially when it is supported by a high level of skill utilization as it increases the engagement level of the professionals. In the service sector, however, work overload resulted in lower employee engagement and a higher level of burnout. Other studies, particularly a longitudinal survey on 201 managers in Netherland based telecom company (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009) and exploration on 2038 Finnish teachers (Hakanen, Schaufeli & Bakker, 2006) have reported a negative relationship with employee engagement. Similarly, Schaufeli, Shimazu, Hakanen, Salanova and De Witte (2019) have also proven that there is a negative relationship between work overload and employee engagement through their study on 22,117 Finnish sample consists of respondents from various professions including teachers.

In the similar vein, Dwomoh, Gyamfi and Luguterah (2019) have postulated that the amount of work overload in the higher education institutions is seen as the most critical predictor of other negative outcomes such as job dissatisfaction, turnover and high attrition rate. The study by Dwomoh et al., (2019) on 250 university academics in Ghana evidenced that work overload resulted in stress and fatigue and therefore reduced the job performance. Additionally, Ali and Farooqi (2014) studied 269 public university employees in Pakistan and reported that work overload has significantly and negatively impacted job performance. Nevertheless, Abbas and Roger (2013) have claimed that work overload resulted in emotional exhaustion in their study on academics from a public university in Pakistan. Thus, in the academic setting, work overload is mostly seen to affect the organisational outcomes negatively. Grounded on this backdrop the following research hypotheses are proposed:

H1: Work-family conflict is negatively related to employee engagement.

H2: Work overload is negatively related to employee engagement.

2.7.2 Relationship between Job Resources and Employee Engagement

According to the JD-R model by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), employee engagement is strongly driven by job resources. In support of this, it has been shown (Saks, 2006; Anitha, 2015) that, prominent job resources such as perceived organisational support, performance feedback, skill variety, rewards and recognition are always favourably in line with employee engagement. Additionally, Schaufeli et al., (2019), based on the JD-R model have also acknowledged that the relationship of job resources with employee engagement is strong and more stable compared to job demands. In a similar vein, Xanthopoulou et al., (2009) in their longitudinal study of 163 employees from a Netherland based engineering and electronics company, has shown the existence of a dynamic reciprocal relationship between job resources and employee engagement.

One of the resources in this study is perceived organisational support (POS). The members of an organisation feel comfortable in an open and welcoming environment (Saks, 2006). Supportive working atmospheres encourage the employees to experiment and try new things without having a fear of its consequences (Kahn, 1990). In other words, when employees start to trust that their employer is concerned about their well-being, they will respond to it by becoming more engaged (Saks, 2006) and feel more closely attached to their employer (Eisenberger, Malone & Presson, 2016). In concurrence with this, research by Karatepe and Aga (2016) on frontline bank employees in Northern Cyprus suggested that POS fosters employee engagement.

Another study was conducted in six Indian organisations on a sample of 246 Indian managers (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013) also showed a positive relationship between POS and employee engagement. A significant amount of investigations has been carried out to study the relationship between POS and employee engagement in various areas. It includes healthcare (Wang, Liu, Zou, Hao & Wu, 2017; Mathumbu & Dodd, 2013; Dasgupta, 2016), service sector (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014) and public sector (Gillet, Huart, Colombat & Fouquereau, 2013). The findings provide the support that POS increases the engagement level of the employees.

In terms of higher education, Najeemdeen, Abidemi, Rahmat and Bulus (2018) found that POS has a strong influence on employee engagement among academic staff in a public university in Malaysia. According to the researchers (Najeemdeen et al., 2018), the strong relationship between these two variables will foster the employees' motivation and involvement in their work. Yadav (2016) on the other hand, has tested 144 university academics across India and evidenced a strong relationship between POS and employee engagement, which is in line with the JD-R model and social exchange theory. The author further added that when the employees receive support from their organisation, they feel obliged and reciprocate with greater engagement. Rewards and recognition is another job resource studied for this research. Kahn (1990) reported that employees' engagement might vary depending on their perceptions about the benefit they obtain by performing their job. In addition to meaningful work, a sense of return on investment may arise from external rewards and recognition. Therefore, employees would be more likely to work to the degree that they can earn better rewards and recognitions for their job performance. Maslach et al., (2001) have also indicated that adequate rewards and recognitions is vital for engagement. At the

same time, the social exchange theory also clarifies that employees feel gratified when they receive more rewards and recognition and therefore they show a high level of engagement.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Waqas and Saleem (2014) on 250 respondents from various industries in Pakistan and another study by Moussa (2013) on 104 healthcare and IT employees in Saudi Arabia has reported a favourable association amid rewards and recognition and employee engagement. A similar study on 318 staff from financial institutions in South Africa (Hoole & Hotz, 2016), have also supported the same causal relationship between the two variables. Interestingly, rewards and recognition (antecedent) have scored the highest mean among other variables and a strong positive relationship with employee engagement in a study conducted by Al-Tit and Hunitie (2015).

In the higher education sector, though rewards and recognition rarely been studied in association with employee engagement, it is commonly used to study with other positive outcomes such as employee performance (Ndungu, 2017; Chikungwa & Chamisa, 2013; Kopelman, Gardberg & Brandwein, 2011), job satisfaction (Shah, Akhtar, Zafar & Riaz, 2012; Zeb, Jamal & Ali, 2015) and motivation (Akafo & Boateng, 2015; Zeb et al., 2015). The rewards and recognition have demonstrated a favourable association with the outcome variables reported in the abovementioned research literature in the academic setting. Additionally, the social exchange theory also strongly supports the reciprocal relationship between organisations and their employees. According to the theory, employees will be obliged to be highly engaged

when they feel the management gives them attention and care. Thus, based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are posited:

H3: Perceived organisational support is positively related to employee engagement.

H4: Rewards and recognition are positively related to employee engagement.

2.8 Summary of Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are developed for this study:

H1: Work-family conflict is negatively related to employee engagement.

H2: Work overload is negatively related to employee engagement.

H3: Perceived organisational support is positively related to employee engagement.

H4: Rewards and recognition are positively related to employee engagement.

2.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter addressed the related literature on the study variables. The research variables include employee engagement as the dependent variable, job demands (work-family conflict and work overload) and job resources (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition) as independent variables. The underpinning theories then has been presented, followed by the theoretical framework, hypothesis development and summary of the hypotheses to conclude the chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Chapter 3 outlines the research method. Discussions are also given on research design, population and sampling design, research instruments used, the data collection methods and finally the techniques of analysis.

3.1 Research Design

Research design is a blueprint or a work plan that details how research should be carried out. The goal of research design is to ensure that the result of the analysis addresses the research questions (Polit, Beck & Hungler, 2001). It also discloses the strategy, the researcher plans to adapt to develop information that is accurate and interpretable.

This research was intended to be quantitative, and it includes empirical, numerical and quantifiable data. Quantitative research is about explaining a phenomenon by collecting quantitative data evaluated by statistical methods (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2002) and Choy (2014) claimed that quantitative research could be managed and analysed quickly. This research is also a cross-sectional study where the data was collected just once to answer the research questions (Sekaran, 2003).

3.2 Population and Sampling Design

3.2.1 Population

The population is the entire group of individuals to which a law of nature applies. The target population for the study is defined by the academic staff employed in the Malaysian private higher education sector. Such individuals regarded as academic staff of private higher education institutions are known as the unit of analysis for this study. The total number of academic staff in the Malaysian private higher education sector is shown in Table 3.1. Accordingly, the total number of academics as of 2018 is around 22,980 (Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, 2019).

Table 3.1
Number of Academic Staff in Private Higher Education Institutions 2014 – 2018

Year	Total Number of Academic Staff
2014	36185
2015	34750
2016	31112
2017	22561
2018	22980

Source: Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2019

However, it is not practical to survey the entire population from 443 private higher education institutions. Therefore, for this study, only three big size private universities with more than 7,000 students and also with branch campuses were chosen. Moreover, these universities were featured in recent QS Asian University Rankings of 2019 where it lists a total number of 350 best universities across Asia based on several criteria such as employer and academic reputation and so on. Table 3.2 shows the chosen

universities for this study, which include Multimedia University (MMU), UCSI University (UCSI) and University Tunku Abdul Rahman (UNITAR).

Table 3.2
Listed private universities of Malaysia in QS Asian University Ranking 2019

Ranking	Universities	Year of Establishment
175	Multimedia University	1999
178	UCSI University	2008
188	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman	2001

Source: QS University Ranking 2019

Additionally, all these universities are located at Selangor and Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur, which is commonly known as Klang Valley. Klang Valley alone accommodates 51.47 percentage of private higher education institutes in Malaysia. Most of the industry volume is positioned in this region. It signifies that the sample taken from the Klang Valley area is considered as a representation of the entire population. Therefore, the total number of population for this research is 2,389 academic staff from the selected universities. Table 3.3 displays the number of academic staff employed in MMU, USCII and UTAR in the year 2019.

Table 3.3
No. of Academic Staff Working in Selected Private Universities in Malaysia

Universities	Number of Academic Staff
Multimedia University	649
UCSI University	593
Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman	1147
Total	2389

Source: QS Intelligence Unit, 2019

3.2.2 Sampling Design

Collecting data from the entire population might not be practical. Hence, a sampling process was done to determine the sampling size. Rendering to sample size suggested by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the minimum sample size required for data collection of this research is 331. Accordingly, 331 academics staff will represent the population. However, 350 survey questionnaires were distributed with the intention to obtain a high response rate, as a low response rate was expected as mentioned by Sekaran and Bougie (2016). The authors have indicated that online surveys mostly yield a low response rate. It is also strongly supported by Saleh and Bista (2017) where they witness the declining response rate of online surveys. Hence, 350 questionnaires were distributed to get a higher response rate.

3.2.3 Sampling Technique

The selection of an appropriate sampling technique is essential to acquire reliable results for the study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2003). Hence, this study uses the disproportionate stratified random sampling technique. The technique is used when the size of the sample is not proportionate to the size of the unit. It is adopted, particularly when the stratum is too small or too big or when there is more variability alleged within a stratum (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The scholars (Sekaran et al., 2016) have also claimed that the disproportionate stratified sampling method is more efficient compared to proportionate sampling. Hence, many scholars have used the same technique in their research where the population sample belongs to the educational sector (Sa'ad, 2014; Ugwoke & Agwara, 2014; Aisyah, Sutrisno &

Saraswati, 2017). The sample population under this study will first be divided into homogeneous subgroups called strata and then followed by random sampling applied within each stratum (Sekaran, 2003). In detail, Cochran (1977) explained that “in stratified sampling, the population of N units is first divided into subpopulations of N_1, N_2, \dots, N_L units, respectively. These subpopulations are not overlapping, and together they comprise the whole of the population, so that:

$$N_1 + N_2 + \dots + N_L = N.”$$

Thus, the population is divided into three groups according to the universities and respondents were chosen from each university randomly. Table 3.4 represents the numbers of staff selected from each university for this study.

Table 3.4
Number of Academic Staff Selected for This Study

University	Population		Disproportionate Stratified Sample	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
A	649	27	95	27
B	593	25	88	25
C	1147	48	168	48
Total	2389	100	350	100

Note: University A (Multimedia University); University B (UCSI University); University C (University Tunku Abdul Rahman)

3.3 Research Instrument

There are two sections in the questionnaire. Section A will gather demographic data of the respondents. It includes information such as gender, age, race, educational

background and so on. While section B of the survey consists of the questions that measure the variables used in this research. In summary, a survey questionnaire consist of all the components as presented in Table 3.5 was used in this study.

Table 3.5
The Components of the Questionnaire

No.	Components	Items
1	Demographics	7
2	Employee Engagement	17
	Work-Family	
3	Conflict	5
4	Work Overload	5
	Perceived Organisational	
5	Support	8
6	Rewards and Recognition	10
	Total	52

3.4 Measurements

Measurement is a significant part of quantitative research. Nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio are the four categories of scales of measurement. Each of this scale is beneficial in its way of quantifying different aspects of a study. Scholars often concerned about the differences between these measurement scales, due to their repercussions for making decisions. Hence, the appropriate scale needs to be identified in conducting the statistical analyses.

Rensis Likert (1932) was the first researcher to introduce Likert items. It represents ordinal data. Many measures within the behavioural and social science domain represent this scale (Seppälä, Mauno, Feldt, Hakanen, Kinnunen, Tolvanen & Schaufeli, 2009; Simmons, Cochran & Blount, 1997; Setiawan & Sulastiana, 2014). Fundamentally, the Likert scale requires the respondents' to express their level of

agreement to a given statement (Joshi, Kale, Chandel & Pal, 2015). Therefore, in the current study, the Likert scale was employed to measure the variables.

3.4.1 Employee Engagement

Employee engagement was operationalised by using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) with 17 items, as presented in Table 3.6. This particular work engagement scale is been used widely across the globe and gained increasing attention of academics (David, 2014). The instrument consists of three-dimensional constructs called vigour, measured by six items such as “at my work, I am bursting with energy”; dedication evaluated by five items such as “I am enthusiastic about my job”; absorption assessed by six items such as “Time flies when I am working”. All these three subscales namely vigour (6 items), dedication (5 items) and absorption (6 items) act as an indicator of work-related well-being, which includes a positive state of mind. UWES Scale with 17 items was responded on a scale of 7 points Likert. It ranged from 1 to 7, from very strongly disagree to very strongly agree. That being said, higher scores will reflect higher engagement. The alpha of the Cronbach varies from .8 to .9 (Schaufeli, Taris & Van Rhenen, 2003); Salanova, Carrero, Pinazo & Schaufeli, 2003).

Table 3.6
Employee Engagement Items adopted from Schaufeli & Bakker (2003)

Code	Employee Engagement Items
EE1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy. (Vigour)
EE2	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose. (Dedication)
EE3	Time flies when I am working. (Absorption)
EE4	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. (Vigour)
EE5	I am enthusiastic about my job. (Dedication)
EE6	When I am working, I forget everything else around me. (Absorption)
EE7	My job inspires me. (Dedication)
EE8	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. (Vigour)
EE9	I feel happy when I am working intensely. (Absorption)
EE10	I am proud of the work that I do. (Dedication)
EE11	I am immersed in my work. (Absorption)
EE12	I can continue working for very long periods at a time. (Vigour)
EE13	To me, my job is challenging. (Dedication)
EE14	I get carried away when I am working. (Absorption)
EE15	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally. (Vigour)
EE16	It is difficult to detach myself from my job. (Absorption)
EE17	At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well. (Vigour)

3.4.2 Work-Family Conflict

There are plentiful work-family conflict scales. This research, however, adopted the Work-Family Conflict (WFC) Scale defined by Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrrian (1996) which is exhibited in Table 3.7. It measures five items like “the demands of my work interfere with my home and family life” and “my job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties”, on a 7 point Likert scale. It ranges from very strongly disagree (1) to very strongly agree (7) and the scale has satisfactory reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha of .82 to .90. The high score in this scale depicts more WFC and in contrast, a low score reflects less WFC.

Table 3.7

Work-family Conflict Items adopted from Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996)

Code	Work-Family Conflict Items
WFC1	The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
WFC2	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.
WFC3	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
WFC4	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.
WFC5	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

3.4.3 Work Overload

Cousins, Mackay, Clarke, Kelly, Kelly and McCaig, (2004), developed Work Overload Scale with eight items. Table 3.8 depicts the scale introduced by Cousins et al., (2004). The scale is assessed with a seven-point Likert scale ranges from 1 to 7, from very strongly disagree to very strongly agree with the average internal consistency of 0.89. The example of the items for the Work Overload scale include “I am pressured to work long hour” and “I have to work very fast”.

Table 3.8
Work Overload Items adopted from Cousins, Mackay, Clarke, Kelly, Kelly & McCaig, (2004)

Code	Work Overload Items
WOL1	I am pressured to work long hours.
WOL2	I have unachievable deadlines.
WOL3	I have to work very fast.
WOL4	I have to work very intensively.
WOL5	I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do.
WOL6	Different groups at work demand things from me that are hard to combine.
WOL7	I am unable to take sufficient breaks.
WOL8	I have unrealistic time pressures

3.4.4 Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

POS is measured using a shorter version of the Survey of POS as depicted in Table 3.9. This scale is the shortened version of the POS scale which originally had 36 items (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This shortened version consists of eight items only and it is recommended by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.83 and it assesses the "employees valuation of the organisation" (POS1, POS4, POS6, POS8) and the "actions that the organisation might take in situations that affect employee well-being" (POS2, POS3, POS5 and POS7). Responses were gathered using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1, very strongly disagree to 7, very strongly agree. The sample of the items include "the organisation values my contribution and well-being" and "the organisations takes pride in my accomplishment at work". Four of the items (POS2, POS3, POS5 and POS7) were re-coded as it was identified as reverse items. High scoring on these items signifies higher perceived organisational support.

Table 3.9
Perceived Organisational Support Items adopted from Eisenberger et al., (1990)

Code	Perceived Organisational Support Items
POS1	The organisation values my contribution to its well-being.
POS2	The organisation fails to appreciate any extra from me.
POS3	The organisation would ignore any complaint from me.
POS4	The organisation really cares about my well-being.
POS5	Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice.
POS6	The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.
POS7	The organisation shows very little concern for me.
POS8	The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

3.4.5 Rewards and Recognition

Rewards and recognition was measured using a ten-item scale designed by Saks (2006). The scale is shown in Table 3.10. The respondents must clearly state the degree to which they obtain various outcomes for their job performance in a 7 point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 (very strongly disagree to very strongly agree). The example of the items are as follows: “I have freedom and opportunities in my workplace” and “a reward or a token of appreciation is common in my organisation”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this measuring scale is $\alpha = .89$.

Table 3.10
Rewards and recognition Items adopted from Saks (2006)

Code	Rewards and Recognition Items
RR1	There is an opportunity for a pay raise in my organisation.
RR2	There is job security in my organisation.
RR3	There is an opportunity for promotion in my organisation.
RR4	I have freedom and opportunities in my workplace.
RR5	I always get respect from the people I work with.
RR6	I always get praise from my supervisor.
RR7	My organisation provides sufficient training and development opportunities.
RR8	I have more challenging work assignments.
RR9	I get some form of public recognition in my workplace.
RR10	A reward or token of appreciation is common in my organisation.

3.4.6 Summary of the Measurements

Table 3.11 displays a summary of the measurements explained previously.

Table 3.11
The Summary of Measurements

Variables	Measures	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Employee engagement	UWES	0.80 to 0.90
2. Work-Family Conflict	Work-Family Conflict Scale	0.82 to 0.90
3. Work Overload	Work Overload Measure	0.81
4. Perceived Organisational Support	Survey of Perceived Organisational Support	0.83
5. Rewards and Recognition	Rewards and Recognition Scale	0.89

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

Several methods could be used to collect data from respondents. However, Sekaran and Bougie (2016) suggest that researchers can approach respondents with a survey questionnaire which consist of a pre-written set of questions which is accepted as an efficient data collection method. The authors assert that this strategy is well-known in business research. However, in the current world with technological advancements, Saleh and Amany (2017) recommend to conduct an online data collection method which has gained popularity in the past three decades as it gets a fast response and it is considered as the most cost-effective way of getting responses. For this study, as proposed by Sekaran et al., (2016) and Saleh et al., (2017), an online survey questionnaire was used for data collection. The names of the possible respondents were obtained from selected universities. Then, the respondents were contacted by email to participate in the study and a hyperlink for the online survey was attached. An introduction part added to the questionnaire in which respondents are informed about the researcher and the purpose of the study, their voluntary participation and the confidentiality of their responses. Only academic staff from selected private universities participated in this study. Averagely, each respondent would have spent about 15 to 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Follow-up emails were sent one week after the initial invitation to participate in the survey.

3.6 Techniques of Data Analysis

The analysis for this study will primarily be done with SPSS version 23. The collected data was then converted into tables that create coding tables for data processing. The

data then were transferred to SPSS statistical program and analysed using the following statistical techniques.

3.6.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics constitute the most transparent and most straightforward means of expressing mathematical relationships between variables (Ilallett, 1996). It means that descriptive statistics is the most expedient way to describe the data. Simple summaries of means, median, mode, standard deviations, and frequencies among the study variables could be obtained from descriptive statistics. The conclusion made from the analysis of data will have a higher accuracy level since researchers are only permitted to make assumptions based on the data.

3.6.2 Reliability Test

According to Pallant (2020), the reliability of a scale is a sign of how free it is from a random error. The author (Pallant, 2020) further suggest that test-retest reliability and internal consistency as the most frequently used indicators to measure a scale's reliability. However, for this particular research, the later indicator, which is internal consistency, was used by measuring the Cronbach's coefficient alpha. According to Bonett and Wright (2015), Cronbach's (1951) reliability of alpha is among the most commonly used reliability test in social and organisational research and it provides a clear indication of how well the items in a scale are correlated which each other (Sekaran et al., 2016). The nearer the alpha to 1.00, the greater the internal consistency of the items being analysed (George & Mallery, 2006; Pallant, 2020). Nunnally (1978),

however, suggested that a minimum alpha of .7 is appropriate for analysis (Pallant, 2020).

3.6.3 Construct Validity

Construct validity demonstrates how well the result fit the theorised concept using the selected instruments (Sekaran et al., 2016). The validity of the measures was obtained through the following method.

3.6.3.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis (EFA) is a widely used social science research technique to determine the validity of the instrument (Chan & Indris, 2017). Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, (2014) elucidate factor analysis as an interdependence method which aimed to define the underlying structure among the studied variables. Furthermore, Suhr (2006) has asserted that factor analysis is a technique of variable reduction which identifies the number of latent factors and the corresponding factor structure to a group of variables. The principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation is among the broadly used technique in factor analysis. Moreover, Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999) endorsed that PCA is the most appropriate technique to use if the goal is data reduction. This provides an insight to make a wise decision related to the technical issues, which includes the number of factors to retain. Nonetheless, at least 300 cases are considered good to run factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) to avoid computational difficulties.

3.6.4 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics plays a very essential role in research. It is used to establish relationships among the studied variables and make a conclusion about the population from the sample (Sekaran et al., 2016). Though there are many methods available to test the relationships, multiple regression analysis and mediation analysis are selected particularly for this study which will be explained subsequently.

3.6.4.1 Correlation Analysis

A correlation matrix would essentially indicate the direction, intensity and significance of bivariate connections used in a study (Sekaran, et al., 2016). The coefficient of 1.0 and above demonstrates a strong positive link between two studied variables, -1.0 represent a negative correlation while 0 will show the absence of any relationship. Statistically, the value of correlation ranges from -1.00 to +1.00. The closer the coefficients are to +1.00, the greater is the strength of a relationship between the variables (Munchinsky, 1993). Within social science and psychological research, Cohen's (1988) rule of thumb is used widely as a guideline to determine the strength of variables.

3.6.4.2 Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis (MRA) is a comprehensive version of simple linear regression. It is a very advanced statistical tool in examining the relationship between the dependent variable and one or more independent variables. MRA is justifiable

since the Likert scale is used to measure the variables (Boone & Boone, 2012). Prior studies done in this area have supported the use of MRA (Anitha, 2014; Fardale & Murrer, 2015) to test the hypotheses.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has given information about the research methodology for this study. In this chapter, research design and population and sampling design have been defined. It is followed by the instruments used for data collection, data collection techniques of the survey. This chapter has also explained in detail about the adoption of several analyses such as regression and correlation analysis to test the research hypothesis. The findings of the study are discussed subsequently in chapter 4 and chapter 5.



CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

The findings of the research are presented in this chapter. The result outputs were obtained from SPSS version 23. It begins with the analysis of survey responses and a brief description of the respondents' demographic profile. Descriptive statistics, normality test and factor analysis have been reported. It was followed by the reliability test, correlation and multiple regression analyses.

4.1 Survey Response Analysis

A survey was carried out over a period of six weeks from mid of November until the end of December 2018. The data were collected to study the direct relationship between job demands (work-family conflict, work overload), job resources (perceived organisational support, rewards and recognition) and employee engagement.

The sampling frame for this study was gathered from academics working at private universities based on QS Asian University Ranking, 2019. A total number of 350 online survey questionnaires were emailed to individual academic staff working in the studied universities to obtain a high response rate. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) have indicated that online surveys mostly yield a low response rate. It is also strongly supported by Saleh and Bista (2017) where they witness the declining response rate of online surveys. Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business has provided an official letter which clarifies the researcher's intention for this study. The respondents

were reminded twice to respond to the survey questionnaire through follow up email. At the end of data collection, 342 forms were returned. This accounted for 97.7% of response rate, above 30% rule of thumb (Sekaran, 2003). However, Van Mol (2017) proposed a response rate of 50% and above for human resource and general management research for it to be considered as “good”. The number of responses is also above the required minimum sample size of 331. These questionnaire responses then went through a screening process to check whether the responses are valid and usable. Then, all the usable responses were keyed in into SPSS version 23.0 software to generate the data needed for the analysis.

4.2 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Table 4.1 epitomises the demographic profile of the respondents (n=342) participated in the research study. As shown in Table 4.1, the gender distribution of the respondents consists of 73.7% female and 26.3% male. In this, the majority (52.0%) of the respondents are fitted to the 30 to 39 age group, 28.1% were between 40 to 49, 10.8% were 50 years old and above and the remaining 9.1% were between 25 and 29 years old. In terms of marital status, 28.7% were single, 67.8% married and 3.5% divorced. Almost half of the respondents represent the Malay (45.9%) ethnic group, followed by Indians (27.5%), Chinese (24%) and others (2.6%). Nationality-wise, 326 (95.3%) respondents were Malaysians and the remaining were Non-Malaysians. In terms of qualification, the majority (64.6%) of them possessed a masters’ degree, 28.9% hold a doctoral degree and only 6.4% with bachelors’ degree. Out of 342 respondents, 190 (55.6%) of them are in the position of lecturers and 64 (18.7%) are senior lecturers.

Table 4.1
Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic	Frequency N=342	Percentage %
Gender		
Male	90	26.3
Female	252	73.7
<i>Total</i>	342	100.0
Age		
50 and above	37	10.8
40 - 49	96	28.1
30 - 39	178	52.0
25 - 29	31	9.1
<i>Total</i>	342	100.0
Marital Status		
Single	98	28.7
Married	232	67.8
Divorced	12	3.5
<i>Total</i>	342	100.0
Ethnicity		
Malay	157	45.9
Chinese	82	24.0
Indian	94	27.5
Others	9	2.6
<i>Total</i>	342	100.0
Nationality		
Malaysian	326	95.3
Non-Malaysian	16	4.7
<i>Total</i>	342	100.0
Education		
Doctoral Degree	99	28.95
Master's Degree	221	64.62
Bachelor's Degree	22	6.43
<i>Total</i>	342	100.0
Position		
Professor	2	0.6
Associate/Assistant professor	35	10.2
Principal Lecturer	6	1.8
Senior Lecturer	64	18.7
Lecturer	190	55.6
Assistant Lecturer/Tutor	45	13.2
<i>Total</i>	342	100.0

The rest of them are professors (0.6%), associate or assistant professors (10.2%), principal lecturers (1.8%) and the remaining were assistant lecturers or tutors (13.2%).

4.3 Data Screening

Since an online questionnaire was carefully designed and distributed through email, the respondents were not permitted to ignore any question. They were not allowed to go to the next session without answering one of the questions. Thus, all the returned 342 forms were confirmed as valid without any missing values. Table 4.2 displays the case processing summary and it indicates that there is no missing value and all data are valid.

Table 4.2
Case Processing Summary

Variables	N	Cases				Total Percentage
		Valid Percentage	N	Missing Percentage	N	
WFC	342	100	0	0	342	100
WOL	342	100	0	0	342	100
POS	342	100	0	0	342	100
RR	342	100	0	0	342	100
EE	342	100	0	0	342	100

Note: (WFC=Work-Family Conflict); (WOL=Work Overload); (POS=Perceived Organisational Support); (RR=Rewards and Recognition); (EE=Employee Engagement)

This followed by the next step, which is to identify outliers. Outliers often behave differently from normal observations. Though it could also happen by errors, spotting of these cases is important as it may have a detrimental effect on the conclusion derived from a study (Rousseuw & Hubert, 2018). Thus, for this study, outliers were identified through an analysis of standard residuals. The standardised residual that is

greater than three should be cautiously inspected (Stevens, 2002). However, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommended that this value should be critical at ± 3.29 . If the minimum and maximum values are not within this range, the outliers need to be deleted. Removing the outlier (case number 100) resulted in a standardised residual of -2.855 that is within the acceptable range. Hereafter, the analysis will consist of $n = 341$ cases.

4.3.1 Multicollinearity

The antagonistic effect of multicollinearity had been discussed widely in the statistical literature. Researchers who fail to detect and multicollinearity may end up in reporting misleading results (Vatcheva, Lee, McCormick & Rahbar, 2016). Hence, checking on multicollinearity was done through its indicators, the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF).

Table 4.3
Tolerance and VIF of Independent Variables

Independent Variables	Tolerance	VIF
WFC	0.55	1.818
WOL	0.521	1.919
POS	0.459	2.177
RR	0.518	1.930

Note: (WFC=Work-family conflict); (WOL=Work overload); (POS=Perceived organisational support); (RR=Rewards and recognition)

As shown in Table 4.3, there is no indication of any multicollinearity issue as the tolerance level is above .459 and VIF is in the range of 1.818 and 2.177. As a rule of

thumb, Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011) suggested a tolerance level $> .20$ and a VIF < 5 .

4.4 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics, which includes means and standard deviation, were generated to describe the central tendency of the distribution. Sekaran et al., (2016) suggest that mean and standard deviation are appropriate statistics to use for the interval scale. The following Table 4.4 outlines the descriptive statistic of the variables.

Table 4.4
Descriptive Statistics of the Variables (n=341)

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
WFC	341	1.00	7.00	3.8921	1.4942
WOL	341	1.13	7.00	4.0630	1.2258
POS	341	1.00	7.00	4.1950	1.0943
RR	341	1.90	7.00	4.5548	1.0219
EE	341	3.00	7.00	5.3060	0.7583

Note: (WFC=Work-Family Conflict); (WOL=Work Overload); (POS=Perceived Organisational Support); (RR=Rewards and Recognition); (EE=Employee Engagement)

Among the job demands, the mean for work overload is higher than work-family conflict, $M = 4.06$, $SD = 1.23$ and $M = 3.89$, $SD = 1.49$ respectively. On the contrary, for job resources, the mean for rewards and recognition, which is 4.55, is higher than perceived organisational support. As for the dependent variable, the mean was 5.31. The average mean value between 4.06 to 4.55 (WOL, POS, RR) indicates that most of the respondents have selected the “agree” measure. The mean value for EE (5.31) indicates the response of “strongly agree” while the lowest mean is for WFC (3.89) shows that most of the respondents have selected the “disagree” measure.

4.5 Normality Test

This statistical inference procedure is important as it assesses the data whether it is normally distributed. If a variable fails a normality test, it may result in a need to use a non-parametric test. Although there are several methods available to test the normality, this study focuses on skewness and kurtosis value measurement and histogram.

4.5.1 Skewness and Kurtosis Value Measurement

Skewness and kurtosis value measurement was used to decide whether the data is normally distributed. Researchers commonly use this measurement and D'agostino, Belanger and D'agostino (1990) claim it as excellent descriptive and inferential procedures for assessing normality. While skewness assesses the asymmetry of the distribution of a variable, kurtosis measures its "peakedness".

Table 4.6 depicts the skewness and kurtosis of all the variables of this research. The skewness ranges from .065 to .444. In the meantime, the value for kurtosis ranges from .170 to .788. It means that all variables fit into the acceptable range of -3 to 3 (DeCarlo, 1997) which evidences normal distribution.

Table 4.5
Skewness and Kurtosis

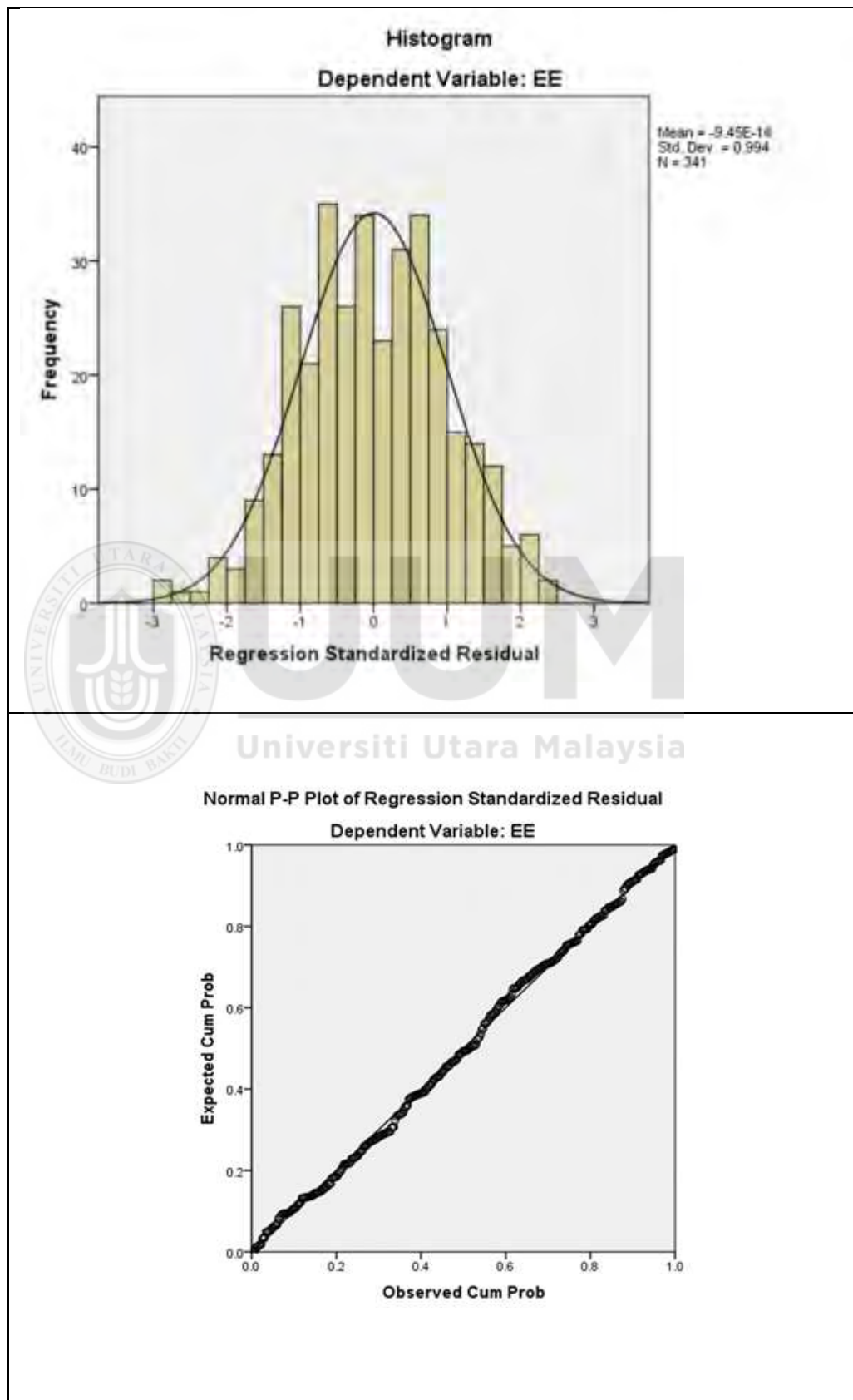
Variables	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
WFC	341	.114	.132	-.788	.263
WOL	341	.065	.132	-.413	.263
POS	341	-.176	.132	.731	.263
RR	341	-.337	.132	-.170	.263
EE	341	-.244	.132	-.344	.263

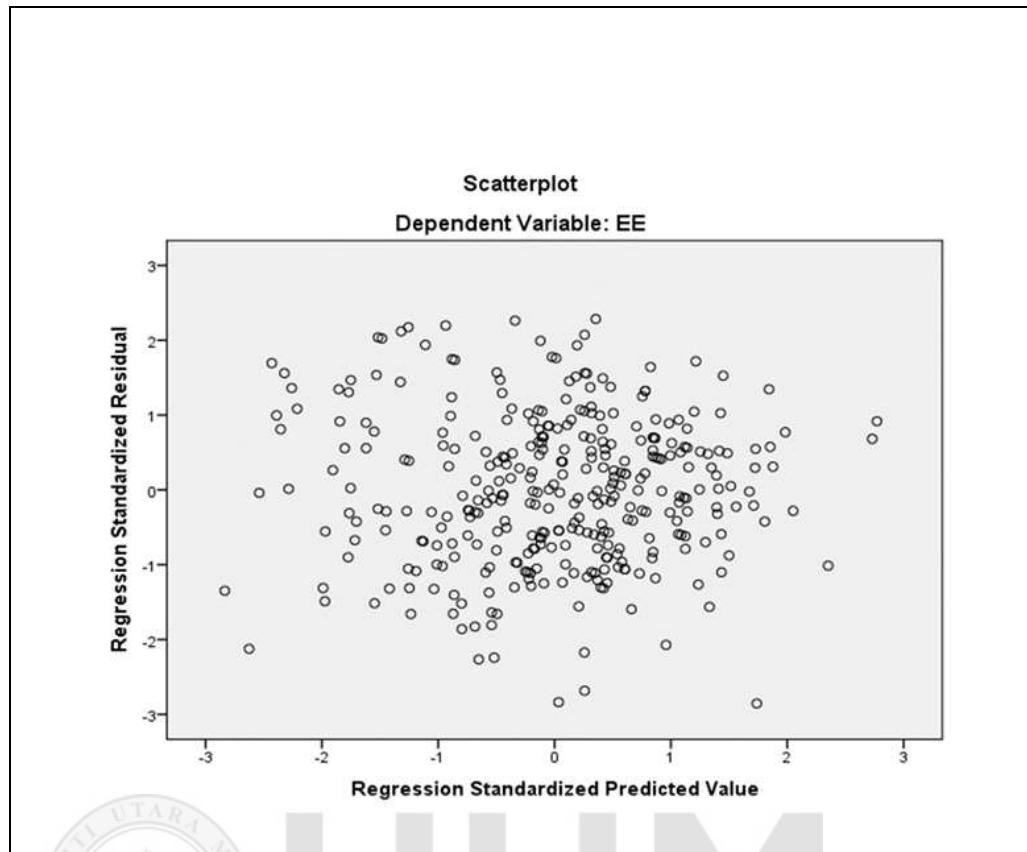
Note: (WFC=Work-Family Conflict); (WOL=Work Overload); (POS=Perceived Organisational Support); (RR=Rewards and Recognition); (EE=Employee Engagement)

4.5.2 Histogram

Table 4.7 represents normally distributed data. The black line overlaid on the histogram represents a bell curve that is symmetrical around the mean, which signifies a reasonable normal distribution (Oppong & Agbedra, 2016). This is followed by an observation of the normal P-P plot and scatterplot depicted in Table 4.8. A reasonably normal P-P plot will be near or on the straight line (Öztuna, Elhan & Tüccar, 2006) and any deviation from the line indicates that the data are not normal (Thode, 2002). The result shows a standardized residual which is within the range of ± 3 indicates that the normality is verified (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Table 4.6
Histogram, P-P Plot and Scatterplot





4.6 Construct Validity

Construct validity refer to the extent whereby the set of measurement items represents the theoretical latent structure to be assessed (Hair et al., 2014). The instruments used for this research has been adapted from existing literature, therefore the validity is confirmed.

4.6.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a commonly used statistical technique to investigate the inter-relationships between a wide range of variable and describe these variables in terms of their similar underlying factors (Hair et al., 2014). The first step in conducting factor analysis is to identify whether the sample size of the research is viable for factor analysis. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) proposed to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis. This particular study consists of 341 samples and therefore deemed to be consistent with the rule of thumb proposed by Tabachnick et al., (2007). The next step in factor analysis is to inspect the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test. The KMO is a sample adequacy measurement (MSA) method, usually ranging from 0 to 1, the higher number represents greater adequacy. However, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) have proposed .6 as the minimum value for decent factor analysis though Kaiser (1974) endorses .5 as within the acceptable range. Nevertheless, Hair et al., (2014) propose to eliminate the variable when the MSA score falls below .5. As regards to the sphericity test of Bartlett, which is used to assess the presence of correlations among variables (Hair et al., 2014), the p-value should be $< .05$ for the factor analysis to be relevant (Pallant, 2011).

Next, principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted to determine the number of factors to retain that explains the underlying relationship among the variables. As suggested by Pallant (2011), factors with an eigenvalue of more than 1 were retained for further investigation. This step then followed by varimax rotation. Varimax is an orthogonal rotation approach in which the result will guide the researcher to easily interpret the result. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recommend a factor loading of above .32 as preferable. However, the authors (Tabachnick et al., 2013) suggest that the

decision to interpret the loading depends on the researcher as Comrey and Lee (1992) proposed a factor loading .70 as excellent, .63 as very good and .55 as good. Hence, for this study, only the factor loadings above .55 were retained.

In the present study, all the selected variables were treated as unidimensional constructs with a single underlying dimension to validate the scales and to identify the factor loading. This unidimensional approach is significantly used in social science research (Brenninkmeijer & Van Yperen, 2003).

4.6.1.1 Factor Analysis of Employee Engagement

Table 4.7 displays the details of factor extraction for 17 items from the UWES scale by Schaufeli et al., (2003). As specified earlier, principal component analysis with varimax rotation was used to conduct the procedure. As presented in Table 4.8, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy for employee engagement construct is .920, exceeding .6, the suggested minimum value (Tabachnick et al., 2007). The Bartlett's test of sphericity is highly significant ($p = .0$, chi-square of 3066.411, $df = 136$). Therefore, factor analysis is considered highly suitable for analysing the data. Besides, a test on the measurement of sampling adequacy (MSA) was conducted on each item through anti-image correlation and it indicated that all items fall under the acceptable range above the cut-off .5, therefore all the items were retained in factor analysis. The result of MSA is portrayed under "Appendix C".

Table 4.7
Result of Factor Analysis for Employee Engagement

Code	Items	Component		
		1	2	3
EE2	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.(D1)	0.779		
EE5	I am enthusiastic about my job. (D2)	0.721		
EE4	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.(V2)	0.711		
EE7	My job inspires me.(D3)	0.649		
EE1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.(V1)	0.624		
EE3	Time flies when I am working.(A1)	0.616		
EE10	I am proud of the work that I do.(D4)	0.609		
EE9	I feel happy when I am working intensely.(A3)		0.731	
EE8	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.(V3)		0.724	
EE6	When I am working, I forget everything else around me.(A2)		0.640	
EE12	I can continue working for very long periods at a time. (V4)		0.631	
EE11	I am immersed in my work.(A4)		0.560	
EE15	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.(V5)			0.718
EE14	I get carried away when I am working.(A5)			0.704
EE16	It is difficult to detach myself from my job.(A6)			0.649
EE17	At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well.(V6)			0.647
EE13	To me, my job is challenging.(D5)			0.615
Eigenvalue		7.563	1.652	1.109
Total variance explained (%)		44.49	9.72	6.52
Cumulative variance explained (%)		44.49	54.21	60.73
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy				0.920
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity - Approx. Chi-Square				3066.41
df				136
Sig.				0

Note: (V=Vigour); (A=Absorption); (D=Dedication)

Next, the result portrayed in Table 4.7 indicates that three factors were extracted from the analysis with an eigenvalue of above 1, consistent with the dimensionality of the UWES scale (Schaufeli et al., 2003). As exhibited, the first component comprises of 7 items with the loading ranges from .609 to .779, the second component with 5 items with loading ranges from .560 to .731 and the third component comprises 5 items between .615 and .718 with a total variance of 60.73%. All of the 17 items loaded

above .550, meeting the benchmark (Comrey and Lee, 1992; Tabachnick et al., 2013) and none of the items reported a cross-loading above .5. Therefore, all the items were retained for further analysis.

However, it should be noticed here that some of the items were loaded in different subscales. For example, apart from “dedication”, 2 items from “vigour” and 1 item from “absorption” were loaded in the first component; 3 items from “absorption” and 2 items from “vigour” loaded under component 2; and finally 2 items from “vigour”, 2 items from “absorption” and 1 item from “dedication” loaded under component 3. While Xanthapoulou, Bakker, Kantas and Demerouti (2012) emphasised on the invariance in the factor structure of UWES scale across countries, Frederici and Skaalvik (2011) have reported the invariance of factor loading between nations as well as occupational groups. The items were also acknowledged as strongly correlated with each other when treated as multidimensional structure by many researchers (Schaufeli et al., 2010; Frederici et al., 2011), hence it is recommended to be treated as a unitary construct and the overall score on the UWES scale as an indicator of employee engagement (Sonnentag, 2003; Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006).

4.6.1.2 Factor Analysis of Work-Family Conflict

Table 4.8 represents details of factor extraction for 5 items from the Work-Family Conflict scale (Netemeyer et al., 1996). The KMO value is .881 above the minimum recommended range of .6 (Tabachnick et al., 2007), whereas for Bartlett's test of sphericity it is significant ($p=.0$, chi-square of 1568.59, $df = 10$). Consequently, factor analysis becomes suitable for this data. MSA on each item in scale was examined

through anti-image correlation (refer to Appendix C) and all items fall above 0.5, thus all items were included in further analysis.

Table 4.8
Result of Factor Analysis for Work-Family Conflict

Code	Items	Component		
		1	2	3
WFC4	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.	0.929		
WFC3	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	0.926		
WFC2	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.	0.925		
WFC1	The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	0.864		
WFC5	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	0.829		
Eigenvalue		4.010		
Total variance explained (%)		80.196		
Cumulative variance explained (%)		80.196		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy				0.881
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity - Approx. Chi-Square				1568.59
df				10
Sig.				0

Furthermore, as exhibited in Table 4.8, all the 5 items of the WFC scale strongly loaded under one component with an eigenvalue of 4.010 which explained by a cumulative variance of 80.196%, consistent with Netemeyer et al., (1996). As indicated by Comrey et al., (1992) and Tabachnick et al., (2013) all 5 items loaded beyond .550 that is between .829 to .929 with no cross-loading of above .5. Thus, all 5 items were sustained for further analysis.

4.6.1.3 Factor Analysis of Work Overload

Table 4.9 represents details of factor extraction for 8 items from the Work Overload measure (Cousins et al., 2004). The KMO value is .861 above the benchmark of .6 as suggested by Tabachnick et al., (2007), whereas for Bartlett's test of sphericity it is significant ($p=.0$, chi-square of 1577.82, $df = 28$). Accordingly, factor analysis becomes suitable for this data. MSA on each item in the scale was examined through anti-image correlation (refer to Appendix C) which requires all items to be above 0.5, thus all items were included for further analysis.

Table 4.9
Result of Factor Analysis for Work Overload

Code	Items	Component		
		1	2	3
WOL8	I have unrealistic time pressures.	0.842		
WOL7	I am unable to take sufficient breaks.	0.800		
WOL6	Different groups at work demand things from me that are hard to combine.	0.799		
WOL3	I have to work very fast.	0.755		
WOL2	I have unachievable deadlines.	0.742		
WOL4	I have to work very intensively.	0.739		
WOL5	I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do.	0.728		
WOL1	I am pressured to work long hours.	0.676		
Eigenvalue		4.640		
Total variance explained (%)		58.006		
Cumulative variance explained (%)		58.006		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			0.861	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity - Approx. Chi-Square			1577.82	
df			28	
Sig.			0	

Furthermore, as exhibited in Table 4.9, all the 8 items of Work Overload measure strongly loaded under one component with an eigenvalue of 4.640 which explained by

a cumulative variance of 58.006%. Based on the rule of thumb specified by Comrey et al., (1992) and Tabachnick et al., (2013) all 5 items loaded beyond .550 that is between .676 to .842 with no cross-loading of above .5. Thus, all eight items were decided to sustain for further analysis.

4.6.1.4 Factor Analysis of Perceived Organisational Support

Table 4.10 represents details of factor extraction for 8 items from the Perceived Organisational Support scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986). For this research, to ensure that all items were measured similarly, the researcher has done reverse coding on all the negative items (POS2, POS3, POS5 and POS6) prior to the statistical procedure.

The table portrays a Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of .845 above the rule of thumb of .6 (Tabachnick et al., 2007), whereas, for Bartlett's test of sphericity, it is significant ($p=.0$, chi-square of 1277.39, $df = 28$). Consequently, factor analysis becomes suitable for this data. MSA on each item in scale was examined through anti-image correlation (refer to Appendix C) and all items indicated a value of above 0.5, thus all items were included in further analysis.

Next, the result depicted in Table 4.10 signposts that two factors were extracted from the analysis with an eigenvalue of above 1. As exhibited, the first component comprises of 4 items with the loading ranges from .768 to .836 and the second component with 4 items with loading ranges from .726 to .840 with a total variance of 69.09%. All of the 8 items loaded above .550, meeting the benchmark (Comrey and

Lee, 1992; Tabachnick et al., 2013) and none of the items reported a cross-loading above .5. Therefore, all the items were retained for further analysis.

Table 4.10
Result of Factor Analysis for Perceived Organisational Support

Code	Items	Component		
		1	2	3
POS5	Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice.	0.836		
POS3	The organisation would ignore any complaint from me.	0.818		
POS2	The organisation fails to appreciate any extra from me.	0.814		
POS7	The organisation shows very little concern for me.	0.768		
POS4	The organisation really cares about my well-being.		0.840	
POS6	The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.		0.828	
POS1	The organisation values my contribution to its well-being.		0.821	
POS8	The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.		0.726	
Eigenvalue		4.008	1.519	
Total variance explained (%)		50.104	18.99	
Cummulative variance explained (%)		50.104	69.09	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy				0.845
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity - Approx. Chi-Square				1277.39
df				28
Sig.				0.00

The result of factor analysis reveals that all the negatively worded items loaded under the first component and the remaining were loaded under component 2 as expected. The scale assessed the “employees valuation of the organisation” (POS1, POS4, POS6, POS8) and the “actions that the organisation might take in situations that affect employee well-being” (POS2, POS3, POS5 and POS7). Hence, this measure was treated as unidimensional, following the recommendation of Rhoades and Eisenberger

(2002), “the original scale is unidimensional and has high internal consistency, the use of shorter version does not appear problematic” (p.699).

4.6.1.5 Factor Analysis of Rewards and Recognition

Table 4.11 illustrates details of factor extraction for 10 items from the Rewards and Recognition scale (Saks, 2006). The table describes the KMO value of .890 above the rule of thumb of .6 (Tabachnick et al., 2007) and the value is interpreted as “meritorious”. However, for Bartlett’s test of sphericity, it is significant ($p=.0$, chi-square of 1538.10, $df = 45$) indicating that the individual variables are sufficiently correlated to perform factor analysis. MSA on each item in scale was examined through anti-image correlation (refer to Appendix C) and all items indicated a value of above 0.5, thus all items were included in further analysis.

Next, the result presented in Table 4.11 notices that two factors were extracted from the analysis with an eigenvalue of above 1. As exhibited, the first component comprises of 6 items with the loading ranges from .768 to .877 and the second component with 4 items shows that RR8 and RR9 loaded in the range of .818 and .600. The remaining two items (RR5 and RR7) in the second component loaded below .550, therefore did not meet the benchmark (Comrey and Lee, 1992; Tabachnick et al., 2013). Since the factor loading below .55 was suppressed during the procedure, the result did not show any value for these two items and it is recommended to remove from further analysis (Samuels, 2016). When these items (RR5 and RR7) were deleted, component 2 remained with another 2 items. However, Pett, Lackey and Sullivan (2003) strongly suggest removing any component with less than three

variables. After careful consideration, items RR5, RR7, RR8 and RR9 were deleted and remained with 1 factor

Table 4.11
Result of Factor Analysis for Rewards and Recognition

Code	Items	Component		
		1	2	3
RR3	There is an opportunity for promotion in my organisation.	0.877		
RR1	There is an opportunity for a pay raise in my organisation.	0.814		
RR2	There is job security in my organisation.	0.792		
RR4	I have freedom and opportunities in my workplace.	0.717		
RR10	A reward or token of appreciation is common in my organisation.	0.639		
RR6	I always get praise from my supervisor.	0.551		
RR8	I have more challenging work assignments.		0.818	
RR9	I get some form of public recognition in my workplace.		0.600	
RR5	I always get respect from the people I work with.			
RR7	My organisation provides sufficient training and development opportunities.			
Eigenvalue		4.934	1.075	
Total variance explained (%)		49.343	10.749	
Cumulative variance explained (%)		49.343	60.092	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.				0.89
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi-Square	1538.10	
		df	45.00	
		Sig.	0.00	

4.7 Reliability Analysis

The reliability of the constructs was tested by assessing Cronbach's coefficient α . Nunnally (1978) suggested that the minimum .6 is sufficient to estimate the internal consistency though α closer to 1 is preferable. Consistency explains how well all the items assessing a concept hang together as a set. Further, Sekaran (2003) has also endorsed that an alpha of .6 adequate for research.

Table 4.12
Result of Reliability Analysis of the Study Variables

Variables	No of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Strength
WFC	5	0.941	Very Good
WOL	8	0.895	Very Good
POS	8	0.856	Very Good
RR	6	0.875	Very Good
EE	17	0.915	Very Good

Note: (WFC=Work-Family Conflict), (WOL=Work Overload), (POS=Perceived Organisational Support), (RR=Rewards and Recognition), (EE=Employee Engagement)

For this research, to ensure that all items were measured similarly, the researcher has done reverse coding on all the negative items in the survey questionnaire prior to a reliability test. Table 4.12 portrays the reliability analysis of the variables. The result of this test is satisfactory for all the chosen variables. As the Table shows, the Cronbach's Alpha for all the independent variables was signified at .941, .895, .856 and .875 for work-family conflict, work overload, perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition respectively. Hence, the suggested minimum standard of .6 has been achieved which shows the scales used for the variables are reliably considered good.

Apart from that, the Cronbach's Alpha for the dependent variable, employee engagement was $\alpha = .915$. It has also attained the required minimum of .6.

4.8 Correlation Analysis

In statistics, correlation describes the relationship between two variables. The correlation coefficient relationship is depicted in Table 4.13. It revealed a negative relationship between the job demand constructs and employee engagement, work-family conflict and work overload, $r = -.110$ and $r = -.05$, respectively. A negative sign indicates that the independent and dependent variables are inversely related. This result specifies that respondents, who have reported high work-family conflict and work overload, will have lower engagement. However, only the work-family construct shows a statistically significant relationship with employee engagement at $p < .05$.

Table 4.13
Result of the Correlation Analysis

Variables		WFC	WOL	POS	RR	EE	Mean	SD
WFC	Pearson Correlation	1.00					3.892	1.494
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
WOL	Pearson Correlation	.656**	1.00				4.063	1.226
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
POS	Pearson Correlation	-.295**	-.377**	1.00			4.195	1.094
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00					
RR	Pearson Correlation	-.156**	-.241**	.706**	1.00		4.342	1.210
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00	0.00				
EE	Pearson Correlation	-.110*	-.05	.310**	.372**	1.00	5.306	0.758
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.37	0.00	0.00			

Note: (WFC=Work-Family Conflict), (WOL=Work Overload), (POS=Perceived Organisational Support), (RR=Rewards and Recognition), (EE=Employee Engagement)

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Further, there was also evidence asserting a statistically significant positive relationship between job resources variables and employee engagement. The correlation coefficient reported for perceived organisational support and employee engagement was $r = .310$, $p < .01$ while for rewards and recognition towards employee engagement was $r = .372$, $p < .01$. According to the guideline to infer the magnitude of correlation coefficient provided by Cohen (1988), a strong relationship should have $r > .5$, moderate, $r > .3$ and weak, $r > .1$. This parameter is widely used by researchers. In this study, it is evident that the relationship between the job resource variables and employee engagement is moderate.

In summary, this result reveals that job demands were negatively associated with employee engagement as expected. Meanwhile, job resources were significantly and positively related to employee engagement. When job demands are high, less engagement has been identified. On the contrary, job resources heightened employee engagement.

4.9 Multiple Regression Analysis

The most widely used multiple regression analysis was carried out to check whether the independent variables predicted employee engagement. Hair, Black, Babin Anderson, and Tatham (2006) claims that this procedure is appropriate to use when the research problem relates an outcome variable to two or more independent variables. Thus, multiple regression analysis was performed to analyse the relationship between job demands, job resources and employee engagement.

The result will be discussed further in the next section.

4.9.1 Relationship between Job Demands, Job Resources and Employee Engagement

Table 4.14 displays the result from multiple regression analysis, which was conducted to test the hypotheses H1, H2, H3 and H4. The result indicates that the overall model is statistically significant ($F = 16.475$, $R^2 = .164$, $p < .01$). The R^2 is equivalent to .164 reveals that the independent variables (work-family conflict, work overload, perceived organisational support & rewards and recognition) explicated 16.4 per cent of the variance in the dependent variables (employee engagement).

As exhibited in the Table 4.14, the multiple regression results show that for job demands (independent variables), the β for work-family conflict is $-.139$, which explains the negative relationship between the outcome variable (employee engagement). Therefore, it is concluded that it made less contribution to employee engagement, and the result is significant ($\beta = -.139$, $t = -2.100$, $p < .05$) as estimated, hence it provides support to hypothesis H1. However, for work overload, $\beta = .100$ and the analysis did not show any negative relationship with employee engagement as predicted and the result is not significant ($\beta = .100$, $t = 1.451$, $p > .05$). As such, hypothesis H2 is not supported.

Table 4.14

Result of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Relationship between Independent Variables of the study and Employee Engagement

Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement (EE)					
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	Beta	SE	Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	3.720	0.287		12.951	0.000
WFC	-0.071	0.034	-0.139	-2.100	0.037
WOL	0.062	0.043	0.100	1.451	0.148
POS	0.133	0.059	0.119	2.274	0.024
RR	0.242	0.034	0.367	7.083	0.000
F value	16.475				
df ¹ , df ²	4, 336				
p value	0.000				
R	0.405				
R ²	0.164				
Adjusted R ²	0.154				
Durbin Watson	1.900				

Note: (WFC=Work-Family Conflict), (WOL=Work Overload),
(POS=Perceived Organisational Support), (RR=Rewards and Recognition)

The multiple regression result for job resources (independent variables) shows that, both perceived organisational support ($\beta = .119$, $t = 2.274$, $p < .05$) and rewards and recognition ($\beta = .367$, $t = 7.083$, $p < .05$) signified a positive contribution to employee engagement. Hence, it is concluded that both hypothesis H3 and H4 are strongly supported.

The result reveals that when employees are assisted and motivated by job resources (perceived organisational support & rewards and recognition), it will enhance their level of employee engagement. In contrast, job demands such as work-family conflict will worsen their engagement level caused by the strain that they have to suffer. Therefore, the result supports the following hypothesis:

H1: Work-family conflict is negatively related to employee engagement.

H3: Perceived organisational support is positively related to employee engagement.

H4: Rewards and recognition is positively related to employee engagement.

4.9.2 Summary of Hypothesis Testing

The following Table 4.15 provides a summary of hypothesis testing after the regression analysis is performed.

Table 4.15
Summary of Result from Hypothesis Testing

	Hypothesis	Result
H1	Work-family conflict is negatively related to employee engagement.	Supported
H2	Work overload is negatively related to employee engagement.	Not Supported
H3	Perceived organisational support is positively related to employee engagement.	Supported
H4	Rewards and Recognition is positively related to employee engagement.	Supported

4.10 Chapter Summary

This specific chapter summarised the research results and interpretation. It began with evaluating the survey responses and a brief discussion on respondents' demographic profile. Subsequently, the result of descriptive statistics, reliability test and normality test have been reported. It is followed by the factor analysis, correlation and multiple regression analysis. The summary of hypothesis testing was reported lastly and indicates that out of 4 tested hypotheses, 3 were found supported, 1 was not supported. The next chapter will provide further details with discussions, implication, limitation of the study and suggestions for future research works.



CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This part of the report discourses the results of the regression analysis from the previous chapter and offers a promising explanation to verify the study. It starts with the summary of the research and then it is followed by the discussion of the study to address the five research questions allied with the proposed hypotheses. This is then followed by the theoretical and practical implications, limitations of the study, a section to highlight the recommendation for future research and subsequently summarises and concludes the whole study.

5.1 Recapitulation of Research Findings

The primary purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between independent variables, (work-family conflict, work overload, perceived organisational support and recognition and rewards) and employee engagement as the dependent variable among academics working in the private higher education sector in Malaysia. In particular, the following discussion will be grounded on the research questions and hypotheses outlined in Table 5.1 below:

Table 5.1
Research Questions and Hypotheses

	Research Question		Hypothesis
1	Do work-family conflict have any significant relationship with employee engagement?	H1	Work-family conflict is negatively related to employee engagement.
2	Do work overload have any significant relationship with employee engagement?	H2	Work overload is negatively related to employee engagement.
3	Do perceived organisational support have any significant relationship with employee engagement?	H3	Perceived organisational support is positively related to employee engagement.
4	Do rewards and recognition have any significant relationship with employee engagement?	H4	Rewards and Recognition is positively related to employee engagement.

The research hypotheses were tested through multiple regression. Multiple regression analysis was employed to test the H1, H2, H3 and H4.

5.2 Discussions of Research Findings

This section discusses the research findings, which are in line with the research questions established for this study.

5.2.1 Relationship between Job Demands and Employee engagement

The past works anticipated that job demands will often lead to negative results. Several scholars including Demerouti et al., (2001) and Baker et al., (2005) evaluated the JD-R model with the most significant job demands like work-home interference and work overload among academics. It has conclusively been shown that job demands contribute negatively to employee engagement. In line with that, hypothesis 1 and

hypothesis 2 were developed to investigate if there is a relationship between job demand constructs and employee engagement.

In this study, one of the job demands construct, work-family conflict showed a negative relationship with the dependent variable, and the result is statistically significant as anticipated ($\beta = -.139$, $t = -2.100$, $p < .05$). Therefore, it is concluded that it made less contribution to employee engagement as estimated, hence H1 is supported. The literature review provides adequate evidence of the negative outcomes of work-family conflict. Job dissatisfaction, job burnout, turnover, psychological distress are the job-related outcomes which originate from work-family conflict (Netmeyer et al., 1996). It clearly indicates that work-family conflict is a critical factor that reduces the level of employee engagement universally, and the Malaysian context is not an exception. The studies piloted by Coetzer et al., (2007), Karatepe et al. (2016), Opie et al., (2013), and Sayar et al., (2016) also foreseen a negative significant correlation between work-family conflict and employee engagement. The JD-R model (Schaufeli et al., 2004) also supports the negative correlation between these two variables. The findings suggest that work-family conflict (job demand) have the ability to deplete the academics' psychological state, therefore distress them mentally and physically, hence lead to lower engagement. These findings reinforce the general beliefs that the academics working in the private higher education sector in Malaysia might be experiencing work-family conflict due to lack of support from spouse or other family members and high family-related responsibilities, which eventually affect their engagement towards work. Behson (2002) has testified that having children also might be one of the reasons that instigate work-family conflict. The demographic data of this study shows that 67.8 per cent of the respondents are married and 3.7 per cent are

divorced which obviously have higher family commitments. This could have influenced the result to an extent since their family roles might have affected their work. In view of this, Metcalfe, Woodhams, Gaio Santos and Cabral-Cardoso (2008) has mentioned that the demographic characteristics of individuals, nature of the occupation, working time and schedule are a few of the major factors affecting work-family conflict. Moreover, the nature of the job should also be given importance here. Most academics in private higher institutions of Malaysia have flexible working hours (Selvanathan, Jayabalan, Saini, Supramaniam & Hussin, 2020) and this might have led them to work from home and impacted the time spent with family.

However, the finding of the current study is quite surprising since it did not support previous research for the other job demand, which is work overload, did not show a negative relationship with employee engagement and the result is insignificant ($\beta = .100, t = 1.451, p > .05$). In other words, these findings are in contrast with the previous studies (Van den Broeck et al., 2017; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Hakanen et al., 2005; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Therefore, H2 is not supported. There are a number of a possible explanation for this insignificant result. In a research conducted by Karatepe et al. (2014), job demand (work overload) has intensified the level of engagement when it is seen as a challenge stressor. Another investigation led by Gabel-Shemuli et al., (2014) revealed that the job resources have absorbed the effects of job demands on engagement. Likewise, Hakanen et al., (2017) and Tadic et al., (2015) have also stressed the buffering effect in their studies. Furthermore, in their earlier research, Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti and Xanthopoulou (2007) postulated that the negative relationship between job demands and employee engagement would become fragile for employees enjoying greater job resources. The finding of this study is consistent

with these studies in the case of academics in private higher institutions where job resources such as perceived organisational support and rewards and recognitions might have buffered the negative impact of work overload on employee engagement.

In summary, the result of this empirical study has supported hypotheses H1, however, failed to support H2 respectively.

5.2.2 Relationship between Job Resources and Employee engagement

As mentioned in the literature review, job resources are always seen as the predictor of employee engagement. It was hypothesised that employees will be more engaged with their work when they get sufficient resources to complete the assigned tasks (Van den Berg et al., 2013; Baker et al., 2008; Demerouti et al., 2011), which is also backed by the JD-R model (Schaufeli et al., 2004) and social exchange theory. Hypotheses 3 and 4 were developed based on these previous researches. For this study, perceived organisational support (POS) and rewards and recognition were identified as job resources that predict employee engagement among academics working in private higher learning institutions in Malaysia.

The research finding reveals that POS is positively and significantly ($\beta = .119$, $t = 2.274$, $p < .05$) linked to employee engagement as expected. Many scholars have emphasised the positive relationship between these two variables. Particularly, Bogler and Nir (2012) advocated a strong relationship between POS and employee engagement when they examined those in the teaching profession. Also, according to the social exchange theory, employees who feel the supportive organisational

environment should deliver more positive outcomes such as becoming more engaged in their work. Moreover, the nature of the job in the academic field which focuses on two domains namely teaching and research requires extensive support from the organisation. When the academics receive the support, they become more engaged in their work which is in line with the research findings of Saks (2006) and Karatepe et al., (2016). The outcomes of this study significantly provide evidence for the proposed hypothesis 3.

As regard to rewards and recognition, the findings of this research validates the result of the previous work in this field (Waqas & Saleem, 2014; Moussa, 2013; Hoole & Hotz, 2016; Saks, 2006). The result is statistically significant ($\beta = .367$, $t = 7.083$, $p < .05$). As rewards and recognition are seen as the psychological rewards received from the completion of work (Ram & Prabhakar, 2011), it motivates employees to be more engaged (Anitha, 2014; Saks, 2006). Besides, as rewards and recognition viewed as an integral component of job resources (Rai, Ghosh, Chauhan & Singh, 2018), it provides support to the positive correlation with employee engagement. Therefore, it is assumed that academics working in the private higher education sector of Malaysia are positively influenced to perform their job when they obtain favourable rewards and recognition from their employers. Furthermore, in their research about HRM practices in developing countries, Tessema and Soeters (2006) have described that employees who give significant importance to high income, usually prefer the private sector as opposed to the public sector. Hence, it is concluded that the academic staff working in private universities in Malaysia are highly rewarded and that creates the drive to be highly engaged with their employment. Highly engaged academic staff might have the potential to obtain the research grants, publish in high-quality journals and talented in

attracting postgraduate candidates (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011) which sequentially, will deliver favourable outcomes to the universities.

5.3 Research Implication

The following segment describes the theoretical and practical implication of the current research.

5.3.1 Theoretical Implication

This study is developed based on the job demands-resources (J-DR) model and the social exchange theory. The result of this study has shed light on the understanding of factors affecting employee engagement in several ways. First, the findings from this work have given evidence on the relationship between job demands, job resources and employee engagement. Though there are many studies on the JD-R model and employee engagement, this particular study has integrated a number of variables that are relevant to the academic profession. This study, therefore, contributed to the body of knowledge by investigating the relationship between work-family conflict and work overload as job demands, and perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition as job resources with the dependent variable, employee engagement.

Besides, limited studies were undertaken on employee engagement in academia, and also in the private higher education system. Most scholars have shown interest in the public higher education system rather than the private sector (Zaidi, Wajid, Zaidi, Zaidi & Zaidi, 2013; Balducci, Schaufeli & Fraccaroli, 2011; Tytherleigh, Rothmann & Barkhuizen, 2008). Hence, the current research has validated the job demands and

also resources and employee engagement in the perspective of Malaysian private higher education sector which is in line with the JD-R model and social exchange theory. The validity of the job demands and resources and its framework, particularly in the private higher education sector of Malaysia, reflects the broad applicability of the model in various sectors as demonstrated by previous researchers (Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Brough, Timms, Siu, Kalliath, O'Driscoll, Sit, Lo & Lu, 2013; Lorente, Salanova, Martínez & Vera, 2014).

Apart from that, in light of many studies that have been published in the field of employee engagement grounded on social exchange theory and the Job Demand-Resource model, this finding provides a distinctive contribution to the literature. In particular, the variables associated with employee engagement has been carefully identified to suit the academics' work setting and the nature of their job. By integrating these variables, this specific result act as an addition to the existing literature by showing a variation in the results.

5.3.2 Practical Implication

The outcomes of this study are highly valuable to the private higher education sector. For example, the framework of this study provides a clear understanding of the factors affecting employee engagement among academic staff working in private educational institutions in Malaysia. Consequently, it will guide the practitioners to propose policies and strategies that will enhance the engagement of academic staff. Furthermore, the outcome of this research will also guide the management of the universities, Human Resource Development Fund (HRDF) as well as the Ministry of

Higher Education to design and develop training programmes that would help to heighten the engagement of the academic staff working in the private higher education sector of Malaysia. Since Malaysia is aspiring to become the centre for educational excellence in this region (Grapragasem, Krishnan & Mansor, 2014), this kind of initiatives to enhance the academic staff' engagement would help the private higher institutions to provide quality education which is highly important in developing the nation.

Furthermore, specifically, the result indicates that one of the job resources; rewards and recognition have a positive relationship with employee engagement. It means that both monetary and non-monetary rewards stimulate academic staff to be more engaged. Academic staff who feel they earn sufficient rewards and recognitions for the time and effort they devote to the organisation are generally happy and tend to have a high level of employee engagement. Unfortunately, Ke and colleagues (2017) have indicated earlier that, the academic staff are often rewarded disproportionately for the multiple job tasks that they are performing. This has a greater potential to influence the employees' engagement. Hence, it provides an insight for the management of private higher institutions to clearly understand the importance of rewards as it will guide them to design a rewards system, which would intensify the engagement of academic staff. In addition to rewards and recognition, the management of the private higher education institutions especially the faculty deans should pay attention to the result of this research as it shows a positive relationship between perceived organisational support and employee engagement. That indicates that perceived organisational support plays a vital role in the emergence of positive outcomes such as employee engagement. As such, the faculty deans must ensure that they provide

proper support to their academic staff, which in turn will benefit the universities in various ways.

5.4 Limitation and Suggestion for Future Research

There are some limitations to this specific research.

The first limitation is in terms of the selected population frame. For this study, only three private universities from Klang Valley were selected. The outcome of this study may differ if the respondents were taken from various regions in Malaysia. Hence, wider studies in other regions are needed to establish the relationship between the variables in the private higher education sector.

In addition to this, the current study is only focusing on the academic staff from the private higher education sector. Data were not collected from the public sector. The factors affecting employee engagement in the private higher education sector is elucidated comprehensively through the findings. However, the result cannot be claimed to universally be the case for all universities and colleges in the public sector. Therefore, a deeper study on this subject is required, that too in the public higher education sector, which also provides insight for future research.

Apart from that, the variables selected for this study is limited to job demands (work-family conflict and work overload) and job resources (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition). There are many other critical organisational and situational factors affecting employee engagement, which were not included in this research. Hence, it offers another avenue for further research. Future research can also

look into other job demand and resource variables in association with employee engagement.

Finally, the objective of this particular research is to investigate the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Future researchers may focus on exploring the level of employee engagement among the academics working in private higher educational institutions by employing a qualitative research method.

5.5 Conclusion

This research aims to examine the factors, which could influence employee engagement amongst the academic staff attached to the private higher education sector of Malaysia. In particular, this current work emphasis on the role of job demands and resources on employee engagement. Data from 341 respondents who are the academic staff from three private universities were studied and the result specifies that there is a significant relationship between job demands (work-family conflict), job resources (perceived organisational support and rewards and recognition) on employee engagement as expected. The other job demand variable, work overload did not show any significant association with both employee engagement.

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APPENDIX A

PERMISSION FOR DATA COLLECTION



OTHMAN YEOP ABDULLAH GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS
Universiti Utara Malaysia
08010 UUM SINTOK
KEDAH DARULAMAN
MALAYSIA



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UUM/OYAGSB/R-4/4/1
20 December 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION FOR DATA COLLECTION AND RESEARCH WORK

This is to certify that **Subhacini A/P Subramaniam (Matric No: 94236)** is a student of Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business, Universiti Utara Malaysia pursuing her Doctor of Business Administration (DBA). She is conducting a research entitled "**Employee Engagement Among Academic Staffs in Private Higher Education Sector of Malaysia**" under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Subramaniam Sri Ramatu.


In this regard, we hope that you could kindly provide assistance and cooperation for her to successfully complete the research. All the information gathered will be strictly used for academic purposes only.

Your cooperation and assistance is very much appreciated.

Thank you,

"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"
"KEDAH AMAN MAKMUR – HARAPAN BERSAMA MAKMURKAN KEDAH"
"ILMU/BUDI, BAKTI"

Yours Faithfully


ROZITA BINTI RAMLI
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c.c. - Supervisor
Student's File (94236)

Universiti Pengurusan Terkemuka
The Eminent Management University



APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am Subhacini Subramaniam, a doctoral candidate at Universiti Utara Malaysia, would like to request you to spend around 15 to 20 minutes of your valuable time to fill out this questionnaire, which is related to my research, “Employee Engagement among Academic Staffs in Private Higher Education Sector of Malaysia”.

Your active participation and genuine response will be highly appreciated. The data from this study shall be kept strictly confidential and shall be used solely for academic research. If you need any clarification, please feel free to contact me at subhacinis@gmail.com.

Thank you for your cooperation.

PART I: Demographic Profile

Please tick the appropriate box.

1. Gender

- Male
 Female

2. Age group

- 24 and below
 25 – 29
 30 – 39
 40 – 49
 50 and above

3. Marital status

- Single
- Married
- Separated
- Divorced

4. Race

- Malay
- Chinese
- Indian
- Others _____ (Please state)

5. Nationality

- Malaysian
- Non-Malaysian

6. Highest level of education.

- Doctoral degree
- Master's degree
- Bachelor's degree

7. Current position at the university.

- Assistant Lecturer
- Lecturer
- Senior Lecturer
- Principal Lecturer
- Associate/Assistant Professor
- Professor

PART II: Employee Engagement

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each of these statements on the scale 1= “very strongly disagree” to 7= “very strongly agree”. Please circle a response for each statement.

Employee Engagement		Very Strongly Disagree							Very Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3	Time flies when I am working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5	I am enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6	When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7	My job inspires me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10	I am proud of the work that I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11	I am immersed in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12	I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13	To me, my job is challenging.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14	I get carried away when I am working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16	It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17	At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Source: Utrecht

Work Engagement Scale (UWES) suggested by Schaufeli et al. (2002).

PART III: Work-Family Conflict

Work-Family Conflict		Very Strongly Disagree							Very Strongly Agree						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Source: Work-Family Conflict Scale developed by Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996).

PART IV: Work Overload

Work Overload		Very Strongly Disagree							Very Strongly Agree						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I am pressured to work long hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I have unachievable deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I have to work very fast.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I have to work very intensively.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Different groups at work demand things from me that are hard to combine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I am unable to take sufficient breaks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I have unrealistic time pressures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Source: Work Overload Scale by Cousins, Mackay, Clarke, Kelly, Kelly & McCaig, (2004)

PART V: Perceived Organisational Support

Perceived Organisational Support		Very Strongly Disagree							Very Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	The organisation values my contribution to its well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2	The organisation fails to appreciate any extra from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3	The organisation would ignore any complaint from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4	The organisation really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5	Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6	The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7	The organisation shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8	The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Source: Survey of POS by Eisenberger et al., (1990)									

PART VI: Rewards & Recognition

Rewards & Recognition		Very Strongly Disagree Very Strongly Agree						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	There is an opportunity for a pay raise in my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	There is job security in my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	There is an opportunity for promotion in my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I have freedom and opportunities in my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I always get respect from the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I always get praise from my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My organisation provides sufficient training and development opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I have more challenging work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I get some form of public recognition in my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	A reward or token of appreciation is common in my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Source: Rewards and recognition scale by Saks (2006)								

APPENDIX C

FACTOR ANALYSIS

EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.920
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square	3066.411
df	136
Sig.	.000

Average Matrices

	EE1	EE2	EE3	EE4	EE5	EE6	EE7	EE8	EE9	EE10	EE11	EE12	EE13	EE14	EE15	EE16	EE17	
Average Correlations	EE1	.711	-.093	-.050	-.002	-.048	-.034	-.044	-.007	-.033	-.090	-.107	-.034	-.006	-.013	-.030	-.039	-.009
	EE2	-.093	.606	-.007	-.043	-.038	-.021	-.092	-.027	-.030	-.065	-.037	-.027	-.021	-.006	-.013	-.040	-.038
	EE3	-.050	-.007	.607	-.070	-.056	-.041	-.018	-.034	-.020	-.021	-.065	-.027	-.158	-.016	-.033	-.031	-.028
	EE4	-.002	-.043	-.070	.603	-.074	-.036	-.066	-.006	-.034	-.036	-.043	-.023	-.007	-.024	-.013	-.031	-.042
	EE5	-.048	-.038	-.056	-.074	.604	-.064	-.066	-.027	-.012	-.018	-.073	-.054	-.030	-.003	-.040	-.010	-.068
	EE6	-.034	-.021	-.041	-.036	-.064	.608	-.042	-.042	-.058	-.040	-.080	-.068	-.034	-.108	-.040	-.030	-.081
	EE7	-.044	-.027	-.018	-.036	-.068	-.042	.608	-.050	-.037	-.088	-.085	-.001	-.069	-.001	-.017	-.021	-.042
	EE8	-.007	-.027	-.031	-.035	-.027	-.042	-.058	.611	-.129	-.017	-.047	-.085	-.054	-.044	-.054	-.082	-.014
	EE9	-.032	-.030	-.026	-.024	-.012	-.008	-.007	-.129	.614	-.078	-.035	-.064	-.014	-.010	-.011	-.030	-.021
	EE10	-.088	-.056	-.021	-.035	-.019	-.043	-.000	-.017	-.078	.638	-.104	-.013	-.010	-.011	-.041	-.040	-.048
	EE11	-.107	-.037	-.055	-.013	-.073	-.088	-.000	-.047	-.030	-.104	.634	-.007	-.007	-.006	-.040	-.047	-.038
	EE12	-.034	-.027	-.027	-.023	-.034	-.048	-.001	-.051	-.054	-.013	-.007	.635	-.066	-.002	-.030	-.040	-.047
	EE13	-.066	-.031	-.109	-.037	-.038	-.034	-.046	-.054	-.011	-.010	-.007	-.046	.635	-.144	-.044	-.030	-.070
	EE14	-.013	-.006	-.014	-.034	-.031	-.109	-.001	-.044	-.010	-.010	-.044	-.002	-.144	.640	-.067	-.107	-.140
	EE15	-.018	-.013	-.032	-.013	-.044	-.048	-.017	-.004	-.011	-.011	-.045	-.025	-.144	-.067	.641	-.091	-.030
	EE16	-.038	-.030	-.031	-.031	-.019	-.069	-.021	-.062	-.030	-.031	-.047	-.038	-.148	-.148	-.091	.646	-.135
	EE17	-.018	-.038	-.028	-.042	-.038	-.082	-.042	-.064	-.031	-.040	-.039	-.087	-.135	-.056	-.056	-.135	.647
Average Correlations	EE1	.811*	-.122	-.090	-.107	-.083	-.078	-.004	-.013	-.090	-.082	-.223	-.209	-.071	-.022	-.001	-.013	-.019
	EE2	-.122	.828*	-.116	-.239	-.122	-.242	-.203	-.006	-.072	-.170	-.189	-.007	-.040	-.012	-.026	-.020	-.081
	EE3	-.090	-.116	.828*	-.140	-.128	-.181	-.042	-.002	-.082	-.040	-.123	-.047	-.050	-.020	-.005	-.002	-.009
	EE4	-.002	-.242	-.181	.805*	-.202	-.073	-.148	-.136	-.254	-.018	-.037	-.048	-.013	-.056	-.026	-.002	-.081
	EE5	-.078	-.203	-.042	-.073	.805*	-.078	-.204	-.073	-.039	-.082	-.242	-.102	-.060	-.050	-.102	-.031	-.015
	EE6	-.004	-.006	-.001	-.148	-.136	.814*	-.008	-.002	-.115	-.031	-.085	-.107	-.002	-.010	-.007	-.014	-.082
	EE7	-.004	-.006	-.001	-.242	-.204	-.078	.814*	-.108	-.070	-.070	-.242	-.080	-.040	-.001	-.040	-.001	-.101
	EE8	-.027	-.030	-.002	-.082	-.078	-.008	-.108	.828*	-.099	-.041	-.129	-.068	-.102	-.101	-.030	-.130	-.029
	EE9	-.088	-.056	-.021	-.035	-.019	-.043	-.000	-.047	.848*	-.230	-.082	-.134	-.019	-.041	-.023	-.010	-.080
	EE10	-.107	-.037	-.055	-.013	-.073	-.088	-.001	-.051	-.030	.819*	-.311	-.038	-.021	-.035	-.020	-.007	-.108
	EE11	-.034	-.027	-.027	-.023	-.034	-.048	-.001	-.051	-.054	-.013	.827*	-.122	-.070	-.100	-.101	-.008	-.009
	EE12	-.066	-.031	-.109	-.037	-.038	-.034	-.046	-.054	-.011	-.010	-.007	.843*	-.108	-.004	-.044	-.040	-.108
	EE13	-.013	-.006	-.014	-.034	-.031	-.109	-.001	-.044	-.010	-.010	-.044	-.002	-.144	.849*	-.071	-.008	-.110
	EE14	-.018	-.013	-.032	-.013	-.044	-.048	-.017	-.004	-.011	-.011	-.045	-.025	-.144	-.067	-.041	-.030	-.140
	EE15	-.038	-.030	-.031	-.031	-.019	-.069	-.021	-.062	-.030	-.031	-.047	-.038	-.148	-.148	-.091	-.130	-.140
	EE16	-.018	-.038	-.028	-.042	-.038	-.082	-.042	-.064	-.031	-.040	-.039	-.087	-.135	-.056	-.056	-.135	-.070
	EE17	-.018	-.038	-.028	-.042	-.038	-.082	-.042	-.064	-.031	-.040	-.039	-.087	-.135	-.056	-.056	-.135	-.070

* Measures of Sampling Adequacy (MSAs)

Communalities

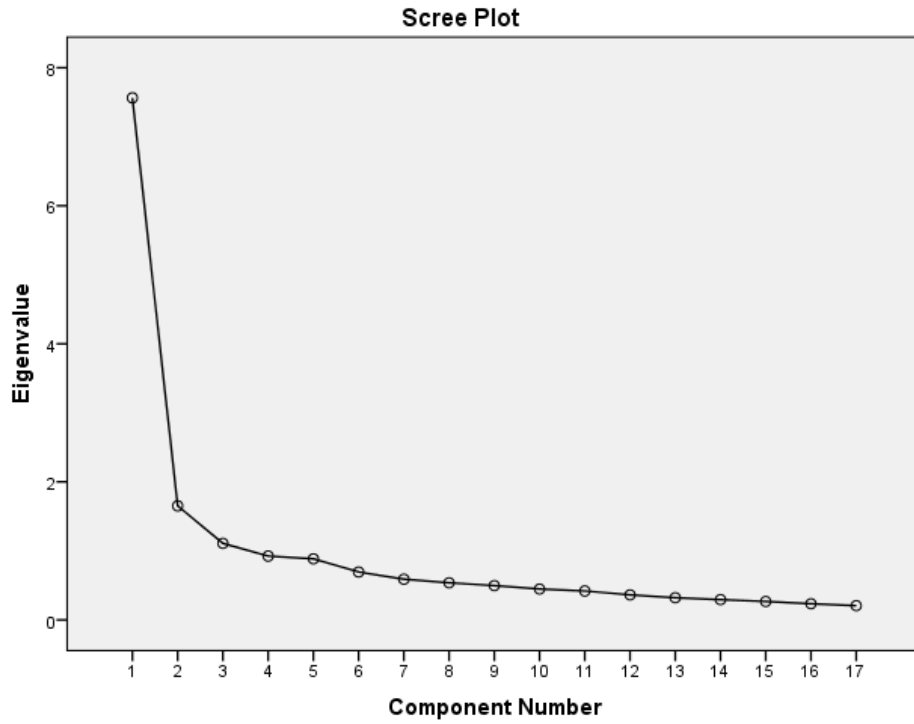
	Initial	Extraction
EE1	1.000	.476
EE2	1.000	.689
EE3	1.000	.468
EE4	1.000	.687
EE5	1.000	.721
EE6	1.000	.518
EE7	1.000	.726
EE8	1.000	.690
EE9	1.000	.688
EE10	1.000	.668
EE11	1.000	.668
EE12	1.000	.558
EE13	1.000	.433
EE14	1.000	.644
EE15	1.000	.580
EE16	1.000	.596
EE17	1.000	.515

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.563	44.491	44.491	7.563	44.491	44.491	3.981	23.417	23.417
2	1.852	9.718	54.209	1.852	9.718	54.209	3.535	20.797	44.214
3	1.109	6.522	60.731	1.109	6.522	60.731	2.808	16.517	60.731
4	.924	5.435	66.166						
5	.885	5.205	71.371						
6	.694	4.082	75.453						
7	.589	3.466	78.919						
8	.537	3.161	82.080						
9	.497	2.924	85.004						
10	.447	2.630	87.634						
11	.419	2.463	90.097						
12	.363	2.135	92.232						
13	.321	1.886	94.118						
14	.294	1.728	95.846						
15	.266	1.566	97.412						
16	.234	1.376	98.788						
17	.206	1.212	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



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WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.881
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1568.590
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Anti-image Matrices

		WFC1	WFC2	WFC3	WFC4	WFC5
Anti-image Covariance	WFC1	.321	-.131	-.019	-.018	-.018
	WFC2	-.131	.207	-.053	-.052	-.019
	WFC3	-.019	-.053	.202	-.101	-.060
	WFC4	-.018	-.052	-.101	.197	-.071
	WFC5	-.018	-.019	-.060	-.071	.427
Anti-image Correlation	WFC1	.884 ^a	-.509	-.075	-.072	-.048
	WFC2	-.509	.861 ^a	-.258	-.258	-.063
	WFC3	-.075	-.258	.870 ^a	-.506	-.203
	WFC4	-.072	-.258	-.506	.865 ^a	-.245
	WFC5	-.048	-.063	-.203	-.245	.946 ^a

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Communalities

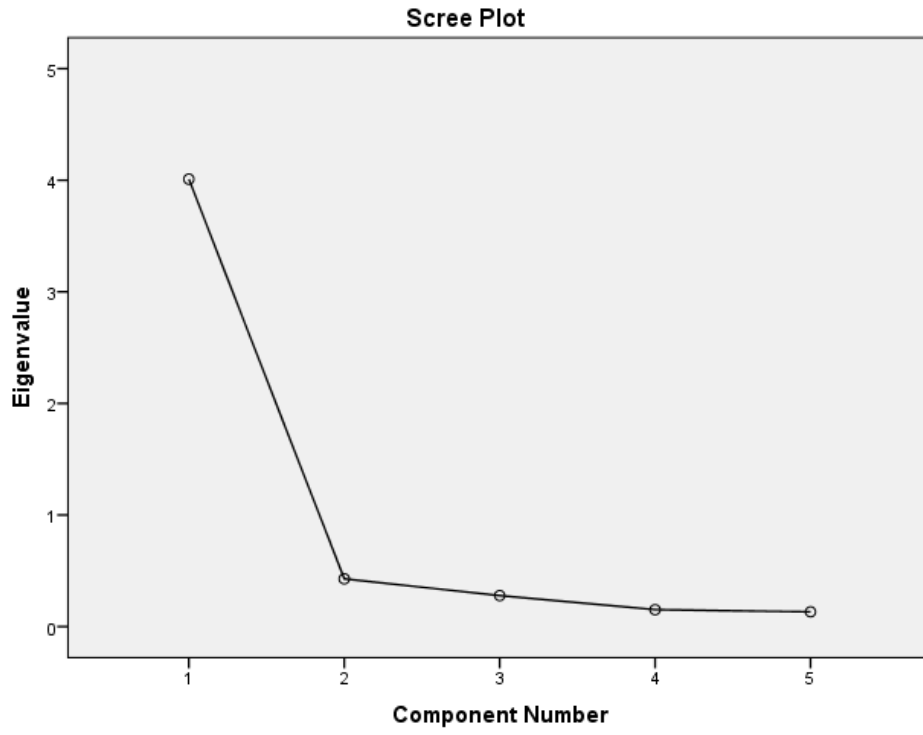
	Initial	Extraction
WFC1	1.000	.747
WFC2	1.000	.855
WFC3	1.000	.858
WFC4	1.000	.862
WFC5	1.000	.687

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.010	80.196	80.196	4.010	80.196	80.196
2	.428	8.559	88.755			
3	.278	5.564	94.319			
4	.152	3.036	97.355			
5	.132	2.645	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



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WORK OVERLOAD

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.861
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1577.820
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

Anti-image Matrices

		WOL1	WOL2	WOL3	WOL4	WOL5	WOL6	WOL7	WOL8
Anti-image Covariance	WOL1	.644	-.101	-.038	-.033	-.037	-.012	-.006	-.067
	WOL2	-.101	.532	-.034	.019	-.074	-.062	.004	-.114
	WOL3	-.038	-.034	.284	-.215	.013	-.011	-.028	-.008
	WOL4	-.033	.019	-.215	.294	-.009	-.034	.001	-.014
	WOL5	-.037	-.074	.013	-.009	.512	-.186	-.013	-.055
	WOL6	-.012	-.062	-.011	-.034	-.186	.428	-.091	-.022
	WOL7	-.006	.004	-.028	.001	-.013	-.091	.386	-.182
	WOL8	-.067	-.114	-.008	-.014	-.055	-.022	-.182	.326
Anti-image Correlation	WOL1	.954 ^a	-.173	-.089	-.075	-.065	-.022	-.011	-.146
	WOL2	-.173	.922 ^a	-.087	.048	-.143	-.130	.008	-.273
	WOL3	-.089	-.087	.775 ^a	-.744	.034	-.033	-.085	-.026
	WOL4	-.075	.048	-.744	.768 ^a	-.023	-.096	.002	-.046
	WOL5	-.065	-.143	.034	-.023	.896 ^a	-.396	-.030	-.135
	WOL6	-.022	-.130	-.033	-.096	-.396	.900 ^a	-.225	-.060
	WOL7	-.011	.008	-.085	.002	-.030	-.225	.870 ^a	-.513
	WOL8	-.146	-.273	-.026	-.046	-.135	-.060	-.513	.863 ^a

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
WOL1	1.000	.457
WOL2	1.000	.550
WOL3	1.000	.570
WOL4	1.000	.546
WOL5	1.000	.530
WOL6	1.000	.638
WOL7	1.000	.639
WOL8	1.000	.710

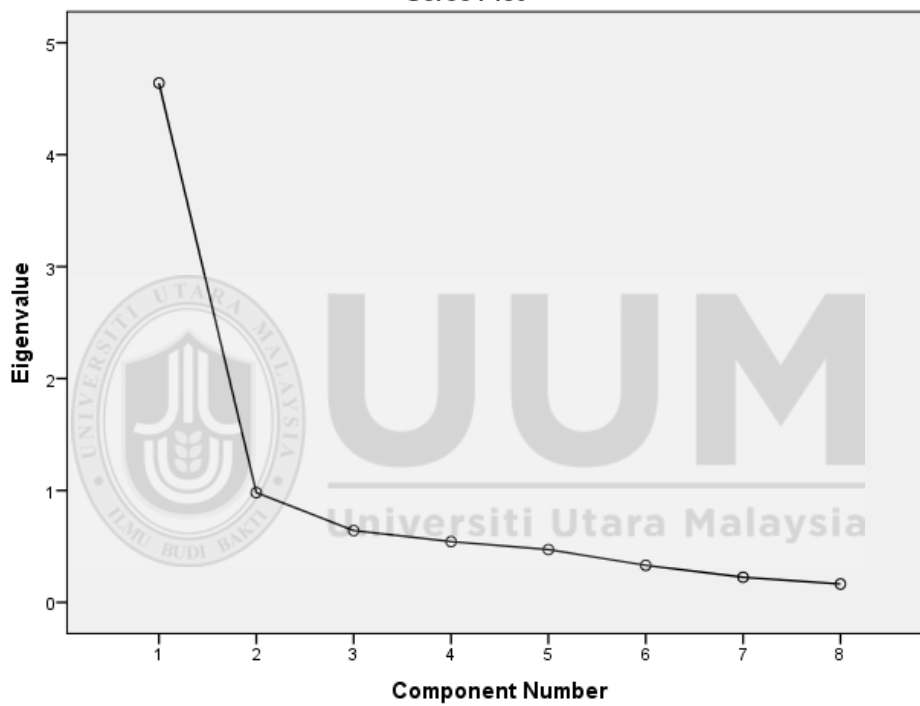
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.640	58.006	58.006	4.640	58.006	58.006
2	.981	12.269	70.274			
3	.642	8.024	78.298			
4	.543	6.789	85.087			
5	.472	5.899	90.986			
6	.332	4.148	95.134			
7	.225	2.809	97.943			
8	.165	2.057	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot



PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.845
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1277.389
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

Anti-image Matrices

		POS1	POS2	POS3	POS4	POS5	POS6	POS7	POS8
Anti-image Covariance	POS1	.447	.022	-.008	-.164	-.045	-.122	-.004	-.054
	POS2	.022	.458	-.191	-.048	-.167	-.030	.002	.028
	POS3	-.008	-.191	.477	.008	-.068	-.019	-.136	-.045
	POS4	-.164	-.048	.008	.361	-.015	-.149	-.033	-.111
	POS5	-.045	-.167	-.068	-.015	.460	.052	-.181	-.028
	POS6	-.122	-.030	-.019	-.149	.052	.457	-.040	-.083
	POS7	-.004	.002	-.136	-.033	-.181	-.040	.554	.050
	POS8	-.054	.028	-.045	-.111	-.028	-.083	.050	.693
Anti-image Correlation	POS1	.854 ^a	.049	-.017	-.410	-.098	-.270	-.008	-.097
	POS2	.049	.822 ^a	-.409	-.117	-.364	-.065	.004	.050
	POS3	-.017	-.409	.848 ^a	.020	-.144	-.040	-.264	-.079
	POS4	-.410	-.117	.020	.830 ^a	-.037	-.367	-.075	-.221
	POS5	-.098	-.364	-.144	-.037	.828 ^a	.114	-.359	-.050
	POS6	-.270	-.065	-.040	-.367	.114	.855 ^a	-.080	-.147
	POS7	-.008	.004	-.264	-.075	-.359	-.080	.855 ^a	.081
	POS8	-.097	.050	-.079	-.221	-.050	-.147	.081	.901 ^a

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Communalities

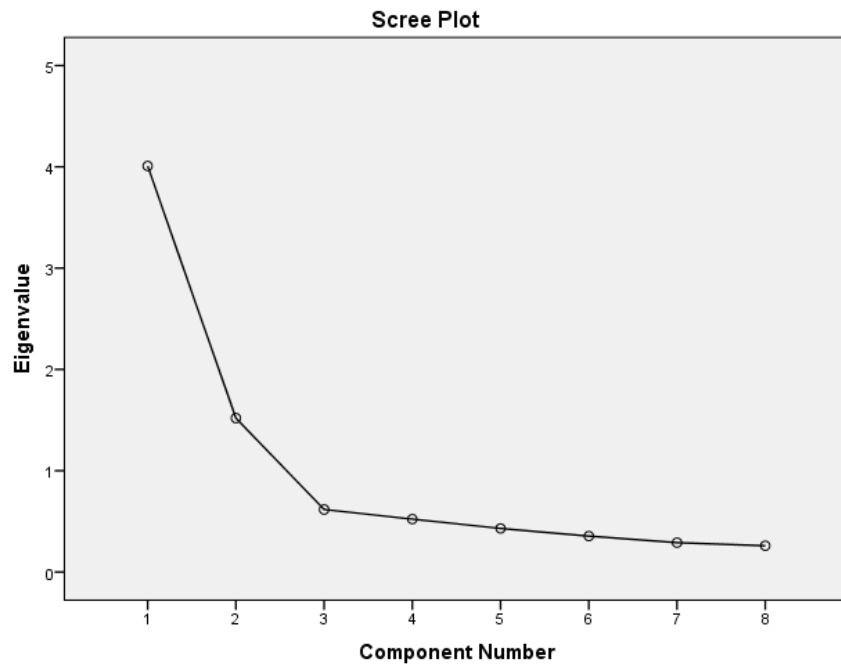
	Initial	Extraction
POS1	1.000	.721
POS2	1.000	.702
POS3	1.000	.706
POS4	1.000	.788
POS5	1.000	.727
POS6	1.000	.724
POS7	1.000	.624
POS8	1.000	.535

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.008	50.104	50.104	4.008	50.104	50.104	2.797	34.960	34.960
2	1.519	18.989	69.094	1.519	18.989	69.094	2.731	34.133	69.094
3	.617	7.712	76.806						
4	.522	6.524	83.330						
5	.430	5.376	88.706						
6	.355	4.432	93.139						
7	.290	3.619	96.757						
8	.259	3.243	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



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REWARDS AND RECOGNITION

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.890
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	1538.098
	df
	45
	Sig.
	.000

Anti-image Matrices

		RR1	RR2	RR3	RR4	RR5	RR6	RR7	RR8	RR9	RR10
Anti-image Covariance	RR1	.430	-.017	-.167	-.009	.023	-.019	-.060	.028	-.009	-.063
	RR2	-.017	.456	-.151	-.037	-.015	-.090	-.047	-.011	.016	-.015
	RR3	-.167	-.151	.298	-.115	.021	.023	.019	.014	-.026	-.038
	RR4	-.009	-.037	-.115	.470	-.156	-.012	-.089	-.005	-.049	.011
	RR5	.023	-.015	.021	-.156	.656	-.162	-.017	-.009	-.053	-.020
	RR6	-.019	-.090	.023	-.012	-.182	.563	-.054	.011	-.019	-.133
	RR7	-.060	-.047	.019	-.089	-.017	-.054	.615	-.125	-.056	-.064
	RR8	.028	-.011	.014	-.005	-.009	.011	-.125	.879	-.122	-.006
	RR9	-.009	.016	-.026	-.049	-.053	-.019	-.056	-.122	.522	-.178
	RR10	-.063	-.015	-.038	.011	-.020	-.133	-.064	-.006	-.178	.429
Anti-image Correlation	RR1	.888 ^a	-.037	-.467	-.021	.043	-.038	-.118	.046	-.018	-.146
	RR2	-.037	.905 ^a	-.410	-.081	-.027	-.177	-.088	-.018	.032	-.033
	RR3	-.467	-.410	.831 ^a	-.307	.047	.055	.044	.027	.066	-.106
	RR4	-.021	-.081	-.307	.907 ^a	-.281	-.024	-.166	-.008	-.098	.025
	RR5	.043	-.027	.047	-.281	.883 ^a	-.267	-.027	-.012	-.091	-.038
	RR6	-.038	-.177	.055	-.024	-.267	.900 ^a	-.092	.015	-.036	-.270
	RR7	-.118	-.088	.044	-.166	-.027	-.092	.935 ^a	-.170	-.099	-.126
	RR8	.046	-.018	.027	-.008	-.012	.015	-.170	.841 ^a	-.181	-.010
	RR9	-.018	.032	-.066	-.098	-.091	-.036	-.099	-.181	.899 ^a	-.376
	RR10	-.146	-.033	-.106	.025	-.038	-.270	-.126	-.010	-.376	.895 ^a

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
RR1	1.000	.672
RR2	1.000	.649
RR3	1.000	.781
RR4	1.000	.601
RR5	1.000	.388
RR6	1.000	.492
RR7	1.000	.517
RR8	1.000	.684
RR9	1.000	.593
RR10	1.000	.631

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.934	49.343	49.343	4.934	49.343	49.343	3.947	39.468	39.468
2	1.075	10.749	60.092	1.075	10.749	60.092	2.062	20.624	60.092
3	.872	8.722	68.814						
4	.675	6.752	75.566						
5	.566	5.657	81.223						
6	.556	5.556	86.780						
7	.421	4.209	90.989						
8	.377	3.772	94.761						
9	.315	3.152	97.913						
10	.209	2.087	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot

