

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK
ENGAGEMENT OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS
AND THEIR ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**



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Azeem Sabir

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree
of**

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**DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
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Dedication

First, I want to dedicate this doctoral research to **ALLAH ALMIGHTY** for giving me strength, courage, and wisdom to succeed. You have inspired me to do something greater than oneself, to step outside of my comfort zone, and to make the impossible possible.

Second, I dedicate this doctoral research to *my father, Muhammad Sabir and my mother, Khalida Adeeb*. Thank you for instilling the value of perseverance and nurturing resilience in me at a young age, which serves as the foundation of my life for almost 40 years.

Third, I dedicate this doctoral research to *my loving wife, Sofia*, who is a great supporter and true companion. She has been a boundless source of inspiration and emotional support throughout my doctoral journey.

Fourth, I would like to dedicate this doctoral research to my children my boys *Muhammad Ibrahim, Muhammad Haris and Muhammad Musa* and my daughter who encouraged me and acted as source of motivation and happiness.

SUPERVISOR'S CERTIFICATE

The thesis titled "The Relationship between Work Engagement of University Teachers and Their Organizational Commitment" submitted by Mr. Azeem Sabir, 117-FSS/PHDEDU/S15 is partial fulfillment of PhD degree in Education, has been completed under my guidance and supervision. I am satisfied with the quality of student's research work and allow her to submit this for further process as per IIUI rules and regulation.

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APPROVAL SHEET

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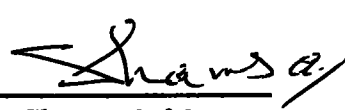
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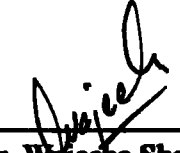
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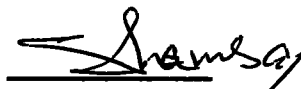
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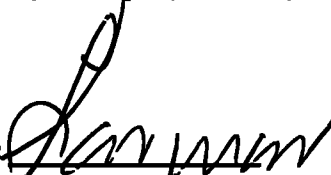
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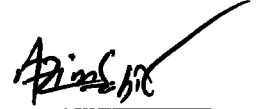
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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I, Azeem Sabir Regd. No. 117-FSS/PHDEDU/S15 as a student of PhD in Education at International Islamic University, Islamabad do hereby declare that the thesis entitled "The Relationship between Work Engagement of University Teachers and Their Organizational Commitment", submitted for the partial fulfillment of PhD in Education is my original work, except where otherwise acknowledged in the text and has not been submitted or published earlier and shall not in future, be submitted by researchers for obtaining and degree from this or any other university or institutions.



Azeem Sabir

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ABSTRACT

Educational researchers contend that high-quality, sustaining teachers are critical to student success. However, few policymakers agree on the best way to improve teacher quality. Researchers outside of education found associations between employee engagement and organizational commitment, which suggests that improving teacher work engagement, may potentially improve teacher productivity. Engagement theories framed this Correlational study; the Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model, the social exchange theories and Meyer and Allen's organizational commitment theory. These theories contributed to examining relationships between teacher work engagement and their organizational commitment. This study investigated the levels of engagement and commitment, their relationships and the influence of the biographic variables (age, gender, tenure and marital status) on these key dimensions. The study was undertaken on a sample of 420 (95% response rate) teachers, drawn using the simple random sampling technique (straightified sampling) from twenty universities situated in Rawalpindi/Islamabad, Pakistan. Data was collected using questionnaires. The psychometric properties (validity and reliability) of the questionnaire were assessed using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. Quantitative data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. SPSS was used to analyse the data in order to answer the study's original questions. Understanding Data Analysis Inferential Results In this study, the researcher uses IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 26 to analyse data using descriptive and inferential statistics. Inferential statistics such as the t-test and Pearson correlation coefficient (r) are used. There were moderate levels of employee engagement as well as organisational commitment. This study indicates that there are significant relationships among the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, absorption, dedication) and commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment) respectively. Significant differences, based on the biographical profiles of employees, relating to employee engagement and organisational commitment, were noted. According to the conclusion of the study, there is a link between teachers' work engagement and organisational commitment, and university managers must be completely conscious of the impact of this link on the overall rating of their institution. University administrators may assess whether a variety of incentives to improve teachers organisational commitment are suitable. As a result, the researchers recommended that teachers regularly assess their own performance and provide feedback to university administrators if they have any suggestions for university management. Teachers can help university executives understand teachers' perspectives in this way, allowing them to better build university management programmes.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AC	Affective Commitment
B&B	Theory Broaden and build theory of positive emotions
CC	Continuance Commitment
COR	Theory Conservation of resources theory
HRM	Human resource management
JDR Model	Job demands-resources model
NC	Normative Commitment
OCB	Organization Citizenship behavior
POS	Perceived organizational support
SET	Social Exchange Theory
UWES	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organizations all around the world are working hard to address issues about their workers' job engagement in order to create an ideal, supportive, and inclusive climate that addresses all areas of employee well-being. Employee happiness is embodied in the actual cornerstone of organisational effectiveness is organisational commitment, which is the backbone of any organization (Bhattacharya, 2015). Neumark, Johnson, and Mejia (2013) found that Organizations are currently confronted with the issues of controlling organisational culture in terms of organisational commitment and generating a synergistic environment. Universities and higher education institutions provide intellectually capable and professionally sound human resources to societies. Culture is defined as a way of life by educational stakeholders such as teaching faculty, board of directors, administrative and support staff, and even students, who define it as a set of values, beliefs, traditions, conventions, and practises communicated orally and nonverbally by the stakeholder (Bana, 2019) in order to strengthen the link between it and organisational commitment.

In terms of organisational culture, understanding and managing is essential. The success of an institute, and well-being of its employees, employee work engagement, and its efficacy are all dependent on organisational commitment. The human side of business, such as employee work engagement, is seen as vital to organisational commitment in today's environment (Teri & Sabater, 2014). Employee well-being, employee work engagement, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment have all been shown to be positively linked (Teri & Sabater, 2014; Timms & Brough, 2013). As a result of previous research, it has been concluded that positive, supportive, and adaptive organisational commitment leads to employee work

engagement, organisational success, Unadaptive, discouraging, and apathetic organisational commitment, on the other hand, has unpleasant and negative consequences for the organisation as a whole, as well as the status of its employees' job engagement (Egwuonwu, 2019)

Universities principally but expertly equip societies in a variety of ways, including by providing qualified labour, supporting scholastic and research-based learning activities, and supporting to the social, economic, and social well-being of society members, among other things. As a result, it is critical to know and understand university organisational culture in order to improve employee work engagement and organisational commitment. Recognizing, supporting, and humanising university employee well-being is one of the greatest and most effective ways to solve this challenge. Due to cultural diversity, fragmented and chaotic society, and the fluid character of corporate cultures, managing and improving organisational commitment and employee job engagement has become a problem for all stakeholders at universities (Riketta, 2019; Solinger, 2018).

So, the current study evaluate and investigate the organisational commitment and state of work engagement of its employees at universities in Pakistan, take into consideration the previous mentioned situations in perspective of the significance of organisational commitment and workers' level of job engagement. The Higher Education Commission (HEC) has already begun to work on higher education growth through university/degree awarding institution rankings (DAIs).

Overtime, organizational researchers have shown interested in work-related Constructs that may contribute to positive employee outcomes such as productivity, and efficiency. Increased interest has led researchers to seek multiple paths in which work engagement could improve job performance. Despite interest on the topic of

engagement, educational researchers have too rarely turned to organizational behavior research to learn about school improvement. Also there are few studies that examine the organisational commitment and work engagement of university personnel from a Pakistani viewpoint. As a result, the goal of this study on university teachers' organisational commitment and job engagement is to add value and expose the purpose of higher education development and research.

Lastly, despite an increasing interest in the topic of work engagement in educational institutions, there is a gap in the literature on teacher work engagement. One reason for this deficit may be the perception that engagement in schools refers to student engagement with learning activities. However, a limited number of educational leaders may be aware of the academic discussion of work engagement and how it relates to employee quality. Increased concern over the lack of teacher quality in education and demand for greater accountability has created a need to develop new strategies to improve instructional quality, possibly by increasing teacher job satisfaction. Therefore, this study adds to the limited amount of educational research on this topic, filling a gap in the organizational and educational literature.

1.0 Rationale of the Study

Work engagement is a positive, fulfilling, and work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. The vigor characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience, vitality and flexibility during work, and being determined even in the face of difficulties during work (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2018). Dedication is the state in which an individual shows complete enthusiasm and involvement for work, and there is a practical effort, passion, respect and challenging task. Absorption means that an individual is deeply focused and determined engrossed in working, while the time moves rapidly (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2014). Work engagement is distinguished from related concept like the

embeddedness of job (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), workaholic and complete assurance and commitment to organization (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006). The general conceptualization about the work engagement in research is reasonably of a constant variable because there is a continuous availability of a particular work and characteristics of an organization (Macey & Schneider, 2018). However, it can be considered that there are temporary (day to day or weekly) variations in engagement of work (Sonnentag, 2013). As it is comparatively a new concept, work engagement is becoming a frequent topic of research extending along a continuum from job performance. Clearly, the researches in recent times showed that job performance is increased by work engagement (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). Resources of the job are considered as interpreter of work engagement, specifically when demands of jobs are high. The employees that are engaged and have a great wisdom of strengthen and active relations with the activities of work and they consider them as capable of dealing with the requirements of their job (Bakker, 2019).

Job performance has significant importance as the employees' behavior influences the organizational objectives directly as well as indirectly (Borman & Motowidlo, 2018). Job performance has been explained well as the generally predicted significance of the behavior of employees over a specific period. However, it involves the particular concept of value that behavior is the strength to job performance and simply explained as what the individuals do and how they perform their job tasks. Job performance comprises of performing tasks, in-role, contextual, or extra-role performances. The association among the employee engagement and job performance is related with the commitment toward the organization. The employees who were engaged highly with their work and job tasks, they also emphasize on their physical efforts and the task relevant goals, but they were also rational and

emotionally linked to the organization (Kahn, 2017). This study observes the relationship among work engagement and commitment of organization by performance of teachers in university. Teachers' performance is principally contingent on the features of teacher such as based on information, their accountability and imagination and the characteristics of students such as learning prospects, theoretical work; teaching features such as structure of a lesson and interaction; learning factors such as: the organization and management, classroom phenomena such as atmosphere (Bishay, 2019).

Education is one of the important stages about formation of society. As education is the whole system in which morality, attitude, information and skills are given. We need institutions for constructing these human being behaviors. To achieve this this, education system needs an institution (university) and staff (teachers) (Çubukcu, 2012). University is an institution which was established to give literacy, basic mathematical skills, abstract formations and opinions to students (Çubukcu, 2012). Teacher is the most important point in every school. Aarsal defines that; "teacher is the member of the occupation who teaches specific subjects to students group or single student". Teachers have role and responsibilities for education process. If there is a success or failure in an education progress, teachers have additive on this too (Çubukcu & others, 2012).

Universities are the organization which come together in common goal event with two or more memberships deliberately coordinated. While there are a lot of studies about the positive behaviours of employees about organizational commitment, work engagement topic have been used increasingly in recent years. Work Engagement has named differently in literature but it defines the opposite meaning of negative feelings to work. In their studies the writers named the process of integration

as; Güneşer (2007) is being hired engagj, to Doğan (2002) work connected whole heartedly, Balci (2010) work addiction, Turgut (2010) work the doors and Ardınc, Polatcı (2009) work engagement Esen (2011). Work Engagement refers more than the extent person's adhering to the job, it is about how much there is, and what is the essence while doing the job (Doğan, 2002). Employees are integrated their work with emotional and cognitive functional. Emotional integration of people have the ability to empathize with colleagues, establish meaningful relationships with managers. Cognitive integration defines the people with really aware of their mission and roles (Esen, 2011).

There are a lot of researches about organizational commitment. Yılmaz (2009) shows there is meaningful relationship between organizational commitments of teachers and their job satisfactions and their organizational creativities in schools. Karataş and Güleş (2010) reveal teachers of elementary school have high job satisfaction and organizational commitment and emotional factors (time in school, labour) are effective than others in their researchs. Kayır (2013) compares to the other levels of emotional commitment to the organization for their commitment size of school principals has found that higher. Kara (2006) shows that the effect of demographic variables on organizational commitment. Karapostal (2014) for variables such as the personal characteristics of gender, marital status, age, according to seniority variable organizational commitment and transformational, transactional, reveals that there are significant differences between the leadership recognizes freedom perception points. Deniz (2014) shows that the teachers in the affiliated research institutions as the most emotional. Literature has been working on the integration of the different factors that impact on the work. Arı (2011) says work environment should be positive for increasing individual's levels of integration with

work. Karataş and Güleş's research transmitted from Sharma ve Bajpai (2010) shows us employees who have high job satisfaciton for organization are bounder than employees who have low job satisfaciton and they can be dangerous for organization. This research show us organizational commitment is important property for job satisfaction.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Work has an important place in human life since it is the basic tool through which needs are met and the field of activity to which a large part of the day is allocated. Work engagement is one of the factors that affect an employee's performance and productivity at work. Relationships that a teacher builds on trust with the other internal stakeholders in the school can provide a feeling of engagement with work. The goal of this study is to take into account organisational commitment and see how it affects employee work engagement in higher education institutions. On the basis on which colleges are ranked internationally, employee organisational loyalty to their universities is undoubtedly always questioned across the world. The HEC began working on this dimension by establishing a Quality Assurance Division in Pakistan with the purpose of expanding and taking into account the total organisational effectiveness of higher education institutions. Only if the culture of these organisations conforms to and adds value to their employees' job engagement and organisational dedication would it be possible to secure and establish superiority and excellence by these universities, which help as a national inspiration. In accordance with this purpose, the statement of the problem is: the level of organization in which organisational culture exists influences on employee organisational commitment and work engagement of an organisation.

1.2 Objectives of the Research

Following objectives were framed for the current study. The research has been aimed to:

1. Investigate the work engagement of the university teachers' in Pakistan.
2. Find out the organizational commitment of the university teachers' in Pakistan.
3. Examine the relationship between teacher's work engagement and organizational commitment.
4. Determine the influence of biographical profiles (age, gender, tenure and marital status) on teachers' engagement and organizational commitment respectively.

1.3 Research Hypothesis

Corresponding to its broad objectives, the study has been designed to test the following research hypothesis:

- H1: There is a significant relationship between the sub-dimensions of engagement (vigour, absorption and dedication) respectively.
- H2: There is a significant relationship between the sub-dimensions of commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) respectively.
- H3: There exist significant relationships between the sub-dimensions of teacher engagement (vigour, absorption, dedication) and commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment) respectively.
- H4: There is a significant relationship between teacher engagement and commitment.

H5: There is a significant relationship in the engagement of teachers varying in biographical profiles (age, tenure, marital status, gender) respectively.

H6: There is a significant difference in the commitment of teachers varying inbiographical profiles (gender, age, marital status and tenure) respectively.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The premise that organisational commitment is strongly connected with employee work engagement and development, primarily on organisational success & its workers' state of happiness, has been supported by recent as well as early studies (Ramachandran, Chong, & Ismail, 2015). The present study also goals to contribute to and improve the body of knowledge in the field of investigating and analysing the association among organisational commitment & employee work engagement.

Earlier scholars have expressed a strong desire to investigate, examine, because universities provide society and businesses with a knowledge economy and competent future workers, and to uncover and comprehend employees' employee effectiveness to their higher education institutions in examining and understand the basic assumptions and hypothetical contemplations that underpin organisational achievement in terms of organisational commitment and employee work engagement (Gumport, 2017; Tierney, 2009). Furthermore, specialists are becoming more interested in researching and analysing the relationship among organisational commitment and employee work engagement (Ismail, 2015). A few researches have been directed in Pakistan in the areas of organisational behaviour, Public and private secondary schools differ in terms of organization, management style, and environmental amenities (Iqbal, 2011), the hypothetical working of Pakistan's higher educational institutions (Ali, 2005), the superiority of higher education in the public

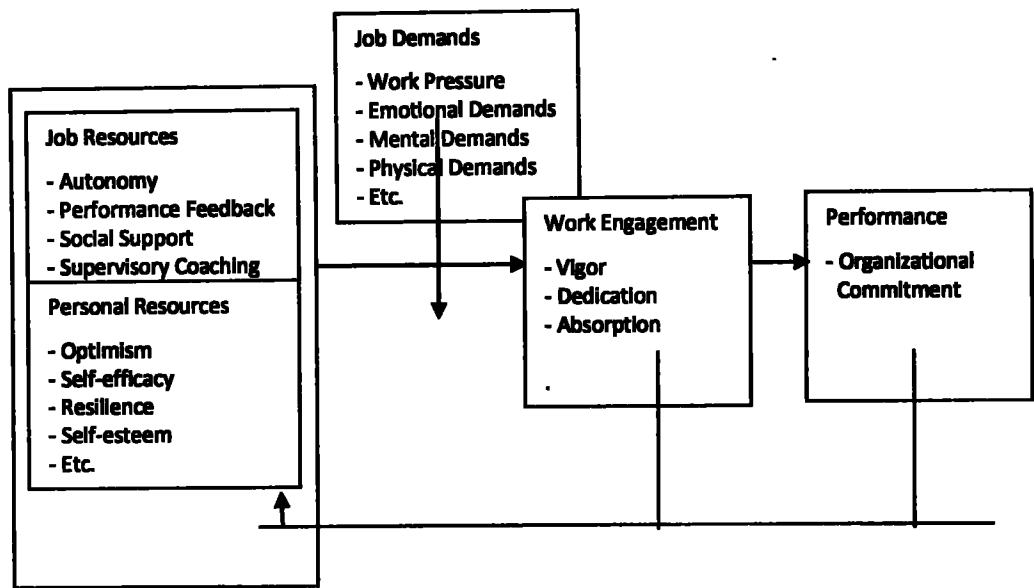
and commercial sectors (Ullah, 2014), and, most outstandingly, study by Arsha. However, further research into university organisational commitment and employee work engagement is required immediately. Other studies have helped to fill up the gaps in this fact/idea (Ismail, 2015).

Since the establishment of the Higher Education Commission, the utility and performance of universities, degree-granting institutions, and higher education institutions have been vigorously contested and scrutinised (Turner, 2010). Higher education institutions contribute to the nation's quality of life by cultivating a knowledge economy, a competent future workforce, and polished human capital capable of coping with the fast-changing and diverse world of the twenty-first century. As a result, it is critical for Pakistan's public and private institutions to examine, study, and comprehend this issue in higher education so as to create or check the relationship between organisational commitment and employee work engagement. In terms of organisational commitment and employee work engagement at universities, the current study will deliver a structure for assisting with and understanding organisational culture. This research will also provide essential information on the historical and current organisational commitment and employee work engagement of Pakistan's public and private universities. This research will also give empirical data on university organisational commitment and employee job engagement, which will aid institutions in developing policies and increasing productivity and efficiency. Apart from that, the outcomes of the study will provide and provide vital guidelines for organisational growth at Pakistan's public and private universities of HEC in terms of sympathetic, strengthening, as well as enhancing organisational commitment and employee job engagement.

1.5 Theoretical Framework

The Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) and the social exchange theories (Blau, 1964) were employed to explain the relationship between employee engagement and organizational commitment. The JD-R theory assumes that every job is associated with certain physiological or psychological costs or demands. Job resources on the other hand are the physical, psychological and organizational aspects of a job that help employees' complete tasks successfully and achieve work goals; as those resources provide basic human needs and foster employee growth, learning, and development (Houkes, Janssen, Jonge, & Nijhuis, 2001). According to the JD-R theory, job resources may buffer the impact of job demands on the employee (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018). (See Figure 1)

Social exchange theory (Blau) assumes that employees tend to act in ways that reflects their organizations or managers treatment (Agyemang, 2013). Employees are motivated to compensate beneficial treatment from the employer by acting in ways valued by the organization (Agyemang, 2013; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001). An assumption underling the social exchange theory is the idea of reciprocity where both parties adopt a contingent approach; one parties gives benefit based on previous contribution by the other party therefore adhering to the norm of reciprocity and reciprocation of benefit (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007).



Source: Based on Baker & Demorouti (2007)

Figure 1. Job Demands-Resources Model.

Saks (2006) proposed a model of the origins and effects of work engagement using social exchange theory as a theoretical framework. According to Saks, "one approach for consumers to pay their employer is by their stage of commitment." In other words, workers will engage to fluctuating degrees as well as in reply to the assets provided by their company" (Saks, 2006). A vivid illustration of the model is shown in Figure 2:

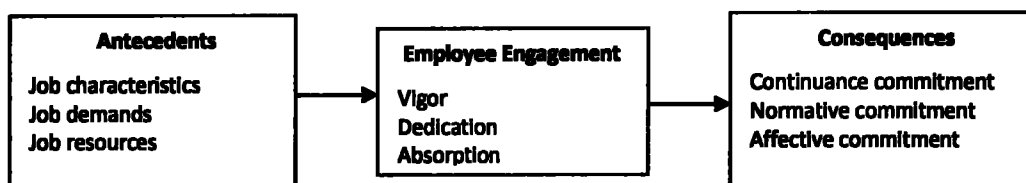


Figure 2. A model of the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement.

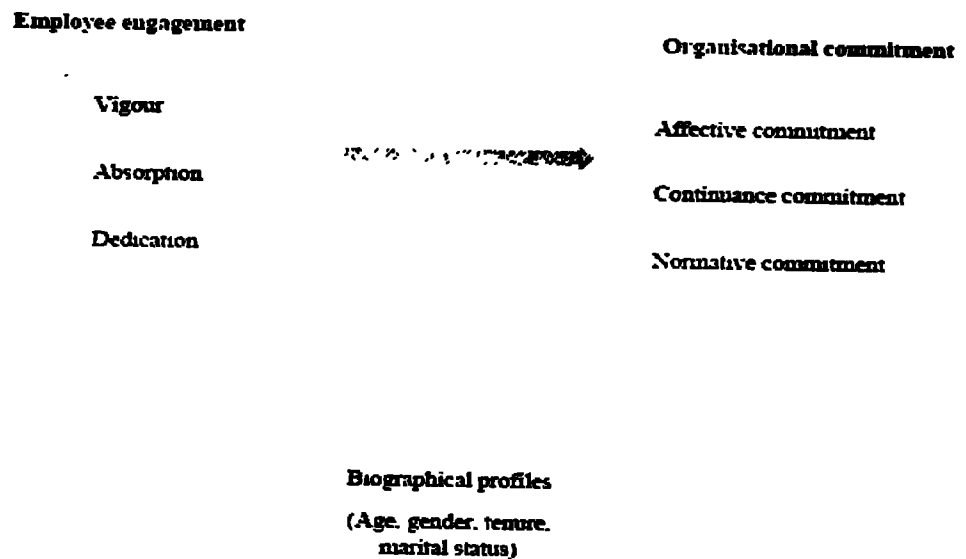
Workers who are vigorously interested in their company may sensation bound to respond and repay the organisation in some way if these two concepts are combined (Cohen, 2000). Employees might retaliate against their bosses by strengthening their commitment to the organisation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As a result, a high-engagement employee is more prospective to be loyal to the

company that delivers him with the means he requires to comprehensive his tasks. As a result, reciprocal exchanges should be favourable.

Combining these two theories, employees who are engaged actively in their organization may have a feeling of obligation to respond and repay the organization in some form (Cohen, 2000). One way for employees to repay their organization is to increase commitment to the organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Hence an employee with a high level of engagement is likely to be committed to the organization that provides him with the necessary resources to complete his tasks. Favorable reciprocal exchanges are thus expected.

1.6 Conceptual Framework of the Study

This study was guided by the conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 3.0 below.



Source: Self conceptualisation by the Researcher

Figure 3.0 conceptual framework on the relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment

Figure 3.0 shows the conceptual framework which guided the study in assessing the relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment. In this research, as shown in the conceptual framework, there are three sets of variables were investigated. The independent variable in this conceptual framework was employee engagement (with the sub-dimensions of vigour, absorption, dedication) while the dependent variable was organisational commitment (with its sub-dimensions being affective, continuance and normative). Additionally, the moderating variable in this framework relates to the biographical profiles (age, gender, tenure, marital status) which have a strong contingent effect on the independent and dependent variable relationship.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

Due to time constraints, mobility, and a lack of financial resources, the survey was delimited to teachers from HEC-accredited universities in the twin cities of Islamabad and Rawalpindi.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

There is no research without limitations. Although caution was exercised in the structure of this research topic, this study was subjected to some limitations. The following are the limitations that the researcher encountered in the study.

To start with, the primary limitation of this study was self-reporting, which introduced an unknown amount of bias. Also, universities vary in terms of their location, goals as well as the structure and magnitude of the work force (teachers). As this study was focusing on the population of teachers in universities in twin cities in Pakistan, the results are only specific to the teachers in universities. Therefore, the outcome of this study cannot be generalised to other sectors such as schools. Also,

some of the teachers were reluctant to take part in the study for fear that the information will be shared with management.

1.9 Operational Definitions

Work Engagement: "A good, achieving, and in-service state of cognizance distinguished by vigour, commitment & immersion" is how work engagement is defined (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2009). Engagement is a more permanent and extensive affective-cognitive state that is not centred on somewhat specific purpose, activity, person, rather than being a temporary and specialised state. When working, vigour is defined by higher stage of motivation flexibility, or a readiness to put out effort and persistence in the face of adversity. Dedication is characterised as a deep interest in a perception of importance in one's work, as well as passion, inspiration, pride, and a sense of challenge. Absorption is defined as "When time flies quickly and it is difficult to separate oneself from work, one is totally engaged and enthusiastically interested in one's task." It was calculated using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale for the purposes of this study (UWES).

Organizational Commitment (OC): Organizational commitment can be divided into three categories, according to Meyer and Allen (1997): emotive, continuous, and normative. As a result, Affective orientation toward the institution, understanding of the expenses of leaving the organisation, and an ethical duty to stay are all examples of commitment. Employees' emotional commitment to the organisation, as well as their identification with, interest with, Organizational Commitment is the combination of obligation and involvement in the organisation. Workers' emotional commitment to the organisation, as well as their identification with, interest with, and involvement in the organisation, is referred to as Continuance Commitment (CC). The term "Normative Commitment" refers to a

staff member's sense of commitment or devotion to the company. The Organizational Commitment Scale of Allen and Meyers (1991, 1993 & 1997) was utilised to calculate it for this study (TCM) which is most widely used questionnaire in different studies and free of cultural bias (Hong Kong enterprises Lam (1998) , Tolentino (2013), Kanning and Hill's (2013), Al-Yami, Galdas, and Watson (2019), Liou, Tsai, and Cheng (2013), Thakre & Mayekar (2016), *T.N.Tok, B.Çağrı San (2018), Rani et al. (2020)).*

This research data collection tool is divided into three pieces. Vitality (high energy level and mental vigour), commitment (inspiration, passion, pride, and high battling emotion for starting new job), and absorption are three subdimensions of work engagement, according to studies (concentrating, losing track of time). Normative commitment (individuals who believe their work is their obligation), continuity commitment (the belief that if he left his job, he would have less options), and emotional commitment are three subdimensions of organisational commitment (adopting values, goals).

Affective Commitment (AC). Employee's commitment in which they feel and embrace the goals, value and purpose of the organization within the same proportion. All employers dream people who have high emotional commitment because they are really devote oneself for organization and they have good moral Bayram (2005).

Continuity Commitment (CC). Employees' awareness of the cost in case they leave the work. Employees who are growing commitment to the organization as a result of their investment. A person who sustained organizational commitment has the idea would be to have fewer choices in the separation of organization. Some of these people remain in the organization because they can not find another job.

Somebody more than love of work, family issues or situations are compelling reasons, such as being close to retirement Bayram (2005).

Normative Commitment (NC). Employees' ethical feelings for their obligation to stay in the organization. Being aware of working in the organization as a task for him is to feel and to show true commitment to the organization that is affected the calculation of the losses will occur as a result of leaving the organization. Such persons shall conclude that the organization is well behaved themselves and therefore a liability against the organization of working time in their organization Bayram (2005).

Needs-Satisfaction Approach: The needs satisfaction method tries to understand the psychological circumstances that lead to employee engagement. William Kahn interviewed 16 counsellors at a seasonal camp and 16 employees at a planning business for his ethnographic study, and he discovered three psychological variables that are required for employees to express their preferred selves in their jobs (Kahn, 1990). Significance, protection, as well as accessibility are the three situations (Albrecht et al., 2015).

Affective Shift Model: This approach is designed to help people comprehend the dynamic nature of organisational commitment in their daily operations (Bledow, Schmitt, Frese, & Kühnel, 2011).

Social Exchange Theory: The social exchange theory (SET) is a multi-disciplinary framework that explains how parties interact as transactions, Cropanzano & Mitchell, Social exchange theory: an interdisciplinary review, (2005). The social exchange theory combines fields including social psychology, sociology, economics, and anthropology, and it has become one of the most extensively utilised ideas in

describing various workplace behaviours, Cropanzano & Mitchell, Social exchange theory: an interdisciplinary review (2005).

1.10 Methodology of the Study

1.10.1 Research Design

The present study utilised a quantitative research approach and thus employed a cross-sectional survey design. A cross-sectional survey was a suitable design since the research concentrates on collecting data from the target population within a short period.

1.10.2 Research Approach

Using a deductive logic paradigm, to find out the relationship between Work engagement of university teachers and their organizational commitment. It is mostly observed that the research approaches qualitative and quantification are generally taken as opposing.

1.10.3 Population

The population for this study consisted of $N = 7134$ (sampling framework) university teachers in 28 universities in twin-cities (21 in Islamabad, 7 in Rawalpindi). This study's population was divided into two Strata: (a) Male university teachers ($N_1=3995$, 56 percent), and (b) female university teachers ($N_2=3139$, 44 percent).

1.10.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The sample of 420 university teachers ($n=420$) was chosen using a stratified sampling technique (56% male, 44% female teachers in populations) but 400 (95% response rate) were found correct upon return for final analysis.

If the population is 50000, a sample of 381 is sufficient, according to Gay (1996). Taro Yamane's formula can also be used to determine/calculate/verify the sample size for the current investigation.

1.10.5 Instrumentation

The questionnaire was divided into three (3) sections. Section A featured demographic information pertaining to the employees' gender, employment, age, and marital status, Part B had factors determining employee engagement levels, and Section C contained items determining employee organisational commitment levels. Because one item in Section C (item 24) was negatively worded or a reverse (R) question, the scale was inverted throughout the data gathering process.

1.10.6 Validity

The research tool (UWES-17 and TCM) has been demonstrated high validity to work in the past. Many researchers have used and validated UWES-17 in international studies, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.78 to 0.87, significantly higher than the 0.50 requirement (Carmona-Halty et al., 2019). In nine different public organisations, researchers discovered a high level of TCM of commitment scale dependability, with a median coefficient alpha of 0.90 and a range of 0.82 to 0.93.

1.10.7 Pilot Study

As stated by cewswell (2012), "a pilot test is a small procedure in which a researcher makes changes in an instrument based on feedback from a small number of individuals who complete and evaluate the instrument "(p.390). In this study, a pilot study was crucial since it allowed the researcher to identify or investigate any problem parts in the questionnaire before conducting the final survey. The researcher chose a total of 30 respondents to participate in the pilot study (Isaac & Michael,

1995 and Hill, 1998). Following the pilot study, the researcher compiled the final version of the questionnaire and arranged interviews, taking into account all of the participants' opinions and suggestions. In the final questionnaire administration, the respondents who took part in the pilot survey were not included in the final analysis.

1.10.7.1 Reliability

As both instrument used were standardized, therefore just alpha was calculated (Orcan, 2018). The inter-item consistency and reliability of the entire employee engagement questionnaire (Section B) is good ($\text{Alpha} = 0.841$), as shown in Table 3.3. As a result, the survey effectively assesses the major elements that influence employee engagement, such as energy, absorption, and dedication. The attributes of energy, absorption, and devotion were each assessed independently for their reliability. The inter-item consistency of vitality ($\text{Alpha} = 0.766$) and devotion ($\text{Alpha} = 0.746$) is excellent, but absorption reliability ($\text{Alpha} = 0.595$) is fair. The questionnaire used to evaluate overall employee involvement as well as the study's sub-dimensions is clearly accurate and consistent.

1.10.8 Data Collection

Data collection was the skill of gathering and measuring data on variables of interest in the most organised and systematic way possible so that the researcher could answer particular research questions about the subject under inquiry. The researcher personally visited teachers to gather data and ensure the maximum response rate possible.

1.10.9 Data Analysis

SPSS was used to analyse the data in order to answer the study's original questions. Understanding Data Analysis Inferential Results In this study, the researcher uses IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 26 to

analyse data using descriptive and inferential statistics. The researcher used descriptive statistics including medians, modes, variances, and standard deviation to summarise the distribution of data and identify participant characteristics (e.g., gender, university type, and tenure-length of service) and patterns in the data. Inferential statistics such as the t-test and Pearson correlation coefficient (r) are used to analyse the link between hypotheses and enable the researcher to draw meaningful conclusions about the population.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teacher quality and performance issues, such as teacher productivity in terms of student outcomes and teacher attrition, are of concern to educational scholars and policymakers (Finster, 2013). Workplace involvement has been connected to employee performance and turnover (Albrecht, 2015). According to organisational theory, work satisfaction and organisational commitment are indicators of worker involvement on the job, but this strategy has not been used to secondary teachers (Bakker & Leiter, 2014; Kahn, 2013). Teachers in twin cities were questioned in this quantitative correlational study to investigate if there were any significant links between job happiness, organisational commitment, and work engagement, as well as if there were any significant correlations between the three factors. The relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and work engagement, as well as teacher demographics, was investigated in this study (age, gender, teaching experience, and education level).

A little amount of study on staff involvement in schools, particularly teacher commitment, has been existing in educational research (Bakker & Leiter, 2014; Byrne, 2014). Teacher engagement in terms of motivation and commitment has been the focus of prior study on the subject (Kahn, 2013). According to a new inclination in engagement study, teachers and schools have recently been investigated from the standpoint of teacher happiness and inspiration (Agha, Azmi, & Irfan, 2017).

Researchers have used cross-sectional studies to look into many aspects of teacher job performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018; Sonnentag et al., 2015). Consequently of patterns like these, school reformers have been able to understand numerous techniques to improve teacher effectiveness in schools. The purpose of this

study was to shed some light on the issue of teacher quality by suggesting teacher engagement as a novel technique for increasing teacher pleasure and effectiveness in the classroom.

The second chapter begins with an overview of the theoretical framework before going on to a survey of current early research literature. Current research on employee work engagement, its antecedents and effects, organisational commitment, and associated organisational variables like job satisfaction, job performance, and so on are also included in this chapter. A review of the literature on the relationship between teacher engagement and job performance follows the next portion of this chapter. This chapter finishes with a summary of organisational theory and its link to educational research.

2.1 Literature Review Process and Scope

The International Islamic University Library used SAGE Premier, Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, EBSCO, ERIC database, Emerald Insight, Education Source, Google Scholar, ProQuest Central, ProQuest Dissertation and Theses Global, PsycArticles, and PsycINFO in the literature review process and scope. Among the keywords used to search the databases were employee engagement, work engagement, organisational commitment, job contentment, teacher happiness, teacher commitment, job performance, work motivation, and teacher engagement.

2.2 Theoretical Foundation

The study's central hypothesis is that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are linked to teacher work engagement, which is supported by a variety of organisational theories. Kahn's (1990), Schaufeli et al. (2002), and Bakker and Leiter's (2010) engagement theories; Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-element model (TCM) of organisational commitment; and Locke's (1976) job satisfaction theory, which

influenced Spector's (1985) JSS. These concepts and research groups will be examined in sufficient complexity in the body of the chapter, but first, the relationships between them will be specified in order to form the study's theoretical foundation.

2.2.1 Social Exchange Theory

The organization-employee relationship is examined as a foundation for determining employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment in SET (Ariani, 2015). The exchange of monetary and nonmonetary benefits between the employee and the organisation is at the heart of SET, follow-on in emotions of commitment, faith, mutual beliefs, and a longstanding outlook (Slack, Corlett, & Morris, 2015). These encounters, as well as a sense of the employee's personal value to the organisation, influence employee loyalty, happiness, and engagement (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014).

Herda and Lavelle (2015) used SET to describe how individual auditors and their clients interacted, as well as how these connections influenced the quality of service provided. Clients prefer an interpersonal relationship with their auditor over a transactional. Herda and Lavelle both arrived to the same conclusion in 2013. Auditors must connect with customers as part of their profession, and how they perceive these interactions will influence (Cornerstone, 2016).

When measuring the worth of social exchanges among teachers and universities, the employee's perception of organisational support and dedication must be taken into account. The level of commitment exhibited by a teacher indicates their assessment of the quality of their social exchange interactions with universities. According to Herda and Lavelle, with colleagues, managers, and pupils, teachers develop social exchange connections, and the university itself (2012). The university's

assistance is critical in the social exchange relationship, which influences the teacher's level of commitment (Dalal, 2014). The feeling of support that an employee has is what determines their commitment (Herda & Lavelle, 2015).

Internal communication and involvement were aided by social exchanges that included support and identification. Inner message, as a form of social exchange, has a significant impact on employee engagement. Social contacts with an employee with his or her boss, according to these researchers, play an important role in the employee-organization link, as evidenced by the employee's correspondence of commitment (Jackson et al., 2014).

2.2.2 Job Demands-Resource Theory

Employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment may all be explained and understood using the Job Demands-Resource Theory (JD-RT) (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014). Workers are confronted with job demands and job resources to enable them to meet those demands, according to JD-RT. Employees must be given the resources they need to fulfil their tasks, As a result, employee engagement and organisational commitment are immediately affected (Dajani, 2015). A shortage of resources has a negative impact on employee performance, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment.

In any occupation, there are two sorts of risk factors: Job requirements and available resources (Orgambidez-Ramos, 2014). Yanchus, and Fishman (2013) investigated the relationship between job demands and resources and commitment to the organization, finding that job satisfaction and resources were explanatory of involvement. Jobs are formed up of demand and resources, according to the paper. Independence, make sure to apply, and professional progress are examples of work

engagement, are stronger markers of job engagement than job demands, according to the study (Albrecht, 2012).

The link between work-family conflict and engagement, contentment, and commitment is explained by JD-RT. Work-family conflict grew as job expectations grew, according to García-Cabrera (2013). Despite the fact that competent workplace services assisted in ending the dispute between family and work obligations. Employment conflict and employee anxiety are exacerbated by increased job demands, which leads to lower employee engagement, satisfaction, and loyalty (Wefald & Downey, 2019). Workplace create work-family conflict, but workplace resources boost job satisfaction, employee engagement, and organisational commitment (Yeh, 2015).

Schaufeli (2015) investigated whether professional skills are equivalent to self efficacy using the JD-RT paradigm, and discovered that individual assets promote career competences. The abilities, knowledge, talents, and other traits that influence an employee's job development and effective job performance are referred to as career competencies (Hennekam, 2016). Personal resources like as employability, according to Akkermans, Schaufeli, Brenninkmeijer, and Blonk, impact an employee's degree of engagement (2013). They established a link between job resources, job competencies, and job performance in their research.

2.3 Work Engagement

Employee engagement is still a comparatively innovative idea, according to academic literature (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008), with Kahn (1990) credited with its birth. While academic research on employee engagement was scarce in the first decade of its existence, the next decade saw a massive growth in the amount of research on the subject (Schaufeli, 2013). The positive psychology

movement and changes in the workplace have sparked an increase in research (Schaufeli, 2013). Employee engagement has been defined and operationalized in a variety of ways as a result of this increase in study. The following are some of the most frequent methods for determining employee engagement.

The first strategy is centered on Kahn's (1990) study of psychological factors influencing personal engagement. "The connecting of organisation members' identities to their professional tasks: people employ and represent ourselves practically, physically, psychologically, or mentally across work roles" is how personal engagement is defined," according to Kahn (1990).

The attitudes and behaviours that people bring to their character performances are referred to as personal engagement. These behaviours were linked to a person's "preferred self," in which they were physically, cognitively, emotionally, and completely committed to role performances that encouraged a connection to their work and others. Disengagement, instead, he defined as the separation of the self from managerial activities: during role performances, people withdraw and protect themselves physiologically, physically, or spiritually. As a result, the "preferred self" is not expressed during disengagement. When people are disengaged, they don't incorporate certain behaviours into role plays or leave them out entirely. Other terminology used in employee engagement research to mirror Kahn's definition are psychological engagement and job engagement (Saks, 2006).

In the second approach, which is based on burnout literature, employee engagement is conceptualised as the positive antithesis of burnout. There are two schools of thought in this strategy. The author's terminology for these schools of thought in this study is the single continuum approach and the independent continuum approach. According to the single continuum notion, employee engagement and

burnout are mirror opposites of one another, existing on a single continuum with employee engagement at one end and burnout at the other (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Employee engagement is defined as "a long-lasting pleasant subjective condition characterised by high levels of engagement and pleasure" is marked by vitality, participation, and effectiveness (Maslach et al., 2001). In the opposite direction, people with increased degree of employee participation have low levels of burnout. Employee engagement is viewed as being on par with burnout, which is measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI).

In the independent continuum approach, conversely, employee engagement is considered as a distinct concept with a negative relationship to burnout (Schaufeli, 2013). "A decent, gratifying, in-service state of cognizance distinguished by vigor, obligation, and awareness," according to the definition of employee engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002). In the face of adversity, vigour consists of a high levels of motivation perseverance, as well as the willingness to put out effort and perseverance, when it comes to labour. Absorption is defined as being entirely engrossed and concentrated on a task, Time is flying by, and it's becoming increasingly impossible to separate yourself from it. The term "absorption" refers to being entirely concentrated and involved in one's activity, with time passing quickly and difficulty separating from it. Dedication states to being totally focused and totally invested in someone's work, where situations change rapidly and it is impossible to separate oneself of one's work; and dedication refers to being totally focussed and time flies swiftly when one is absorbed in someone's work and one has difficulty disconnecting themselves from task (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Employee engagement is linked to an employee's physical, emotive, and cognitive characteristics at work, according to these three dimensions. While burnout

was the obvious opposite of engagement in the initial single continuum approach, boredom has been identified as a potential opposing of engagement in this school of thought (Schaufeli, 2013). Unlike the single continuum, where employee engagement is measured using the MBI scale, Schaufeli and colleagues established the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, which evaluates employee engagement as a separate construct (UWES). In engagement research, the second school of thinking has been the most often employed strategy. The Gallup Organization has widely adopted the third method, which links employee involvement to satisfaction.

The Gallup Organization defined organizational commitment as a person's engagement, contentment, & enthusiasm for work, which is credited with coining the phrase in practitioner literature (Harter et al., 2002). When workers are enthusiastic about their jobs and feel a strong feeling of belonging to the organisation, they are more productive, they are innovative and vital to the company's success. Employees who work for the required amount of time but do not devote enough enthusiasm or passion to their jobs are not engaged. These personnel essentially sleepwalk through the day and are unlikely to make significant contributions to their employers' future success. Furthermore, workers who are dissatisfied at work as well as openly exhibit their dissatisfaction during their work hours are considered actively disengaged. These individuals have a tendency to criticise what their more engaged coworkers do at work, and they may be a contributing factor in their companies' failures (Gallup, 2006).

The multi-dimensional approach is the fourth method. This method is similar to that used by Saks (2006) to investigate the determinants and effects of employee engagement. Similar to Kahn's (1990) concept, Employee engagement, according to Saks (2006), is "a unique concept made up of mental, emotive, and information on all

aspects linked to personal leadership behaviours" (p. 602). Saks (2006) looked at employee engagement and discovered two distinct types: work engagement and work obligation. Although these two sides are closely related, they appear to be separate, with separate causes and effects (Saks, 2006). Despite its attraction, the method of dividing employee engagement into job and organisational engagement is less commonly used in current academic literature (Schaufeli, 2013).

In Rothbard's enrichment or depletion method, the fifth approach is recognised (2001). The attention paid to and absorption in work is defined as engagement at work in this study. The duration or quantity of time spent thinking about work, which includes both focus of attention and mental preoccupation with work, is referred to as attention at work. The concentration of personal emphasis on a role, such that one is engaged in the part, is referred to as absorption (p.12). Employees' pleasant feelings from home may contribute to their engagement at work, and vice versa, in this strategy. In this study, the trait, state, and behavioural approaches were used to define employee engagement. Employee engagement, Macey and Schneider (2008) assumed that it is "discretionary effort", Successful "instead of maintaining power, concentrate on starting or transforming in the concept to do something much more and better" (p.24).

There are three sorts of engagement, Macey and Schneider's theory: trait engagement, state engagement, and behavioural engagement. The employee's disposition to have a general trend of positive views of work and life is linked to trait engagement. Trait engagement is defined by active character, behavior, attribute optimistic touch, as well as thoroughness. An employee's formal commitment is when they are energised and absorbed in their task. The major dimensions of state engagement are satisfaction, empowerment, commitment, and involvement. When an

engaged employee exhibits immediately observable in role or extra role behaviours at work, this is referred to as behavioural engagement.

The ideas shown above are just a few of the many definitions of employee engagement that have been proposed in the literature. While these techniques do not cover all of the definitions of employee involvement in the literature, they do establish a range within which the bulk of definitions lie. These distinctions and their consequences can be summarised as follows:

First, the nature of employee engagement varies depending on the methodology; for example, Kahn (1990), stated that worker engagement is linked to the performance of specific behaviours at work. People who are personally engaged bring in behaviours to their character plays. This would imply that employees should not be considered engaged if they are not demonstrating particular behaviours at work. Employee engagement is referred to as a state rather than a behaviour in the burnout approaches. It is an optimistic state of awareness at work, according to Schaufeli et al. (2002). This suggests that being engaged is more about having a happy mental state while working than it is about employees displaying observable behaviours. Because of these variations, an employee may be regarded as engaged while utilising Kahn's (1990) theoretical approach but not engaged when using the burnout method, and vice versa.

Furthermore, whereas the trait, state, and behavioural model appears to give a conceptual space for all of the various approaches to employee engagement, this method transforms involvement into a catch-all term for whatever someone desires this to be (Schaufeli, 2013). State engagement is a redundant construct due to the inclusion of other recognised constructs like as satisfaction and commitment (Joseph, Newman, & Hulin, 2010; Newman & Harrison, 2008). The difficulties that plague the

trait, state, and behavioural approaches to employee engagement also apply to the engagement-satisfaction approach, which reduces engagement's uniqueness as a construct by limiting it to well-established constructs of satisfaction and involvement.

Second, while disengagement is the polar opposite of personal engagement in Kahn (1990), it is not the same in the burnout approach, and there is a distinction even within the burnout approach's several schools of thought. While Maslach et al. (2001) assertion that employee engagement is the polar opposite of stress, Schaufeli et al. (2002) disagree, citing new research that suggests analysing constructs like boredom as the probable polar opposite of employee engagement (Schaufeli, 2013). Employees who are not engaged are classified as non-engaged or actively disengaged in the satisfaction-engagement method. This demonstrates that the spectrum of interaction varies depending on the method chosen. As a result, the criteria chosen could affect how a researcher measures employee engagement (Schaufeli, 2013)

Despite their differences, one thing both systems have in common is the closeness and overlap of their definitions. These intersections tend to provide a more fundamental understanding of the employee engagement construct. Employee engagement is a construct made up of numerous components, according to one of the initial prevalent viewpoints among these approaches. For example, Kahn (1990) claims that engagement necessitates an worker's corporeal, emotive, and intellectual presence, a claim backed up by Saks (2006); Schaufeli et al. (2002) defines vigour, dedication, and absorption as three parts of the employee; and Rothbard (2001) operationalizes engagement by identifying attention and absorption as the main components. These factors seem to indicate that engaged individuals put in more effort and pay more attention to their jobs. Employee involvement is a common feature of various systems, and it benefits the employee.

In Schaufeli et al. (2002), it is not only characterised as a positive state of mind, but it is also regarded as the polar opposite of burnout, which is a bad aspect of an employee's work (Maslach et al., 2001). It is also the aspect of the self that employees choose to express (Kahn, 1990), and it comprises employees feeling good while working (Rothbard, 2001). Employees must be satisfied (Harter et al., 2002) and exhibit positive work behaviours (Macey & Schneider 2008). Employees that are engaged have a lot of energy, are mentally tough, and have a positive attitude at work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018).

We can identify the most significant parts of what it means to be engaged because of the commonalities between the various approaches to employee engagement. As a result, engagement entails having pleasant emotions and a clear mind, both of which can influence positive behaviour in the workplace. Researchers can examine the advantages and shortcomings of various theoretical frameworks that aim to explain the mechanisms involved in the employee engagement process by understanding the core principles of what constitutes employee engagement.

2.4 Theoretical Frameworks and Measures of Employee Engagement

In academic study, there are numerous different approaches to employee engagement. These techniques define how employee engagement is operationalized, revealing the mechanism that leads to employees becoming involved and the outcomes of that engagement. The following are the ones that tend to be most frequently mentioned in academic studies;

2.4.1 The needs-satisfaction approach

The needs satisfaction method tries to understand the psychological circumstances that lead to employee engagement. William Kahn interviewed 16 counsellors at a seasonal camp and 16 employees at a planning business for his

ethnographic study, and he discovered three psychological variables that are required for employees to express their preferred selves in their jobs (Kahn, 1990). Significance, protection, as well as accessibility are the three situations (Albrecht et al., 2015).

A wisdom of reappearance on asset that an individual receives for engaging cognitively, emotionally, and physically in their responsibilities is referred to as meaningfulness (Kahn, 1990). A sense of ownership of a job is linked to meaningfulness. As a result, professions with demanding tasks, specified goals, and some degree of autonomy can be deemed to be meaningful (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Beyond job qualities, the type of employee interactions with others is critical for employees to find purpose in their work (Kahn, 1990).

The degree to which people are willing to express themselves in relation to the outcomes or repercussions of their actions is referred to as safety (Kahn, 1990). These ramifications have an impact on matters such as self-esteem, social standing, and career. Relational associations, group and intergroup changing aspects, leadership style as well as processes, organisational standards all influence protection. If a helpful environment is provided, an organisation can make employees feel comfortable. The less afraid an individual feels, the more likely they are to express their preferred self, which includes being involved in their employment tasks (Kahn, 1990). This means that when it comes to getting employees motivated at work, organisational support is critical.

Availability refers to a person's physical, emotional, or psychological resources at any one time. Personal participation necessitates the use of these resources. To get engaged, the employee must have the strength and readiness to participate in an activity, as well as a particular emotional connection or appropriate

emotions in the task (Kahn, 1990). Employees must also feel comfortable in their positions and maintain a healthy work-life balance so that they do not waste emotional energy on negative ideas such as fear of losing their jobs or failing to meet family commitments. Employees were more motivated to express themselves in their responsibilities and became more connected with their jobs as a result of these tools, which helped them focus on the positives at work.

Because this was the first study of its sort, Kahn admitted that some of the psychological requirements for personal connection were underdeveloped, and that more research was needed to test his suggested model. It is said that well-designed job qualities (for meaningfulness), organisational support (for safety), and personal resources (for availability) can all help to create engagement.

2.4.1.1 Empirical evidence and measures from the needs-satisfaction approach

May et al. (2004) evaluated the psychological requirements for involvement proposed by William Kahn more than a decade after Kahn (1990). May et al. (2004) examined data from 213 employees of a large insurance firm in the Midwest United States using a measure they dubbed "psychological engagement scale," and discovered that psychosomatic significance or safety were completely linked to staff engagement. Job enrichment and job role fit were favourably associated with psychological meaning, but supportive supervisor and rewarding coworker relationships were positively associated with psychological safety, whereas commitment to organisational rules was negatively associated with safety. Outside activities were inversely connected to availability, while resources were favourably related (May et al., 2004).

Richman et al. (2008) used the needs satisfaction approach to investigate the causes of employee engagement. They collected data from 245 firemen and

constructed their own "work engagement" rating. Value similarity, supposed organisational maintenance, and core self-evaluation were identified as three experiences of engagement, as were two work performance outcomes, Performance on the job and organisational citizenship. Furthermore, the study discovered a substantial indirect association between the stated antecedents and each of the potential outcomes through involvement. These results emerged from a model that includes job involvement, job satisfaction, and extrinsic enthusiasm as peacekeepers (Richman et al., 2010).

Both studies show that job characteristics (e.g. job satisfaction, work role fit), organisational support (e.g. perceived organisational support, rewarding coworkers, and supportive supervisor), and personal resources (e.g. core self evaluation) are all important factors in promoting employee engagement.

2.4.1.2 Critical reflection of the needs-satisfaction approach

The needs-satisfaction approach has made a big impact to employee engagement literature, owing to the fact that it was Kahn (1990) who first proposed the concept. Because Kahn's (1990) was the first study of its kind, it had limited literature to work with, and as a result, there are various problems with the current study.

To begin with, the notion of personal involvement emphasises on expressing one's "preferred self," which is mirrored in one's professional behaviours. Thus, Kahn (1990) emphasises the idea that engagement is intertwined with conduct, and that one is not engaged if they do not act in a certain way. This is to suggest that being involved and acting out specific behaviours are not mutually exclusive. This makes it difficult to distinguish employee engagement from other well-established behavioural notions like in-role behaviour or corporate citizenship behaviour, reducing employee

engagement's conceptual clarity (Soane et al., 2012). As a result of this approach, the claim that employee engagement is "an old bottle of wine in a new one" might be made (Newman & Harrison, 2008; Saks, 2008).

Second, the premise that employee engagement entails bringing particular behaviours to work and disengagement entails individuals removing these behaviours argues that all employees can be classified as either engaged or disengaged at work. This makes it harder to analyse differences in engagement levels. This is troublesome in the real world, where even among the most active employees, there are those who appear to be putting in more effort than others, and similarly, among the least energetic employees, there are those who may be identified as putting the least effort in a task. Furthermore, while the "preferred self" implies that employees are happy, some persons with bad emotions may exhibit behaviours that are comparable to those who are joyful. This technique makes it possible for anyone to be considered engaged if they exhibit specified behaviours. As a result, genuine good sensations are less important for determining whether or not an employee is engaged.

Third, as previously said, Kahn's (1990) model of involvement left key dimensions undeveloped. As a result, many measuring scales (May et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010) have been established in an attempt to capture Kahn's concept of engagement. These scales have a tendency to disagree with the item used to gauge involvement. The psychological engagement scale item "I take work home to do" (May et al., 2004) has no equivalent in the job engagement scale (Soane et al., 2010). Similarly, the job engagement scale item "I feel energised at work" has no equivalent in the psychological engagement scale (May et al., 2004). The ability of a study's conclusions to be meaningfully compared is harmed by having variances of measures using a similar approach. Furthermore, certain items on the scales may be used to

assess other dimensions other than involvement. The psychological engagement scale's item "I take work home to do" (May et al., 2004) is identified as evaluating physical involvement, yet even a workaholic is likely to take work home when they are not engaged (Schaufeli, 2013).

2.4.2 The Affective Shift Model

This approach is designed to help people comprehend the dynamic nature of organisational commitment in their daily operations (Bledow, Schmitt, Frese, & Kühnel, 2011). Employee engagement levels have been shown to fluctuate throughout the day as employees go from task to task and face different occurrences (Fisher, 2002; Sonnentag, Dormann, & Demerouti, 2010). Bledow and his colleagues developed the emotional shift hypothesis in response to a lack of clarity about why involvement changes in this way (Bledow et al., 2011). The main assumption of the affective shift model is that both encouraging and damaging affects play a role in employee engagement through the self-regulation mechanism (Bledow et al., 2011). Individuals who are capable of self-regulation are capable of systematically regulating their thoughts, behaviours, and feelings toward a certain goal. This suggests that motivational tendencies might emerge as a result of an individual's own mechanical process of pushing toward a goal. Employee engagement is assumed to emerge from the affect shift paradigm's continuous interplay of subjective wellbeing. Employee engagement occurs when employees transition from a scenario in which they are experiencing negative affect to one in which they are experiencing encouraging affect (Bledow et al., 2011; Schaufeli, 2013).

2.4.2.1 The Role of "Affect" on Employee Engagement

Both Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli et al. (2002) claim that while performing a task, engagement is linked to the occurrence of positive work-related sensations like

enjoyment and enthusiasm. People receive positive affect signals, indicating that they should keep doing what they're doing since everything is OK. People prefer to set greater goals for tasks in this condition, expecting positive outcomes as a result of their participation (Bledow et al., 2011). Positive affects also aid in the initiation of goal-directed activity by expanding people's instantaneous thinking action repertoires, resulting in an hourly and global manner of information processing that enables people to become immersed in a systemic process (Bledow et al., 2011). To put it another way, positive affect promotes a mindset that promotes employee engagement.

Negative impacts, on the other hand, are significant in an individual's self-regulation function, even if they are not related with persons being energetic in their job or displaying high levels of dedication or even absorption in their tasks (Bledow et al., 2011). Negative emotions signal that something is wrong and that action is required to correct the issue. Negative affect, according to the control process, indicates that a person's rate of goal attainment is below their standard, and as a result, the person narrows their focus in pursuit of their goal, increasing effort investment in order to raise their rate of goal attainment and reach the required standard or beyond (Carver & Scheier, 1990). To put it another way, negative emotions cause people to go through a focused, step-by-step process of processing information, paying great close attention to detail and any inconsistencies in their surroundings. Individuals gain a realistic understanding of their position as a result of this, and they are more prepared to conduct goal-directed action, which is critical for being engaged in work duties. This suggests that negative effects have the potential to motivate employees to put in more effort, resulting in improved work engagement.

2.4.2.2 The Affective Shift and Engagement

As stated previously, Bledow et al. (2011) believe that negative affects will only result in employee involvement if a transition to positive affect occurs. An employee's work engagement will be poor if there is no subsequent good effect after the negative affect. If people transition from a negative to a positive affective state, the negative affect's motivational potential can be realised, leading to increased employee engagement. The "affective shift" is a temperamental pattern in which unpleasant affect is followed by happy feelings. When a high level of negative affect is followed by a high level of positive affect, the affective shift is greatest.

2.4.2.3 Empirical Evidence and Measures for the Affective Shift Model

Only Bledow and his colleagues appear to have put this model to the test (Schaufeli, 2013). In their study, they employed seven items from the UWES to assess employee engagement. The methodological strategy used in their study was experience sampling. A total of 55 people took part in the poll, with a mix of software developers and computer scientists. The following were put to the test in the study:

Better atmosphere reduced the link between bad mood in the morning and afternoon involvement, resulting in a better relationship when good outlook was high and a negatively related when good outlook was low, resulting in better relationship when positive mood was high as well as a negatively associated when good outlook was small, leads to a positive connection when good outlook was high and a negative association when good outlook was low. Positive emotions changes the negative mood-engagement relationship for people with low positive mood, making it more negative; positive affectivity changes the negative event-engagement relationship for people with low agreeableness, making it more negative; and positive affectivity

changes the positive event-engagement relationship for people with low positive mood, making it more positive.

The participants' affective experiences, feelings, and levels of participation were tracked over the course of two weeks. These tests were performed twice a day. They used affective events and encouraging and destructive emotions skilled in the hours leading up to the survey to forecast the number of persons who would fill out the survey just before it in order to evaluate the study hypotheses. In addition, the impact of an emotional change on engagement was studied by comparing adverse temperament and painful feelings in the dawn with great mindset and pleasurable experiences in the afternoon.

The findings appeared to support all of their theories save one. The findings did not care the theory that positive affectivity moderates the relationship between unpleasant occurrences and work engagement, such that those with low positive affectivity have a greater negative relationship. The order of adverse temperament tracked by good temperament was more engaging than a simple increase in happy mood in this study, which provided preliminary support for the occurrence of the emotional shift (Bledow et al., 2011).

2.4.2.4 Critical Reflection on the Affective Shift Model

The concept of unpleasant moods and events playing a part in boosting employee engagement appears to be at odds with the essence of engagement. Despite variances in how employee engagement has been conceptualised, the core premise has been that it is a good experience (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2002), and hence a major construct in the positive psychology movement. As a result, indicating that bad moods and unfavourable experiences have motivational characteristics that could lead

to employee engagement is a bit contentious, as the study's authors admit (Bledow et al., 2011).

Furthermore, when we consider the coping role that good emotions have in relation to negative emotions, the idea of a "affect shift" being greatest when an employee's experience of a large negative affect is followed by an experience of a high positive affect is called into question. The affective shift model, which is based on the B&B theory and supports the importance of positive affects to employee engagement, also argues that positive emotions have a coping function, which means that they tend to attenuate the harmful repercussions of fear and anxiety. It's reasonable to assume that having high levels of good affect right after having high levels of negative affect will result in a more neutral condition, rather than the optimal level of employee engagement recommended by this model. Furthermore, whereas negative emotions focus people's attention on specific action inclinations that are critical for survival, good emotions provide a larger range of activities that can help humans grow (Fredrickson, 1998).

By this viewpoint, the dynamic interaction of negative and positive emotions is more likely to generate confusion in an individual's activities than to increase their engagement at work. While the researcher agrees with the idea of worker engagement as work engagement and the use of the Utrecht work engagement scale (UWES) to assess employee engagement, as well as the use of the B&B theory to explain the ways in which positive emotions are important to employee engagement, the researcher does not agree with their propositions of inducing negative moods to garner employee engagement. As a result, it's difficult to concur with the model's basic premise that participation requires an affective shift. Furthermore, because the study is new, no other empirical evidence (particularly longitudinal) exists to support

a process in which negative affect is a key contribution to a happy mood of involvement.

2.4.3 The social exchange theory

The social exchange theory (SET) is a multi-disciplinary framework that explains how parties interact as transactions, Cropanzano & Mitchell, Social exchange theory: an interdisciplinary review, (2005). The social exchange theory combines fields including social psychology, sociology, economics, and anthropology, and it has become one of the most extensively utilised ideas in describing various workplace behaviours, Cropanzano & Mitchell, Social exchange theory: an interdisciplinary review (2005). Though the origins of social exchange theory may be traced back to the 1920s, three main studies are credited with the development of the theory: Homans (1958), Thibault and Kelley (1959), and Blau (1964). Because the social exchange theory is used to explain many organisational relationships, particularly between employees and their employers, it has the ability to explain why employees in the same workplace have diverse levels of involvement (Saks, 2006). Psychological indebtedness and reciprocity rules are highlighted as important factors in the social transactions between the persons involved (Emerson, 1976; Greenberg, 1980).

2.4.3.1 Indebtedness

Individuals (recipients) who obtain benefits from someone else (donor) will experience a psychological state of indebtedness, according to Greenberg (1980). These advantages refer to a positive outcome with a monetary worth. Indebtedness, he defined, is a state of duty (on the part of the receiver) to repay another (the donor). The size of one's debt is determined by the following factors: For starters, the donor's intentions have an impact on the recipient's sense of obligation to repay the giver. When the recipient believes that the donor is assisting them in their own self-interest,

they feel less obligated to repay the donor for the benefits received. If the recipient believes that the value delivered to them was a selfless (altruistic) act on the part of the donor, the recipient is more likely to feel obligated to return the donor (Greenberg, 1980).

Second, the recipients give weights to the benefits they obtain in the trade (reward minus cost), which has an impact on their debt. As a result, the advantages acquired are based on the recipient's perceived need as well as the recipient's perception of the donor's perceived need. The stronger the perceived need for the resource delivered, the higher the value of the reward when received, and the higher the cost of returning or paying back the reward. Third, the recipient's belief in what prompted the donor to reward them plays a role in their indebtedness. The level of indebtedness is greater when the recipient believes that the award was totally due to their asking or pleading to the provider. When the giver takes the initiative, the magnitude diminishes, and it is the smallest when other circumstances in the environment cause the donor to reward the recipient. As a result, those acts of kindness that are unintended, happenstance, or result from a requirement imposed by others are the least likely to cause sentiments of indebtedness (Greenberg, 1980, p.9).

Fourth, the degree of indebtedness may be influenced by the level of unclear indications from witnesses of a donor's act of offering reward to the recipient. The recipient will respond by weighing the opinions of the witnesses (including the donor). The recipient's sense of indebtedness may be influenced by the verbal and nonverbal clues given during the helpful event. In a company, for example, an employee who is rewarded by the company's management in front of other coworkers would assign their level of indebtedness to the company based on the cues from the witnesses (Greenberg, 1980).

2.4.3.2 Norms of Reciprocity

These are the rules that members of a society agree to govern how transactions or exchanges are carried out. These common sets of rules emphasise that when one person does something nice for another, the other is bound to do the same thing in the future (Gouldner, 1960). One of the key norms of the social exchange theory, according to Emerson (1976, p.351), is that friendships develop into trusting, loyal, and reciprocal commitments over time. Parties must, however, follow specific "trade rules" in order to do so. The "standard description of a scenario that emerges between or is embraced by the participants in an exchange relationship" is formed by trade rules (Cropanzana & Mitchell, 2005). As a result, in an organisational environment, the rules of exchange are crucial. The SET theory's norm of reciprocity has been a critical component in explaining the interactions in the organisation. Reciprocity can have three different forms.

First, those transactions that necessitate the simultaneous participation of at least two persons. Interdependent exchanges are what they're called. A social transaction necessitates the mutual reliance of the two people engaged in order to achieve the intended result (Cropanzana & Mitchell, 2005). This means that when the outcomes of a particular contact are wholly dependent on one individual's efforts (either his own or the efforts of the other), social exchange has not occurred. In the same way, social exchange in the workplace is not a one-way street. Both the employee and the employer must participate in the conversation (Saks, 2006). If a company provides benefits to an employee but the employee does nothing to repay the benefits, social exchange has not occurred, and vice versa. In the majority of circumstances, this is the greatest mutual kind of social exchange that happens in the workplace amongst the employer and the employee. When one side does not believe

there is fair exchange, they will lower the amount of exchange content they supply or eventually quit participating in the exchange process entirely.

Second, those types of reciprocity that place a strong emphasis on "karma." People believe that everyone gets what they deserve in this scenario (Gouldner, 1960). Folk belief is the term for this. This kind of reciprocity necessitates a certain level of stability in the way actions and reactions occur throughout time. Those who are kind, helpful, and compassionate to others will be rewarded with similar actions in the future, and the opposite is true for those who are not. In a way, they entail thinking that the cosmos will reward those who are deserving and punish those who are deserving based on previous deeds. This form of reciprocity is desired in organisations because it can promote harmony and conflict reduction, if not eradication, among the organization's members (Cropanzana & Mitchell, 2005).

Third, there are reciprocal interactions that follow norms or principles that outline the benchmarked activities that should be followed. As a result, adhering to the rules necessitates reciprocal behaviour. Gouldner (1960) proposed that reciprocity norms are universal. This means they can be used in any country or work environment. This view of exchange, referred to as the ought to kind of transaction or the moral standard, differs from that of folk beliefs. The optimum manner of behaving has already been established, and it should be followed. However, as Cropanzana and Mitchell (2005) point out, universality does not imply that there are no cultural differences that could lead to variances in the value or importance of the reciprocity norm.

2.4.3.3 Critical Reflection of the Social Exchange Theory

The social exchange hypothesis has a lot of potential when it comes to understanding multiple interactions in a company. The employee-employer

interaction mechanisms may explain why some employees engage in certain behaviours while others do not. For example, an employee who receives assistance from their employer in the form of training may return their employer by assisting others in learning new techniques or simply working harder to show their gratitude for the opportunity. Whereas this theory gives a logical sequence of events in a kind of exchange connection, Saks (2006)'s application to employee engagement highlights numerous major areas of concern to the current research. To begin, the strategy is based on the notion that employee engagement is a behaviour. According to Saks (2006), when businesses provide assets to staffs, the staffs feel appreciative to return the company by increasing behaviours that indicate their worker engagement. Worker engagement is difficult to identify from other organisational behavioural characteristics because of this perspective. Employees that participate in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) or role behaviour are naturally engaged. If this is the case, it makes more sense to research OCB and other behavioural constructs rather than analysing employee engagement as a construct. Saks' (2006) approach to employee engagement, in other words, obfuscates the concept of employee engagement (Soane et al., 2012).

Secondly, this strategy implies that employee involvement isn't always a positive experience for workers. Employees may work harder not because they want to, but because of the psychological burden that comes with a sense of indebtedness, according to social exchange theory. Employees may display particular behaviours not because they want to, but because they feel obligated to, in order to lessen their debt to their company. As a result, employees compensating their business with more efforts as a result of indebtedness may not reflect a happy experience, but rather a means of coping with the stressful features of being obligated (Greenberg et al., 1974;

Gross & Latane, 2018; Munir & Weinstein, 1992 in Greenberg, 1980). In this circumstance, considering employee engagement as a solely positive experience for employees becomes more difficult.

Third, as noted in the multi-dimensional approach to defining employee engagement, there is limited evidence for this method, with the purported links being quite weak (Schaufeli, 2013). As a result, further work needs to be done with the variables proposed in Saks (2006). Saks (2006) also admitted that the cross-sectional nature of his research limited his findings. Other studies (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Yalabik et al., 2015) used a longitudinal method to reassess the direction of causality between employee engagement and some variables (i.e. work satisfaction and affective commitment). Employee involvement at Time 2 was predicted by both work satisfaction and emotional commitment at Time 1. Job satisfaction and emotional commitment at Time 1 both predicted employee engagement at Time 2, according to Yalabik et al. (2013). According to their research, these job attitudes are antecedents of employee engagement.

2.4.3.4 Empirical Evidence and Measures for the Social Exchange Theory

Saks (2006) is a well-referenced study on employee engagement based on the social exchange theory. Saks utilised the social exchange theory to provide a theoretical explanation for the supposed origins and effects of employee engagement (Saks, 2006). According to social exchange theory, According to Saks (2006), the amount of intellectual, the amount of psychological and physical skills that an employee is willing to dedicate to their professional tasks is dictated by the organizations economic and emotional development benefits. As a result, employee engagement becomes a way for employees to express gratitude to their employers for the resources they provide. The more resources a company provides its employees,

the more they feel bound to repay it by increasing their involvement levels (Saks, 2006). It also indicates that if an organisation fails provide the assets, its employees are more inclined to withdrawal from their professional responsibilities, which can result in negative repercussions such as burnout (Maslach et al., 2001).

Employees can be involved in their occupations and organisations, as the multi-sided method suggests. Saks (2006) looked into whether job and organisational engagement was influenced by POS (perceived organisational support), POS (purpose of administration help), and natural justice, refers to the fairness, and job attributes are all factors to consider. He also looked at whether these two sorts of interactions resulted in positive outcomes including turnover intentions, organisational citizenship, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. He discovered that job features and procedural justice predicted job engagement, while perceived organisational support and job characteristics predicted organisational engagement. He also discovered that work engagement foreseen job fulfilment and negatively predicted intentions to quit, but organisational engagement predicted both job satisfaction and organisational nationality attitudes and negatively predicted intentions to quit. Furthermore, job and organisational involvement were discovered to moderately facilitate the association among their processes as well as consequences.

Alfes et al. (2013) used the social exchange theory as the hypothetical approach to construct the foundation of the hypothesised relations in a study comprising 297 employees of a service sector organisation. They claimed that enacting favourable behavioural outcomes in the workplace through employee engagement was heavily influenced by the overall organisational climate and the employee's connection with their line administrator (Alfes et al., 2013). Employees' perceptions of organisational support, as well as their relationship with their

supervisor, were found to modulate the correlations between engagement and organisational, or engagement and throughput purpose, according to the study (Alfes et al., 2013). This suggests that involved staffs who manipulated maintained by their organisation and had a positive relationship with their supervisors displayed greater residency behaviour and had a lower desire to quit. However, as previously stated, whether a variable in a study is a moderator or mediator is dependent on the specific hypothesis that the researcher pursues (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

2.4.4 Resource Based Approaches

There are two theoretical frameworks that are closely related and have built on each other. The Job Demands Resources (JD-R) model, which is based on the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, is the most often used theoretical framework for employee engagement research. The following is a discussion of resource-centered methods to employee engagement;

2.4.4.1 The Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory

Individuals attempt to conserve, protect, and build assets, as said by the conservation of resources (COR) hypothesis, and the possible or real damage of these important assets is perceived as a threat (Hobfoll, 1989). According to the concept of resources, " elements which are either highly regarded in and of itself or serve as a vehicle to achieve generally desired objectives." (Hobfoll, 2002). Sources can be physical objects (such as a home, food, or tools), situations (such as the degree of control one has over a job, work experience, or social support), personal qualities (such as self-efficacy beliefs and actual professional skills), or energies (e.g. time, knowledge or money one possesses). People attempt to acquire and preserve these four types of resources in order to successfully adapt to their surroundings (Hobfoll, 2002). When a person is threatened with losing a resource, loses a resource, or

consumes a resource and is unable to restore it, they experience stress (Hobfoll, 2011).

Individuals' motivation for certain behaviours is hampered by stress. The theory assumes that resources are allocated to i) reduce stress and ii) prevent undesirable outcomes from occurring. When an employee, for example, asks for and receives help from a coworker to complete a task, they have used social support (i.e. a resource) to mitigate the impacts of a stressful circumstance (i.e. work overload) (Salanova, Schaufeli, Xanthopoulou, & Bakker, 2010). ii) To avoid future resource depletion, restore available resources, and create new customers. When an employee gains new skills and competences, for example, their employability improves and their risk of being dismissed decreases. This ensures that their future resources (i.e. income) are not squandered. Furthermore, their improved skills may lead to a promotion or perhaps a better job offer, all of which may be linked to higher compensation or better working conditions, representing resource benefits.

The acquisition and facilitation of resources is fundamental to employee motivation, according to the COR theory, because resources can initiate and maintain people's behaviour (Hobfoll, 2002). This implies that resources have the ability to spark employee engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Several study on employee engagement have used this theory to explain the psychological processes that lead to employee engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). One of the advantages of using the COR theory in the organisational context, according to Hobfoll et al. (2018), is the capacity to examine numerous elements in organisations from a larger perspective. In other words, although other theoretical frameworks may be unable to illuminate the association amongst resources and other organisational characteristics such as stress

or employee engagement, the COR theory is very likely to do so. The COR theory has a significant impact on the JD-R model.

2.4.4.2 The job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model

The JD-R model is a heuristic model that describes how job demands, job resources, and personal resources can all contribute to employee well-being (Schaufeli, 2013). Employee engagement is viewed as the total contradictory of tension in this concept, which has been frequently applied in employee satisfaction research, particularly those on organisational commitment (Schaufeli, 2013). The concept assumes that certain sorts of job demands, as well as job and personal resources, have the ability to increase staff morale.

The working conditions of a job that provides resources to an individual employee are referred to as work incomes. Job resources are characteristics of the job that i) help people accomplish work aims, (ii) enhance self improvement, knowledge, and growth, or (iii) lessen work pressure and associated physiological and behavioral expenses (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Personal resources, instead, refer to the qualities of one's self that are linked to resilience, as well as the ability to regulate and change one's environment successfully. Personal resources were not originally involved in the JD-R model, but with most psychological techniques thinking that the interaction between personal and environmental elements is critical in human behaviour, it became clear that they had to be included (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Personal resources, such as job resources, help people achieve their professional goals while also encouraging individual development and growth (Van-den Broeck et al., 2010). According to the JD-R model, resources energise people, inspire perseverance, and keep them focused on their goals (Schaufeli, 2013). This means that resources boost employee involvement in terms of vigour (energy), commitment (persistency),

and absorption (attention) (Schaufeli, 2013). Furthermore, the JD-R model posits that employee involvement leads to a variety of good outcomes, including improved work performance and overall employee happiness. The motivating process is the process by which resources contribute to employee engagement, and employee engagement, in turn, leads to favourable outcomes (Demerouti & Sanz-Vergel, 2014).

Another facet of the JD-R model is the impact that job demands have on employee well-being. Job demands are the working conditions that represent the traits or features of the job that have the probable to put people under stress if they are at a level that they are unable to adjust to or accommodate while on the job (Schaufeli, 2013). These job demands can be administrative, psychological, or psychological characteristics of the job that force the worker to exert prolonged (physical and/or psychological) effort and, as a result, are linked to physical and/or psychological consequences such as fatigue.

Job demands contribute to a negative process known as health deficiency, which has been related to poor outcomes such as burnout. When job expectations (such as heavy workload, time constraints, conflicting roles, and bureaucracy) are high, employees must go above and beyond to guarantee that performance does not suffer. This extra effort comes at a cost, both physically and psychologically, in the form of exhaustion or anger (Schaufeli, 2013). When resources are insufficient to meet these demands, employees become gradually exhausted and finally burn out. Burnout can lead to depression, cardiovascular disease, and psychosomatic symptoms, among other serious consequences. According to the JD-R paradigm, some work demands can only play a part in the motivational process if they are stimulating. This means that some job demands are linked to employee engagement in a favourable

way (Crawford, et al., 2010). Accordingly, job expectations can be separated into two groups: job challenges and job impediments (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2015).

Job challenges are those duties that are both energy draining and stimulating. While these demands certainly necessitate energy, they also provide the opportunity for good benefits in terms of the employee's curiosity, competence, and thoroughness, all of which can aid in the achievement of work objectives (Van-den Broeck et al., 2010). Workload, time pressure, and cognitive demands are examples of job challenges that deplete employees' energy while also motivating them to put in more effort at work in order to achieve their goals and meet their needs. Job annoyances, on the other hand, are those expectations that are perceived as threatening hurdles that sap employees' vitality and, as a result, generate negative emotions in people who are exposed to them. These unpleasant feelings have a negative impact on the employee's ability to attain his or her goals as well as their overall well-being. The JD-R model further states that resources assist employees in coping with difficult job demands and are particularly important when work anxieties are higher (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

2.4.4.2.1 Empirical Evidence and Measures for the JD-R model

The JD-R model (Saks & Gruman, 2014; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014) is a prominent theoretical model in employee engagement research, particularly when job satisfaction is described as a happy, fulfilled psychological state characterised by vitality, devotion, and absorption (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli, 2013). There is a lot of empirical provision for the motivational and impaired procedures in the JD-R model in this example (Schaufeli, 2013). The following is a review of the JD-R model's cross-sectional and longitudinal empirical findings.

There is a lot of cross-sectional suggestion that cares the JD-R paradigm, especially from early research on employee engagement (Schaufeli, 2013). Furthermore, research like Rothmann and Jordaan (2006) among South African academics and Rensburg, Boonzaier, and Boonzaier (2013) among South African contact centre workers provide more proof of the JD-R model across countries and cultures. While cross-sectional research corroborate the JD-R paradigm, there is little data on the joint influence of resources and demands (Schaufeli, 2013).

While cross-sectional evidence can help you comprehend the direction of a causal relationship, inferring causality isn't enough (Field, 2005). When it comes to determining causality, however, longitudinal studies are highly respected (Van der Laan & Robins, 2003). Several longitudinal investigations show that the JD-R model's assumptions are valid in real life (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Hakanen et al. (2008) discovered that current job skills affected subsequent work engagement in a three-year follow-up research among Finland dentistry. As a result of this future work involvement, the organization's commitment was projected. Among the same study, they discovered that job demands predicted burnout over time, and that burnout predicted future sadness in dentists. Schaufeli, Bakker, and Van Rhenen (2009) Over the course of a year, an increase in job resources was developed to assess employee engagement, whereas an growth in employment requirements and a decrease in job resources predicted burnout among Dutch managers. According to the study, burnout predicted future departure time, although job involvement suggested future absent frequency. Accordingly, the length and frequency of future absences are indicators of health worsening and motivational processes (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Boyd and colleagues reported a one-year follow-up research including Australian university workers in 2011. Job resources were found to be a good

predictor of organisational resources and a negative predictor of psychological strain. Unlike earlier studies, this one found no evidence of a link between job demands and psychological stress (Boyd, et al., 2011). Over the course of an 18-month study, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) discovered that Job resources such as control, supervisor support, feedback, and possibilities for advancement, as well as Work engagement such as control, supervisor support, feedback, and possibilities for advancement, as well as personal resources such as self-esteem, confidence, and organization-based self-esteem, all indicated subsequent level of employee engagement. These findings back up the theory that combining work and personal resources leads to employee engagement via the motivating process.

2.4.4.2.2 Measuring Work Engagement

The UWES has been broadly used in studies that examined work engagement using the job-demand resources model as a theoretical approach (Saks & Gruman, 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2006). The questionnaire asks questions about energy, dedication, and absorption, which are the three elements of work involvement. While it was initially a 17-item scale, there are now 15-item and 9-item variants of the measure available (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Workplace involvement as evaluated by UWES has come under fire. Work engagement as judged by the UWES cannot be distinguished from stress as restrained by the Maslach Burnout Inventory, according to a meta-analysis by Cole, Walter, Bedeian, and O'Boyle (2012). (MBI). Furthermore, using semantic analysis, Nimon, Shuck, and Zigarmi (2016) suggest that the UWES is likely to be measuring job satisfaction, reinforcing the notion that work engagement is similar to other well-known categories such as job involvement, career progression, and organizational citizenship behavior (Wefald & Downey, 2019). Notwithstanding the critiques, a

number of studies (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Yalabik et al., 2013) have found that work engagement is a distinct concept that is negatively related to burnout, and while it is surely connected with job satisfaction and organisational commitment, it does not equate to it being (Schaufeli, 2013). The original 17-item and 9-item UWES measures produced identical results in terms of dimensionality, validity, and reliability, demonstrating their distinctiveness and usefulness for assessing work engagement (Alfes et al., 2013; Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006; Seppälä, et al., 2009).

2.4.4.2.3 Critical Reflection on Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model

The Utrecht work engagement measure has been used to test the job demands-resources (JD-R) paradigm several times (UWES). Work engagement refers to a positive condition of mental toughness, enthusiasm, and emotional attachment to one's job. Employee engagement, also known as work engagement, is not a behaviour in and of itself; rather, it is an outcome of an individual's engagement. This frame of mind tends to provide conceptual clarity between employee involvement and its possible outcomes (Soane et al., 2012). The framework of looking at the factors that lead to an individual experiencing the state of employee engagement and discussing whether positive intentions and behavioural outcomes can be achieved through employee engagement is a better fit for the study, which aims to look at the factors that lead to an individual experiencing the state of employee engagement and discusses whether positive intentions and behavioural outcomes can be achieved through employee engagement. While this is true, the JD-R model has numerous drawbacks in the context of the current investigation:

To begin with, the JD-R model is limited in its ability to explain a number of important interactions underlying employee engagement. While the model provides a solid theoretical foundation for the impact of resources on employee engagement,

explaining how employee engagement leads to behavioural it's tough to predict consequences like organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment. These results have been linked to employee engagement (Soane et al., 2012), but without the backing of another theory: the JD-R model is unable to provide a comprehensive explanation of the engagement process. Similarly to the causal direction of the association between employee engagement and affective job attitudes, the model does not provide a clear theoretical basis. This is shown in the JD-R model, where some writers incorporate job satisfaction and organisational commitment as outcomes of employee engagement (Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2014), while others incorporate them as precursors (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Yalabik et al. 2013).

Despite its flaws, the JD-R model remains an excellent starting point for the framework of this research. One of the reasons for this theoretical framework's popularity, according to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), is its versatility. The JD-R model can be used with other theories to provide a logical explanation for diverse employee engagement links. Several research have attempted to explain the processes involved in employee engagement using the JD-R model in conjunction with another hypothesis. Saks and Gruman (2014), for example, combined the JD-R model with Kahn's (1990) needs-satisfaction approach to create a new model that they believe better explains the employee engagement process. Bakker and Demerouti (2008), for example, used the broaden-and-build (B&B) theory of positive emotions to explain why engaged employees perform more than their non-involved counterparts. Other research have employed the Conservation of Resources theory (COR) to explain the motivational potential of resources in the JD-R model (Salanova et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

In addition, the JD-R model has been updated to accommodate personal resources. Despite this, the JD-R model's redesign has left it unable to elucidate the association among employee engagement and other organisational resources such as organisational support, organisational justice, and rewards, which can all be explained using the COR theory. Furthermore, the JD-R does not fully explain the relationship between job attitudes and work engagement. This shows that incorporating the COR theory and incorporating the B&B theory into the JD-R model's motivating process is a critical component that can advance our conceptual understanding of employee involvement.

While the JD-R model's flexibility makes it appealing for integration with different theories, it's important to think about which theory is best for furthering our theoretical understanding and resolving critical problems in today's engagement literature. Integrating the needs-satisfaction method with the JD-R model, as proposed by Saks and Gruman (2014), appears to be an innovative strategy; nonetheless, it has hurdles in terms of operationalizing staff morale. These two approaches define employee engagement differently, as indicated in the literature review, and an integrated approach necessitates rejecting a crucial assumption of one model (whether engagement is a state or a behaviour). Similarly, while the COR theory is important, the JD-R model is essentially a continuation of it. This involves focusing on components of the COR theory that the JD-R model has overlooked, such as the availability and importance of organizational-based resources on engagement. Furthermore, the B&B theory of pleasant emotions appears to be a better fit for understanding other interactions that can't be explained by conceptual techniques (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). The link between employee engagement and behavioural outcomes, as well as the link between job attitudes and employee

engagement, are two examples. As a result, a deeper examination of the broaden-and-build hypothesis of positive emotions is required.

2.5 Antecedents to Employee Engagement

With the rise in popularity of employee engagement research, a comprehensive list of antecedents of employee engagement has emerged (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Despite the extensive list, these antecedents appear to fit into Kahn's (1990) psychological conditions of employee engagement and Maslach et al (2001). Six work life elements. The things identified in these ways, interestingly, fit within the job demands resources model. The key psychological conditions for employee engagement can be modified by job features (task significance, role, etc), organisational support (group dynamics, interpersonal interactions, rewards, etc.), and personal resources. (Self-belief and confidence as well as physical, emotional energies etc.). Job qualities include workload, control, incentives and acknowledgment, social and community supports, considered justice, and ethics (workload, control), organisational support (community, social support, and rewards), and organisational justice categories (perceived fairness). These many antecedents have been proven to be favourably connected with employee involvement in various academic research (Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006).

The antecedents listed above are part of the job demands-resources paradigm, which includes work-related antecedents as job resources and person-related premises as personal funds. Christian et al. (2011), who evaluated and concluded that work qualities, leadership, and dispositional factors are distal antecedents to employee engagement, support these antecedents. Other antecedents discovered in engagement studies include job satisfaction and employee engagement, in addition to these (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Yalabik et al., 2013), These support the claim in the sense

that, whereas engagement is a more active state, satisfaction reflects satiation, a passive construct, making it more likely for one to go from satiation to activation, i.e. from satisfaction to engagement (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014). While this appears to be rational, there is still a requirement for a concept to clarify the link between these job attitudes and employee engagement. According to other study on employee engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), sentiments like satisfaction and commitment are the result of employee engagement, proving the need. Broaden-and-build hypothesis of positive emotions, job satisfaction and affective commitment are antecedents of employee engagement. The JD-R model is used to observe the effects of job satisfaction, which is based on the COR theory.

2.5.1 Resources

Sources might come from the job itself (work resources) or from the individual's personality (personal resource). These resources include anything that can help an employee lessen workplace demands and the physiological and psychological expenses that come with them, as well as provide opportunities for learning and growth. When a work is created in such a way that a person is given duties that are appropriate for their skills and is also given clear instructions regarding the objectives to be met, the employee is more likely to believe that they can reach their objectives quickly and without feeling overwhelmed. The job qualities in this example are resourceful because they have lowered the psychological expenses connected with the job demands. Employees are more likely to work harder and not be concerned about being treated unfairly when it comes to being promoted for their achievements at work if they believe the company provides equal opportunity to everyone in areas such as career progression or other types of rewards. As a result, the presence of fairness or justice in the workplace might decrease otherwise avoidable mental stress.

Furthermore, when employees receive support from their employers, such as access to technologies that improve their capacity to work, they will have fewer physiological and psychological challenges with work activities and will be able to meet their goals faster. As a result, organisational fairness and support are also beneficial to employees. The examples of resources fall under the category of "job resources," as they are resources related to the job's situations. Personal resources are regarded as "personal resources" when personal elements within individual employees enable them to affect their circumstances and be successful in their work environment. "Personal factors" refers to the skills and abilities that people bring to their jobs that enable them to meet employment expectations and achieve their objectives. When employees are genuinely motivated to execute their jobs, they are more likely to achieve their goals because they are motivated by their own desire to succeed. Similarly, if someone believes they are capable of performing specific activities, they are more likely to influence their situation in order to achieve the greatest potential result. The features of a work, the support linked with the task, and the justice and incentives supplied in the company with respect to the job appear to be the most common types of employment resources to date (Rich et al., 2010).

Personal qualities, on the other hand, appear to be more narrowly defined. Personality, confidence, and consciousness dependent on the organisation have all been identified as personal resources in engagement research (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Schaufeli, 2013; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). A closer look at these personal resources reveals that they are intimately linked to Lawler and Hall's (1970) concept of internal motivation. Despite Hakanen et al. (2006) suggesting that more work be done in engagement research to assess the resourceful nature of intrinsic motivation, this has rarely been done, with intrinsic motivation only being

mentioned as a personal resource in Schaufeli and Taris' long list of personal resources (2014). The following is a thorough examination of the primary resources stated and inferred in the literature on job satisfaction.

2.5.1.1 Resourceful Nature job Design

"Job design," according to Torrington, Hall, Taylor, and Atkinson (2011), is "the act of mixing a variety of responsibilities, obligations, and accountabilities to construct a composite that someone can use in their work and favor as one of their personal." It is critical because it is not merely the cornerstone of personal happiness and professional performance, but it is also essential to do the work successfully, affordably, consistently, and effectively." There have been discussions about the ideal method to design a job since the advent of occupations, according to history (Truss, et al., 2014). To date, the behavioural approach to job design has been strongly associated with achieving the highest results from employees. The behavioural approach to job design was inspired by the human relations movement in the mid-twentieth century.

Individual motivational needs should be incorporated in the job design, according to this approach. These motivational demands could lead to positive organisational behaviour (Slack et al., 2013; Truss et al., 2014). One notable study was undertaken by Hackman and Oldham (1980), the creators of the job features model (JCM). Their JCM was built on the premise that a task is vital in and of itself for employee motivation (Hackman & Oldman, 1980). The model highlights the conditions that cause people to become internally motivated to do well at work. The interplay of three types of variables was the focus of the model:

- 1) Psychological states that must exist for internally motivated work behaviour to arise;

- 2) Job qualities that can cause these psychological states; and
- 3) Individual factors that impact a person's capabilities to react effectively to a challenging and tough work (Hackman & Oldman, 1980).

The model identified five employment qualities that are closely related to an employee's work environment and have motivational implications. Ability diversity, work personality, duty relevance, self-sufficiency, and opinion are some of the job qualities. Key psychological processes are affected by these characteristics: perceived relevance, knowledgeable accountability for consequences, and awareness of the actual consequences, all of which influence motivational components of a job such work engagement, absenteeism, and work engagement (Slack et al., 2013).

JCM model, various job characteristics have varying effects on the psychological experiences required for employee motivation. First, the experience of meaningfulness is dependent on a mix of I skill diversity, which relates to how much effort a work needs a worker to develop a variety of skills and talents through varied activities. Jobs that require a wide range of talents and abilities are more valuable to employees than jobs that are easy and repetitive. ii) Task concept relates to how much the job requires jobholders to identify and execute a work piece with an apparent endpoint. Workers find a work more fulfilling when they are a part of the complete activity instead of a small part of it, and ii) Task Importance, which relates to how much the job affects the lives of others. The impact can come from within the organisation or from outside. Employees are more engaged in a job that has a large impact on others' psychological or physical happiness than in a job that has a slight influence (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Second, for the perception of personal responsibility for job achievements, autonomy is essential. The degree to which a work permits an individual to have a lot

of flexibility is referred to as autonomy, independence, and choice in how they organise their work and how they carry it out. A job with a high amount of autonomy means that rather than the boss's or a manual's instructions, the output is defined by the individual's own efforts, initiatives, and decisions. In such instances, the employee should accept complete responsibility for the job's triumphs and failures. Finally, feedback is essential in order to comprehend the results. Feedback mentions to the degree to which completing the job's mandatory work duties outcomes in the individual receiving thru and vibrant data regarding the efficacy of his or her enactment.

2.5.1.2 Resourceful Nature of Organizational Support

According to the organisational support theory, employees get a general sense of just how much organisation values their people were concerned almost their happiness (OST) (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Supposed organisational sustenance is the term used to describe these feelings (POS). Employees make their decisions by assessing their businesses' preparedness to reward additional effort. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) discovered that perceived organisational support has a variety of antecedents and outcomes. Fairness, favourable organisational rewards, and job conditions such as training, autonomy, and supervisory assistance are among them. POS has also been found to have a weak association with demographics and personal qualities. According to Saks (2006), employees develop higher levels of psychological organisational support when they see that the organisation cares about their well-being, such as by giving them days off when they are having personal problems or providing frequent consultations on how they can improve other aspects of their lives. POS has also been linked to outcomes like as commitment, performance, citizenship behaviour, withdrawal behaviour,

work-related affect, and strain in studies (Riggle, Edmonson, & Hansen, 2000; Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012).

Various sorts of support serve as resources for employees at work, according to previous debates. When employees, for example, receive assistance from their coworkers or supervisors, they are improved capable to covenant with a variety of difficulties and are more likely to be motivated at work. Employees perceive an organisation as having a personality or human-like features, despite the fact that there are other routes of assistance (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

While an action taken by an organization's agent may be perceived by others as a sign of the organization's aim rather than the agents' personal motives, it is frequently attributed to the organization's intent by others (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Whereas studies have looked at a variety of social resources (colleague support, supervisory support), perceived organisational support can serve as a catch-all for numerous types of assistance in the workplace. Employee engagement is likely to be induced by the resourceful quality of perceived organisational assistance. Saks (2006), for example, discovered that perceived organisational support, rather than supervisory support, predicted both job and organisational engagement. People are more likely to feel a return on their involvement in their work if they believe their organisation cares about their well-being and supports their particular aspirations. This can lead to a sense of purpose at work, which is linked to experiencing happy feelings at work. Employees may develop the ardour, dedication, and absorption components of engagement as a result of this great experience.

While several research have looked into the relationship between social support and employee engagement, there have been fewer that have looked into the relationship between POS and work engagement. A recent study found that POS is

not only favourably connected with employee engagement, but also that POS moderates the association between employee engagement and turnover intentions and deviant behaviour toward a business (Shantz, Alfes, & Latham, 2016). Prior research has highlighted POS as a predictor of employee engagement, which the authors of this study recognise.

Furthermore, Alfes, Shantz, Truss, and Soane (2013) cite Baron and Kenny (1986) to defend the moderating influence of POS on employee engagement. Baron and Kenny (1986) indicate that a variable can be viewed as a mediator or a referee liable on the theoretic outline. This reasoning was intended to counter the more logical explanation that POS is a precursor to employee involvement. As is the case with many studies (Inoue, et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Saks & Gruman, 2018; Wang, Liu, Zou, Hao, & Wu, 2017), Organizational resources like as POS and organisational justice are antecedents to employee engagement, according to resource-based theories. As a result, the resource-based theories corroborate this study's perspective of POS as a predictor of employee engagement.

2.5.1.3 Resource Nature of Organizational Justice

Greenberg (1987) describes organizational justice as persons' perception and reaction to the fairness towards the organization. It reflects how a worker adjudicators the behaviour of the organization and the attitudes and behaviours of this employee resulting from their judgment. For example, the act of firing several employees in an organization may be perceived as an injustice by the remaining employees and could result in changes of their attitudes and a drop in their performance.

The concept of organizational justice stems from and uses organizational justice theories such as the equity theory (Adams, 1965), procedural justice theory (Thibault & Walker, 1975), justice judgment theory, allocation preference theory

(Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980) to offer explanations in a work setting (Greenberg, 1987). Out of these theories, the equity theory was originally tested in an organizational work setting, whereas others emanated from a legal perspective (Greenberg, 1987). In an organisation, justice and unfairness judgments are based on judgments among oneself and others based on inputs and outputs (Adam, 1965). What a person observes to offer (knowledge and effort) is referred to as inputs, whereas what a person perceives to gain beyond a discussion relationship (compensation and recognition) is referred to as outcomes (Adams, 1963). Internal (one's own self at a previous period) or outside (another person) comparison points might be used to evaluate these inputs and outcomes (other individuals).

Furthermore, decisions made in the name of justice are thought to be morally and ethically correct, and can be linked to religion, ethics, equity, and the law. In the workplace, concerns such as pay equity, equal opportunity for promotion, and staff selection processes may fall under the heading of justice or fairness (Tabibnia, Satpute, & Lieberman, 2008). In organizations, the sense of fairness is important to the morale and participation of the individuals to their work. Fairness conveys respect and validates people's worth. Mutual respect lies at the heart of a shared feeling of community (Maslach et al., 2001). Unfair treatment is emotionally draining and stressful, and it contributes to a profound feeling of cynicism about the workplace (Maslach et al., 2001). Because it describes the role of fairness in the workplace, organisational justice is intimately tied to it. It is particularly relevant to how employees determine whether or not they have been fairly treated (Moorman, 1991).

According to Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng (2001), in organisational settings, perceptions of fairness are primarily focused on the following decisions: I the fairness of the outcome allocation (distribution) and ii) the fairness of

the methods to determine the outcome allocation (distribution). Distributive justice (Leventhal, 1980) and procedural justice (Leventhal, 1980) are the two types of justice mentioned above. According to Elanain (2010), increasing organisational justice improves employee outcomes, therefore organisational managers use distributive and procedural justice to promote employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which will assist lower employee turnover intentions.

The perception of fairness in the compensation people receive for their labour in comparison to others in the same company is fundamental to distributive justice (Colquitt et al. 2001). Adam (1963; 1965) based his equity theory on earlier work by Homans (1961), who proved that people made comparisons between the outputs they got as a result of the inputs they contributed and the outcomes others got with the same inputs. Employees' inputs are the things they put into their jobs, and their outputs are the results of those efforts.

Adam (1963) argues that the equity theory can be used to explain a variety of employee behaviours resulting from unfairness perceptions. In this sense, the comparisons made by employees had an effect on how they reacted towards certain elements of their work. If the input-output ratios appear the same to the employee making these comparisons, then the individual feels a sense of equity. At the same time, however, when evaluations of employee performances or promotions are not handled properly, an employee may perceive lack of fairness from the organization (Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976). Fairness can therefore promote positive job attitudes and behaviour in organizations (Colquitt, Lupines, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012). This means that personal outcomes, such as the general job satisfaction or satisfaction with pay can be predicted by distributive integrity (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Wood & West, 2010). Regarding behaviour, organizational citizenship behavior

is lower in those who had higher levels of perceived unfairness (Karriker & Williams, 2009).

The sense of fairness in regard to the mechanisms that are used to distribute rewards, i.e. the equality of the procedures that bring about results, is referred to as procedural justice (Leventhal, 1980; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Initial studies of justice were centred along the realm of the allocation of outcomes, i.e. distributive justice, and not so much into the process involved. Thibaut and Walker (1975) coined the term procedural justice to describe a sequence of trainings on the impartiality of the decisionmaking process. They believed that methods were perceived as fair when disputants had process control, which meant that they could express their concerns and affect the particular outcome. By integrating components of resource allocation decisions in his definition of procedural justice, Leventhal (1980) broadened the concept of procedural justice. When individuals feel that they have in one way or another been given the opportunity to be involved in the process that determines what they are to receive for their input or rather that the process that leads to the outcomes received is consistent, ethical, accurate and free from bias, then the criterion of proceduralbias is met (Leventhal, 1980).

Kim and Mauborgne (1998) investigated procedural justice and how it influences people's emotions when strategic decisions are made. When employees believe administrative developments are rational, they display high levels of intended collaboration centered on commitment and trust. Employees who believe the company's methods are unfair, on the other hand, are more prone to question key decisions and refuse to work together. There are a few studies on distributive and procedural justice done as rather laboratory experiments. These studies include; Greenberg (1987). Greenberg (1987) conducted whenever individuals completed a

task, the distributive (pay level) and procedural (pay level decision) aspects of justice were changed. Low pay levels were only deemed fair if procedures were applied fairly, whereas high wages and salaries were considered fair regardless of rules (McFarlin & Sweeney, 2009).

Skarlicki and Folger (1997) recognised the fairness of a company's formal procedures as a type of procedural justice. According to McFarlin and Sweeney (1992), procedural justice in the workplace is linked to gauging the supervisor's confidence and commitment, and processes are more important than distributive fairness in projecting results. Folger and Konovsky (1989) determined that procedural justice strongly affects the attitudes towards an institution or authority rather than a specific outcome. All these studies suggest that employees who feel that the procedures involved in receiving their rewards is fair then they invest more inputs into their work.

While studies associated with justice have existed in the work setting context (Adam, 1963), to date there are few studies that have associated organizational justice with employee engagement (Crawford et al., 2013). Once an employee perceives that justice is prevalent in their organization, they are probable to feel nontoxic in their work environment and about the manner they will be treated in different situations. Thus, instead of feeling stressed while at work (because of injustice), they are probable to texture helpful about their work and their organization. These positive feelings have motivational potential. In other words, they could lead to higher employee engagement levels.

2.5.1.4 Resourceful Nature of Rewards

According to Woods and West (2010) rewards generally refer to anything that is given for the recognition of an achievement. It can also be defined as something

given or received in return for a service (Bowen, 2002). While it is a legal obligation for monetary rewards (pay) to be provided to the employee by the employer, reward entails more than money. One of the common distinctions of rewards is whether they are intrinsic or extrinsic. Extrinsic rewards refer to the concrete benefits acquired as a result of completing the job, whereas intrinsic rewards refer to the satisfaction that a person obtains from doing the job (Porter & Lawler, 1968). With these definitions, intrinsic rewards are more reflective of intrinsic motivation (which is discussed in the following section). When an employee does well and receives money for that performance, then they have been rewarded. They may also be promoted to a more senior position which may entail that the organization has recognised and rewarded the contribution that the employee has made to the organization. Thus, being promoted reflects both aspects of monetary or financial gains as well as nonmonetary elements of being recognized, respected by members in the organization (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Saks 2006). Maslach et al. (2001) identify rewards as an important resource in motivating people at work to be active and enthusiastic to their work. Accordingly, the importance of rewards in the work settings is alliterated in the effort-reward disproportion model (Siegrist, 2012).

This model claims that when an individual, such as an employee exerts effort at work, then the effort needs to be reciprocated by some form of reward, such as in the form of salary, esteem reward, and advancement views, job security of salary, esteem reward, and promotion prospects, job security and status regularity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The failure to offer these rewards can lead to employees becoming stressed and other negative consequences such as cardiovascular risks may occur. Since resources reduce the psychological stress associated with job demands, the ability of rewards to reduce stress qualifies a resource.

2.5.1.5 Resourceful Nature of Intrinsic Motivation

Experimental studies of the behaviour of animals were the first to observe that organisms could engage in lively or curiosity-driven behaviour in the absence of any reward or reinforcement (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The motives for such behaviours seemed to be based on the positive experiences associated with exercising and extending one's capacity (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Human beings have different motives for engaging in different behaviours, and one of these is doing an activity to knowledge the desire and gratification integral in the action (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989; Vallerand, 1997). This form of drive to act for the sake of the activity has been referred to as intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Van Yperen & Hagedoorn, 2003). Intrinsic motivation is described as "the practise of an action for its characteristic fulfillment rather than for any specific result." Whenever a someone is achievement oriented, he or she is motivated to perform by the joy or pleasure it brings, not by outside products, demands, or rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The essence of an individual to be drawn to act in a positive method for of the outcome of that behaviour makes intrinsic motivation different from internal motivation. Internal motivation is where one may convince oneself that when the work is hard, they are likely to achieve their dream. In this instance, there is an internal drive pushing towards an external outcome. Intrinsic motivation is when one works hard because they enjoy working hard without thinking or being driven by an external oriented drive (Babakus, Yavas, & Karatepe, 2008). In a work setting, intrinsic motivation reflects an employee's emotion of task or capability resultant from performing a job (Babakus, Yavas & Karatepe, 2008).

Employees who are intrinsically motivated seek happiness and self-expression in their work (Babakus et al. 2008, p. 390). In addition, as intrinsic

motivation is an aspect of the self that pushes one towards actions that enable them to achieve a certain goal, then intrinsic motivation qualifies as a personal resource (Babakus, Yavas & Karatepe, 2008). Several studies have investigated individual assets for example organizational based self-esteem, optimism and flexibility, and have found them to confidently relate to employee engagement. Intrinsic motivation, as assessed in Lawler and Hall (1970), reflects a variety of elements associated with these personal resources. This strengthens the argument of intrinsic motivation being included as a personal resource (Babakus et al., 2008). Along with multiple other items, intrinsic motivation was included in Schaufeli and Taris (2014) as one form of a personal resource.

2.5.2 Job Attitudes

Job attitudes are one of the oldest, influential and most studied constructs in organization studies (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, Job attitudes, 2012, p. 342). In general, Employment attitudes are assessments of one's job that represent one's sentiments, ideas, and commitment to that work. The definition of job attitudes shows that there are affective and cognitive components associated together. While architecturally separate, the feeling and thinking parts of the brain are inexplicably linked in operation (Adolphs & Damasio, 2001). In this sense, because cognition relies on emotive for input, cognitive and feelings are intertwined in people's psychosocial adjustment (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012) Job attitudes have been highly linked to positive behaviour in organizations. When employees possess positive attitudes at work, they are likely to act in behaviours that are reflective of their approval of the situation at work. As such, positive attitudes have been linked to organizational citizenship behavior, reduced absenteeism, reduced turnover intentions etc. job attitudes are also an integral part as antecedents to employee engagement. As

explained earlier, the main theoretical premise for their inclusion comes from the B&B theory of constructive feelings. The specific job attitudes included in the model are discussed below.

2.5.2.1 Job Satisfaction

Work engagement, like job happiness, has captivated the interest of psychologists and organisational behaviour experts (Cicolini et al., 2014). Because job happiness has been extensively studied since the 1970s, the focus of this research will be on job pleasure and the quality of teaching. This part begins with a description of the origins of job satisfaction, accompanied by studies on influences that add to job satisfaction. Expectations for job happiness and studies on teacher job satisfaction will round out this section.

Job satisfaction was established as a research topic thanks to the Hawthorne experiments. During the 1920s, Elton Mayo did this research in Chicago. Mayo was curious as to what motivated people to aspire to be extra dynamic at work. He determined that neither income nor the firm's employed environment, for example illumination and discontinuity periods, had a substantial impact on staff productivity. Rather, he showed that when the organization encourages contact with other people and makes employees feel appreciated, job happiness rises, productivity improvements (Reina-Tamayo, 2017).

Although various other theories exist, Locke's (1976) is probably the most generally recognised theoretical description of job satisfaction. According to Locke, "a pleasant or happy emotional state coming from a review of one's work or professional experience" (Locke, 1976). According to Locke's categorical imperatives, also known as Range of Alderfer's erg theory, workers are motivated with professions that they believe provide them with the characteristics they esteem.

An individual may be satisfied with their work setting if they value flexibility and their job allows them to make effort decisions without being observed. The discrepancies between a person's professional aspirations and the circumstances of that job are illuminated by Locke's argument. If there is a significant disparity, workers will be dissatisfied. Furthermore, by emphasising employee values and expectations, Locke's theory highlights the fact that not all employees are suited to all occupations. A career that corresponds with one's values might not be the best fit for another's.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman offer an alternative perspective on job satisfaction (1959). Several elements, organised into two categories—motivation and hygiene affect job satisfaction and discontent, according to this viewpoint. Herzberg's 1959 two-factor hypothesis has been the basis for numerous studies in organisational and human behaviour. In industrial and organisational psychology, job satisfaction is the most commonly studied work-related attitude (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Job satisfaction is a term that has been defined in a number of ways. Brief (1998) defines job satisfaction as "an inner state exhibited as agreement or disagreement of a job experience through emotive and/or cognitive judgments" (p. 86). This position is shared by other authors. Job satisfaction is viewed as a rating of how suitable a workplace is (Motowidlo, 1996).

It is the degree to which people enjoy or displease their jobs (Spector, 1997, p. 2), and hence an employee's positive attitude about his or her job (Arnold & Feldman, 1986). Job satisfaction is a measure of an employee's emotional well-being as a result of both how he or she feels about his or her job (affect) and how he or she thinks about the many aspects of his or her job (Weiss, 2002). According to Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller, there are different meanings of job satisfaction (2012), Work

satisfaction is the most commonly used phrase in management studies, defined by Locke (1976) as "a pleasant or positive psychological state coming from a review of one's career or job experiences." (p. 1304). As a result of an assessment of the work situation, job satisfaction refers to an individual's emotional response to a job (Mottaz, 1988). This emotion expresses pleasure and excitement for one's job. As a result, job satisfaction encompasses both cognitive (contentment) and affective (pleasant emotional) elements. Despite the idea that these components are distinct, Adolphs and Damasio (2001) demonstrate that the brain's thinking and feeling areas are intricately interwoven in their activity (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Emotions are used as an input at higher levels of cognition, meaning that cognition and emotion are interwoven in human psychosocial adjustment.

In work contexts, Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) observe that general or overall pleasure results from the process of appraising the many aspects of the job. Job satisfaction, according to Spector (1997), can reflect the whole job situation or be focused on specific aspects of a job, for example, job satisfaction can be defined as a collection of individual attitudes about various aspects of a job (Lee, 2012). Job satisfaction, in particular, is thought to reflect an employee's sentiments and ideas, and to evolve through cognitive and emotive responses to the job and its dimensions (Rich et al. 2010).

In an attempt to explain satisfaction, Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, (1959) developed Herzberg's two factor theory. Herzberg et al. (1959) depicts that satisfaction and disappointment are not measured on the same scale, rather, two distinct attributes that must be measured independently from one another. They are not at opposite ends of the same continuum (Herzberg et al., 1959). This meant that when an employee indicates that they are not satisfied, it does not mean they are

dissatisfied, as satisfaction and dissatisfaction come about due to completely distinct variables (Robbins, Judge, & Hasham, 2012). The two-factor theory has been widely tested and, in this view, intrinsic factors have been associated with motivation and can be referred to as motivators or satisfiers, while extrinsic factors are associated with employees being neutral or dissatisfied and are referred to as Hygiene factors. Thus, accomplishment, acknowledgement, development, development, as well as the environment of the work itself are typical examples of motivators. The salary that an employee receives, the relationship an employee has with his/her peers or/and boss, the policies of his/her organization, the working conditions and even the way they are supervised are typical examples of hygiene factors (Robins et al., 2012).

The model implied that job enlargement was central to organizations, and therefore Herzberg suggested that a job should be designed such that it provides sufficient challenge to an employee that will inevitably lead them to use their full skills and abilities. Those employees who show higher levels of skills should be given increased responsibilities, and if the job cannot accommodate employee skills, organizations should consider automating the task or replacing the employee with another less skilled employee. The bottom-line is that motivation will not occur to an individual who is not given the opportunity to use the full scale of their abilities. Though widely used, there have been criticisms of the two-factor nature of the model. While some have pointed to the methodological related aspects of the research that has elicited the two separate dimensions of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, others have pointed to other experiments that have failed to replicate the findings of the model (Hinrichs & Mischkind, 1967). In addition, the model has not considered the potential effect of individual differences on their reported satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Individual personality traits seem to influence how satisfied an

employee can be and vice versa, but the model under no circumstance deals with this reality. Finally, while plausible at first glance, it is not necessarily accurate to conclude that job satisfaction leads to higher productivity, despite the model's suggesting that. There are employees who are satisfied yet do not deliver higher performances in their work.

Locke (1976) developed the range of affect theory; one of the most frequently used theories in explaining job satisfaction in organizations. The theory rested on the propositions that responses of an affective evaluation reflect two judgments, i) the disparity between what an individual wants and what he or she believes they are getting, and ii) the importance of what the individual wants. It was also hypothesised that the interaction of the have-want gap and importance influenced the level of contentment (Locke, 1976). This suggests that the key determinant of job happiness is the difference among what and worker gets from their work and what the worker desires from a work. Furthermore, it implies that the amount of satisfaction for a given item is governed not only by the have-want gap, but also by the item's importance (Wu, 2015). Given the amount of discrepancy in the employee's expectation and actual situation, the things of high personal value could then elicit a wide range of subjective responses, from great satisfaction to considerable discontent. Low personal importance items, on the other hand, provide a limited affective reaction to the neutral point of the satisfaction-dissatisfaction aspect. The closer the wants of the employee are to what they are getting from their job, the higher the levels of employee satisfaction. Unlike the two-factor theory, there is no separation of satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors. The extent to which an employee values a certain facet of their job, such as getting feedback or having freedom at work, intensifies the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of that employee when the expectation is

either met or not. Due to personal differences, employees may value different facets of the job differently and therefore satisfaction of employees may differ even when subjected to similar conditions and expectations. For example, if an employee strongly values getting feedback from their work they will be highly satisfied if their work meets this condition or dissatisfied if their work does not meet this condition. In contrast, if another employee does not care whether they get feedback from their work, then it will not make a huge impact on to their satisfaction whether the expectation is met or not.

Things of significant personal value could trigger a wide variety of subjective responses, from extreme happiness to extreme dissatisfaction. Low personal importance items, on the other hand, generate a limited emotive response to the satisfaction–dissatisfaction aspect's neutral point. Inspiring elements are aspects of the profession that encourage people to work hard and provide them with a sense of accomplishment. Achievement, recognition, praise, and promotions, as well as pay, corporate rules, benefits, and the working environment, are all motivators. The professions or tasks themselves contain these motivators. To put it another way, inspiration comes from the effort himself or from characteristics of the job.

Because motivation was a hot issue, External rewards or intrinsic motivators are psychology notions that have been included into several descriptions of job satisfaction and are still used in job satisfaction studies. Salary, benefits, and workplace circumstances are examples of external rewards, while performance, acknowledgment, and academic study are examples of intrinsic motivators. Such as, Kang et al. (2015) used linear regression to explore the impact of motivation and satisfaction on worker job happiness. Rewards and motivation, according to their research, might take a considerable relationship with worker work satisfaction.

Employees who are driven are more productive, according to previous studies. According to emgulien, Bashor, and Purnama, work satisfaction influences employee job performance (2017). Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, according to Nyamubi (2017), may influence teacher satisfaction.

Using a representative selection of 1,981 persons, Judge, Bono, and Locke (2000) investigated the link between core self-evaluations, intrinsic job qualities, and job happiness. Work difficulty is a durable analyst of worker identity and job happiness, according to Judge et al. (2000), which means that tough activities provide employees greater freedom, which promotes employee satisfaction.

2.5.2.2 Organizational Commitment

Various definitions of organisational commitment have been proposed over time. It is described by Porter, Steers, and Mowday (1974) as a measure of how much workers care about and interact with their jobs. Organizational commitment is a multifaceted notion that encompasses a worker's desire to visit with an organisation, confidence in and acceptance of the organization's principles and aims, as well as willingness to put out work on its behalf (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Organizational commitment, according to Allen and Meyer (1996), is characterised as participation in, a sense of belonging to, and an emotional relationship to a work organisation. Employees that have a psychological link with an organisation are often referred to as "organisational commitment." Similarly, organisational commitment has recently been characterised as an individual's psychological relationship with an organisation, as indicated by an emotive attachment to it, a sense of loyalty to it, and an intention to stay a part of it.

Allen and Meyer's three component model (TCM) has been frequently used to study organisational commitment (1990). Organizational commitment is multi-

dimensional in this concept, consisting of three dimensions: affective commitment, continuity commitment, and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment mentions to an employee's emotional tie to his or her employer, which motivates them to stay with the company. Affective promise happens when a worker impressions a personal connection to the company, identifies with the company, and participates in the company. As a result, Employees believe strongly in the organization's aims and values and are willing to go above and beyond in order to achieve them (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

A sense of belonging as well as an emotional connection with one's career, organisation, or both is referred to as affective commitment (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). Ultimately, with affective commitment, an employee remains and commits to the organization they do it because they want to, not because they have to (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The term "continuance commitment" refers to a worker's decision to break with the company because they must. It entails an employee operating consistently in accordance with their field of work based on the anticipated consequences of stopping the work or, in this example, leaving the company. Meyer and colleagues (1989). Employees who have a long-term commitment to the company stay because they understand how important it is to them that the cost of leaving the organization, be it economic costs (salary and other benefits), social costs (friendships with colleagues) or both, are far greater than the benefits they would gain by leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Its been argued that continuance commitment many be, in itself, two dimensional where people may not only look at the perceived sacrifice that they will make for leaving their organization, but also the of lack of alternatives (McGee & Ford, 1987). All in all, these staff are obligated to stay with the company because they

cannot afford to leave (Allen & Meyer, 1990). A sense of moral obligation toward the organisation is referred to as normative commitment that causes an individual employee to remain working for that organization. They commit to an organization because they believe they ought to. They view loyalty as an obligation, and committing to an organization is a matter of principle whether it is or is not the best scenario for their career. Normative commitment is at times an internalised or personal pressure that one has (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Scientists have established concepts surrounding the concept of work and organisational commitment as interest in employee quality and productivity has grown. Organisational commitment, according to Meyer and Allen (1991), is a psychological condition in which an employee has a positive attitude and is loyal to the firm. Employees who are committed to the company will want to continue working there (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Three mindsets are included in Meyer and Allen's commitment model. Affective commitment is defined as an employee's emotional commitment to the company; ongoing commitment is described as a budgeting of quitting the corporation; and organisational commitment is defined as an individual's feeling of obligation to stay with the organisation. Employee emotional commitment is linked to job happiness and the possibility of security help on the job, as per a study. According the study, workers' regular views of job assistance might cary to improve the levels of continuance assurance. According to George and Sabapathy (2021), dedicated teachers are inspired to work harder on employment tasks, and when educational leadership is high, motivation is high, resulting in teachers taking on more responsibilities at work. Organizational commitment is associated with work

happiness, efficiency, and presentation, as shown in a study. It's also probable that it's connected to job satisfaction.

On the other hand, commitment alone is insufficient to explain workplace engagement. A variety of work-related ideas may be required to explain and appreciate how to enhance engagement (Reyes, 1990a, p. 237). Bakker and Leiter (2010) and Kahn's (1990) engagement theories were used to establish a framework for teacher work engagement. Teachers with high levels of affective commitment are more likely to (a) get emotionally attached to their employment, (b) have higher levels of satisfaction and a positive attitude toward their occupations, and (c) be more involved in the workplace, according to the proposed framework. According to this, the level to which motivation and satisfaction are associated to teacher work engagement was investigated in this study. The following paragraphs delve deeper into the research on the study's key factors.

2.5.2.3 Origins and Definition of Organizational Commitment

A growing interest in staff productivity has resulted in a slew of organisational commitment studies (Mowday et al., 1979). Organizational commitment is a psychological state in which employees have a good attitude and are loyal to the company (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees who are committed are more likely to want to stay with the company (Meyer et al., 2002). Three mindsets are included in Meyer and Allen's commitment model. Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to the company; continuation commitment relates to the worker's sense of obligation to stay with the organisation; and attitudinal loyalty relates to the employee's notion of cost-benefit of leaving the organisation. In research, the Meyer and Allen model (TCM) is commonly utilised (Vinué, Saso, & Berrozpe, 2017). This commitment model was employed in this investigation.

2.5.2.4 Factors that Contribute to Organizational Commitment

Age, sex, education, work satisfaction, income, complexity, and the size of the organisation are among the personal and organisational elements that enhances employee commitment, according to researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Bahtti and Nawab (2011) discovered that satisfied employees are more committed to their employers. Bahtti and Nawab (2011) employed regression analysis to analyse the link between employee salary, contentment, and commitment among Pakistani university teachers in order to gain a better understanding of how remuneration affects employee satisfaction and loyalty. Compensation, together with a favourable work environment, had a substantial impact on employee commitment to the firm, according to their findings. Rather than providing a comprehensive assessment of organisational commitment studies, I will cover the predicted consequences of organisational commitment and then address organisational commitment research in the educational setting.

2.5.3 Stages of Organizational Commitment

According to the researchers, there are three stages to organisational commitment. From one step to the next, the motivation for the employee's commitment changes. The following are the three stages:

2.5.3.1 Compliance stage

When a person performs in a way that fits with organisation norms, it is not because he or she believes in the organization's standards and principles, but rather because the organisation rewards and promotes him or her. Individuals' commitment at this phase is determined by the quantity of outcomes they receive from the company (Kelman, 2016).

2.5.3.2 Identification Stage

The affiliation stage is characterised by a solid wisdom of fit in to the organisation, in which each employee feels a deep connection to his or her workplace and is glad to be a part of it (Mollet, 2005). Most academics believe that the organisation is the first and most essential place for people to define themselves, and that there is an encouraging relationship between organisation and individual identity. Work commitment varies from adherence in the beginning of the procedure since workers in this phase show a great commitment to engage with the organization.

2.5.3.3 Internalization Stage

This is the stage in which employees' beliefs and values are matched to the organisation, according to Mollet (2005). In their research, they also asserted that Employees here would like to stay since they share a same ideals, therefore this is the final phase of engagement. As previously indicated, the stages of responsibility vary from one level to the next. Employees initially want to stay because of the pay, then because they feel like they belong to the organisation, and last because they share the institution's values.

2.5.4 Three Components of Model of Commitment

The topic of organisational commitment has long piqued the curiosity of academics. Most scholars have been researching organisational commitment theories since the 1980s (Reichers, 2019). Meanwhile, the educational system has been waiting for a framework that can serves as the foundation for future research leading to a shortage of consistency on the study of these criteria, which is becoming extremely challenging with the use of commitment metrics (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The question of organisational commitment has always been a hot one. Affective attachment to the organisation, cost perceptions associated with quitting the

enterprise, and obligations to stay are all recurrent topics in studies on the notion of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). To begin, the majority of the authors define commitment as an emotional response to the organisation. They believe it is associated to a personality's sympathy with the organisation, attitude toward the organisation, and affective attachment to the organization's goals and principles (Venter, 2018). Second, when pledges are interconnected to continuous contribution in proceeds or the avoidance of associated costs, there is a long-term commitment. Finally, according to certain studies, maintaining ethical allegiance and engagement to the organisation may be considered lifelong commitments (Marsh & Mannari, 1977).

Affective, continuous, and normative commitment are the three main elements of the concept of organisational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). These three responsibilities all represent a mental makeup and also have an effect on employee connections as well as retention of organisational members (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

2.5.4.1 Affective Commitment

According to Monday et al., affective commitment is split into four types (1982). Individual features, structural elements, job-associated criteria, and work experience are all examples. For a number of reasons, workers are eager to make commitments, including personal professional ethics, personal obligations, and personal interests that are related to work, among others (Dubin, Champoux, & Porter 2008). All of these examples can be used to show how employees' propensity to keep promises varies. Individual commitments have also been influenced by environmental factors (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Individual characters that merger more well with the environment prompt a further vigorous answer, and vice versa.

Second, structural variables influence employee commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Despite the fact that most studies examine the relationship between organisational structure and individual commitment in a more indirect manner (Farris, 2012), there is a correlation between the two. The employee-subjective relationship, and the clarity of employees' duties in the organisation, are predisposed by the organisational structure (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Accordingly, the organisational structure might have an indirect impact on employees' affective commitment.

Finally, job-related qualities are one of the factors that influence individual commitment (Garg, 2014). Job-related factors such as supervisory aid, peer support, and resource access influence individual commitment. According to research, corporate assistance has a significant impact on employee engagement, and employees are more likely to return to companies that make successful pledges (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Similarly, solid relationships with coworkers influence employees' effective commitments, which can lead to strong effective commitments.

Employees' ability to access resources is an important component of their profession. Employees' willingness to make a true commitment to the organisation is influenced by their access to resources (Angle & Perry, 2000). Office space, photocopying equipment, administrative assistance, and access to a computer are all examples of job-related resources. Employees' consciousness may be boosted if they have access to resources that make their jobs simpler (Bulut & Culha, 2010).

Furthermore, when compared to individual and organisational qualities, the gap among professional experience research and successful dedication is particularly notable (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees' psychological and physical comfort requirements are the two aspects of professional experience that constitute successful engagement (Mowday & Steers, 1979) and their job aggressiveness.

2.5.4.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuity pledges are individual promises to the organization's continued activities (Allen & Meyer, 1991). Benefits are usually the basis for these commitments. Individual perceptions of the costs of leaving the organisation are a prerequisite for organisational commitment to the reaction, anything with the potential to rise expenses can be considered as a requirement for continuous obligation (ibid.). The slower someone workings in an office, the more perks they receive and the most resources they have available to them (ibid.). This means that the longer you work for a company, the more perks you'll get, the more skills require you'll learn, and the more personal relations and authority you'll establish (ibid.). Workers lose everything they have and when they leave their positions, therefore they continue to work for the company to maintain their current resources.

According to Clinton-Baker (2014), age and length of service have an effect on long-term commitment. Beginning workers are most probable to left throughout their employment since they have little professional experience, and the cost of leaving the company is lower than it is for senior employees with more knowledge (Meyer & Allen, 1984). In addition, the quantity and quality of the organization's contributions have influenced its desire to continue (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). When companies increase the amount or size of their assets, the market efficiency of competitive alternatives decreases, the organization's appeal to employees increases, and worker responsibility increases (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Eventually, employee work contentment has become a factor in their willingness to stay with the organisation (ibid.). Employees that are content at jobs are most probable to committed longstanding and stay with the company.

2.5.4.3 Normative Commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), normative commitment has received less attention than empirical commitment, with more theoretical developments than empirical developments. Individuals and organisations come together to develop a normative agreement (Bakotić, 2016). The cornerstone of normative commitment, according to Wilson (2014), is the firm's willingness to create incentives for employees. Employees are subjected to societal regulatory pressures before they enrol or join an organisation. Employees will make moral commitments if they believe they would be praised if they follow societal norms (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In the 1980s, normative commitment was seen as a condition for staying in the organisation (Wilson, 2014). Various scholars suggest that normative commitment indicates that employees and organisations benefit from each other after twenty years (Meyer et al., 2002).

2.5.5 Factors that affect organizational commitment based on several commitment types

The role of commitment to organisational performance has been highlighted in several research. Individual employee performance has a greater link between organisational dedication and job success, according to Meyer and Allen (1997). Consider salespeople: there is a substantial correlation between personal performance and staff loyalty to the organisation (Hilton, 2017). As a result, organisational acceptance is crucial in strengthening the organization's integrity and effectiveness (Hassan, 2017).

Ishengoma (2004) looked at a number of factors that influence organisational commitment, including dedication to the job, people, personal self, organisation, and stakeholder. The following are some of the arguments advanced by academics:

2.5.5.1 Commitment towards job

Normative commitment, according to Meyer and Allen (1991), is the subject of less investigation, with more theoretical developments than empirical developments. Individuals and organisations come together to develop a normative agreement (Jena, 2015). The cornerstone of normative commitment, according to Wiener (1982), is the firm's willingness to create incentives for employees. Employees are subjected to societal regulatory pressures before they enrol or join an organisation. Employees will make normative commitments if they believe they will be rewarded for adhering to social standards (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In the 1980s, normative commitment was seen as a condition for staying in the organisation (Johnson, 2010).

Employee satisfaction refers to an employee's evaluation of their work, and it has always been a major issue for businesses (Bhatti & Qureshi, 2007). Burns et al. (2008) define it as an employee's attitude toward his or her workplace. Only a few organisations, though, have made employee happiness a top focus (Bhatti & Qureshi, 2007). Employees are more inclined to choose a firm that is more productive and innovative, which many companies have yet to recognise. Employees are more willing to commit when they believe their bosses can be happy at work and be comfortable with themselves.

According to Mosadeghrad, Ferlie, and Rosenberg, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover percentage are all linked (2008). Employees who are happy with their jobs are more creative and wish to stay in the company longer, which affects the turnover ratio; employees who are unhappy with their positions are more inclined to leave.

2.5.5.2 Commitment towards people

Employees' interpersonal contacts with coworkers are generally positive, showing that their personal and environmental elements are favourable (McCloskey & McCain, 1988), and they are willing to commit to the organisation. This kind of commitment is a commitment to people.

Gender, age, and educational level are some of the personal factors that determine an employee's level of commitment. Al-Ajmi (2015) conducted a study on 436 employees in five organisations to see if there was a difference in workplace commitment between males and females, but the results showed no difference in level of commitment based on gender, whereas Khalili and Asmawi (2012) The discrepancy in commitment among men and women is majorly attributable to normative commitment, with females having stronger level of commitment than men. A study by Klein, Becker, and Meyer (2009) looked into the link between employee age and commitment. Individuals between the ages of 31 and 45 and above had a larger willingness to stay in the organisation, according to their research, which comprised 3000 employees from six significant organisations.

While there are various viewpoints on the impact of education level on organisational commitment, Klein, Becker, and Meyer (2009) stated that as an employee's education level increases, so does their commitment. They looked into the amount of commitment of employees with a low level of education and observed that those individuals stayed in the company longer.

Organizational commitment is influenced by environmental factors as well. The first environmental component to examine is communication. Leiter and Maslach (1988), assumed the extreme interpersonal communication causes the employee's

feelings to move, generates excessive emotional expansion and loss, and eventually leads to a decline in personal achievement and a rise in job burnout.

The bulk of studies imply that environmental factors directly promote job burnout (Mathieu & Zajac, 2005). Mood swings can be caused by interactions with others, whether they are coworkers or consumers. Increased amounts are the source of problems, frustrations, and even, and occupational burnout is the result of this negative emotional shift. Employees are unwilling to commit to continuous work when their emotions are low, and they want to get out of the stressful work environment as quickly as feasible.

Perceptions and attitudes of individuals, on the other hand, are immensely important (Cohen, 1993). The quality of communication has an impact on organisational commitment. Allen (1992) discovered that in organisations that use total quality management, communication boosted organisational commitment by 59 percent. Employees can gain job- and task-related information through effective communication, which boosts their level of involvement in the organisation and improves affective, persistent, and normative commitment (Altarawneh, 2014).

Additionally, efficient communication between employees and management can improve the working environment, reducing job tiredness and motivating people to stay with the organisation (Mathieu & Zajac, 2005). According to Avolio (2014), have a substantial impact on employee commitment. The transformational leader has an impact on their followers by allowing them to speak up, as well as giving them room to think about their needs and a wider range of ways to express them, which enhances their level of obligation (Walumbwa, 2021). Transformational leaders' supporters continuously have a good attitude because they understand how significant they are to the organization (Finegan & Shamian, 2001).

Alternative ecological influence, according to Hakanen et al (2010), is the wellbeing environment. According to him, the safety climate has a huge impact on employee commitment. They discovered that when companies create a safe working environment and prioritise employee safety, employee commitment increases.

2.5.5.3 Commitment towards own self

According to Buchanan (1974), commitment develops an interchange affiliation between the organisation and the individual, with employees joining the organisation in exchange for a monetary reward. When a change is implemented, the direction of the change will have an impact on the employee's dedication (Hewitt, 2013). Staffs are eager to agree with changes in exchange for a commitment to the company. Employees will leave their commitment to the organisation in order to pursue their own ambitions when the company's interests collide with their personal goals (Hewitt, 2013).

Employees come to the company looking for a work environment that meets both their personal and professional goals (Hewitt, 2013). Employee commitment will rise when a company's ability to fit individual needs, abilities, and goals improves. Employees accept the company's ideas and goals, volunteer for it, and want to be a part of it, therefore such dedication does not suggest employee exploitation. As a result, when a company is able to meet its employees' needs, those employees will be more committed to their own growth (Hewitt, 2013). Human resource management, according to Hilton (2017), is responsible for meeting the needs of employees; many training and development programs, including such developmental evaluation, advancement, remuneration, and training programmes, play a critical role in employees' commitment and inspiration; when workers feel respected for their work, they are more likely to stay with the company, and conversely.

2.5.5.4 Commitment towards the organisation

Some individuals trust that staffs make pledges because of the organization's personality, and that the organization's high recognition causes employees to make a voluntary commitment to continue working, according to several research on organisational commitment (Hogan, 2006). Employees can use the company's identity to better understand their experiences, organise their thoughts, make plans, and feel accomplished. Wan-Huggins et al., assumed the organisational identity is linked to the purpose to stay in the organisation (1998). Job satisfaction is linked to organisational promise (Myers & Oetzel, 2003), while work input and motivation are linked to organisational empathy (Myers & Oetzel, 2003).

According to Hollebeek (2011), Human growth is accompanied by communicating effectively, implying that the organisation integrates individuals into the organisation and that workers will choose to work for it. When a group works collaboratively, one may sense the pressure. This form of pressure may cause people to take longer to collaborate (Barker & Tompkins, 1994). Personal identification might capture people's attention to a time-consuming process and eventually lead to them joining the organisation (Barker, 1993). As a result of their high admiration for the organisation, members of a developing organisation are eager to commit to it (Hup Chan, 2016).

2.5.5.5 Commitment towards Stakeholders

A stakeholder is a large group of people who are invested in the success of a company. Many crucial links remain missing, despite the efforts of numerous academics (Kelly, 2015), and these ideas are associated to organisational identity and obligation. According to stakeholder theories, the corporation should look at the most

important aspects of the stakeholders' welfares that would impact their behaviour, such as their devotion to the company (Komba, 2017).

Employees' commitment to the company will be influenced in various ways based on which stakeholders are important to them (Kong, 2009). Varied stakeholder groups can have different perceptions of the company (Kong, 2009), which can influence whether employees are willing to commit to working for the company in the future. Employees who have a positive relationship with a customer, e.g., are most probable to visit with the company, and their relationship with the supplier has an impact on their view of the company (Kong, 2009).

2.5.6 Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

Past and present educational academics have demonstrated a variety of ways in which organisational commitment can lead to major positive outcomes. Teacher dedication (Thien & Razak, 2014), workplace turnover, quick engagement (Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell, & Black, 1990), and employee motivation have all been connected to organisational commitment. Kruse (2012) looked at the amount of organisational engagement and commitment among health care workers and discovered that attitudinal and behavioural engagement had an influence on worker inherent stimulus. Park and Rainey (2012) investigated managers' motivation and job satisfaction and communication skills in Georgia and Illinois, for example. People choose occupations for a number of different reasons, both internally and externally, according to Park. External motivation appears to be linked to specific work qualities, according to the research. Park further claims that complex public bosses' intrinsic drive generates favourable job attitudes and growths professed efficiency of the organization in public organisations. Employee participation is influenced by the workplace environment and worker connections, as according Park.

2.5.7 Organizational Commitment in the Context of Education

Employee engagement, according to the report, is crucial for educational institutions since it improves teacher efficacy (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Hulpia and Devos discovered differences in teaching and learning focused on management styles in a qualitative study examining the relation between instructional supervision and teacher organisational support. According to their research, motivated teachers make more of an effort on the work and become less likely to leave the company. Employee commitment can improve job performance and turnover, as per Irefin and Mechanic (2014), who concur with Jose et al., (2012).

There is a link between organisational performance and commitment, as per education psychology (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Among college professors, Cai-Feng Wang (2010) discovered a link between work motivation and organisational commitment. Furthermore, there is a correlation between organisational commitment and effective teaching, according to study (Kahn, 2017).

A quantitative study has been undertaken by Sabapathy (2021) to study the association between teacher work job satisfaction and organizational commitment. George discovered a strong link between collect teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Teachers with high levels of continuation responsibility are more likely to stay with the organisation, while teachers with high levels of psychological attachment feel obliged to stay, according to George. Their results suggested that a monetary incentive can have an impact on teacher dedication.

Dedicated employees, according to Sadeghian, Abedi, and Baghban, are more likely to show a sense of drive at work (2010). The authors discovered a connection among storyline counselling and organisational commitment in their investigation of the efficiency of description therapy modification and obligation to the organization.

Sadeghian, Hoveida, and Jamshidian (2011) looked into the relationship between organisational identity and educator engagement in another study. Men and women had similar levels of identity and engagement, according to the research. The authors indicate that motivation is linked to teacher commitment, and they stress the role of organisational identity in on-the-job commitment. Employers who grasp the cognitive benefits of organisational identity will be more committed to the goals and values of the company (p. 511). Sadeghian et al., (2010) found that organisational commitment between teachers made educational institutions more competitive, and Ruble (2016) agreed.

High points of obligation, particularly sentimental engagement among teachers, demonstrate the benefit of employee empathy with a company, according to Ruble (2016). A significant correlation between affective commitment and professional status was discovered by Ruble (2016). Cohen and Shamai (2010) and Cohen and Veled-Hecht (Cohen & Veled-Hecht, 2010), and from the other hand, examined the relationships between interpersonal characteristics and corporate commitment. Organisational commitment was influenced by personal teacher values, while continuance commitment was associated to teacher emotional commitment. The statistics imply that organisational commitment influences individual values when it comes to employee empowerment in transformation.

A variety of factors influence teacher dedication, according to past studies. Salami (2008) discovered that administration feedback can improve teacher commitment in an early study of Arab educators. Regular feedback on work performance, according to Firestone, could improve teacher commitment in schools. A recent study backs up Firestone's findings, suggesting that subject will provide learners with feedback can improve their performance (Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013).

Gupta and Gehlawat (2013) examined the impact of organisational commitment on teachers in both primary and secondary schools using quantitative methods. Teachers in educational institutions, according to Gupta and Gehlawat, demonstrated significantly better performance. Teachers in private schools were given more authority and feedback on their work, resulting in higher levels of motivation.

Increased teacher involvement may result from cultivating teacher commitment in schools. As mentioned before in this segment, there has been extensive empirical research on teachers' organisational commitment in schools. According to this evaluation of the research, teacher effectiveness is linked to organisational commitment traits. Whereas this part focused on teachers' organizational citizenship behavior in schools, fresh scientific studies on teacher involvement have been included to this research.

2.6 Related Researches

Zafar (2010) investigated whether specific personal characteristics, features of job pleasure, and organisational justice influence Pakistani teachers organisational justice. It was also looked into the effect of organisational commitment on job performance and turnover intentions. A total of 125 full-time teachers from 33 Pakistani universities were surveyed. The outcomes of the study demonstrated that factors of job satisfaction and organisational justice were strongly associated to organisational commitment. Personal characteristics like as age, tenure, marital status, and educational attainment have also been found to be unrelated to organisational commitment.

Saks (2006) conducted an empirical study in Canada, interviewing 102 employees in a variety of jobs and organisations to test a social media has a significant theory-based model of the factors that contribute of job and organisation

engagements. According to the results, there is a considerable difference between job and organisational engagement, and employee engagement is influenced by perceived organisational support in the same way as work qualities are influenced by job attributes. Participation moderated the links in between antecedents and career satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, departure intents, and organisational civic involvement, according to the findings. Due to the demographic characteristics of the sample and the context, the survey's attempt to generalize to other conditions was limited.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) focused their research on emotional tiredness. Structural equation modelling was used to analyse data from four different occupational samples totaling 1698 people. According to the findings, Stress and commitment are inversely associated; stress is significantly determined by workplace stress as well as a lack of job resources, where engagement is mainly influenced by work engagement.

According to Hakanen, Bakker, and Schaufeli, Stress mediated the effects of a shortage of resources on poor engagement, while organisational climate mediated the effects of work capabilities on organisational commitment (2006). However, extending the results to other settings is difficult due to the study's economic, intellectual, and political circumstances.

Wasti (2008) surveyed 410 bank employees in Ghana for his study on internal marketing and employee commitment, evaluating the impact of four internal marketing approaches on employee commitment in the retail banking industry: enabling, rewards, training and development, and communication. The factors were establish to be positively associated with employee commitment, with the exception of communication. According to the findings, bank management must implement

activities that directly benefit employees so as to impact on employee behaviour in Ghana's banking industry.

Reichers (2015) proposed that newcomers to organisations may be unfamiliar with the organization's structural procedures, resulting in low OCB levels. Organ came to the conclusion that when people rose through the ranks of the company, they demonstrated a greater variety of OCB. However, in a sample of 152 bankers, Agyemang (2013) found no significant link between bankers' organisational tenure and OCB due to the current economic situation in Ghana. According to Chughtai & Zafar, personal characteristics for example age, length of job, marital rank, and learning level were not linked to organisational commitment (2006). The results of studies on service tenure and approaches toward employment are equivocal.

Shuck (2010) were the first to emphasise how the organisation is affected in their idea of employee engagement. Employee engagement, according to Shuck and Wollard, is "focused toward organisational results" (2010). According to Markos and Sridevi, business success and employee engagement are inextricably linked (2010). Additionally, operating profit is much more probable in industries with high levels of engagement (Markos & Sridevi, 2010).

A meta-analysis by Harter et al. (2002) includes about 7,000 business units from 36 distinct organisations. The findings demonstrate how business-unit outcomes such as efficiency, income, and consumer satisfaction are connected (Harter et al., 2002). "Unit-level employee satisfaction engagement commitment and these business-unit outcomes were discovered to have generalizable relationships large enough to have considerable practical implications," according to the paper (Harter et al., 2002, p. 268).

Rasheed (2013) go over the main factors that drive employee engagement and the significances of that engagement. As a result of employee involvement, the study focuses on organisational citizenship behaviours, or OCBs. Individual initiative, sportsmanship, self-development, and organisational dedication are all OCBs that are optional but beneficial. According to research, OCBs increase efficiency, help businesses contest with inadequate assets, and result in better employee coordination, lower turnover, organisational flexibility, profitability, and customer happiness. According to Rasheed et al., employee engagement is positively associated to organisational citizenship behaviour (2013).

Shuck et al. (2011) look at organisational consequences of employee engagement rather than individual results. Two of the outcomes are optional effort and throughput purpose. Discretionary determination is described as a worker's inclination to go above and beyond the minimum job requirements. Attrition is the term used to describe a worker's purpose to leave the firm. Employee engagement, optional struggle, and the chance of turnover are all linked, according to the researchers (Shuck et al., 2011). Shuck et al. also investigated the causes and consequences of employee engagement, including organisational commitment.

Ryan and Deci (2010), stated that "engagement is truly the greatest sort of commitment," where "every worker desires to do anything he can for the success of the organisation." Two variables influence employee engagement: organisational commitment and work involvement. According to the writers, Affective, ongoing, and normative commitments are the three categories of commitment. Affective commitment occurs when an employee has an emotional connection to the organisation and its goals. An employee's "willingness to remain in an organisation because of nontransferable investments that the person has made, such as retirements

and other perks" is defined as continuity commitment (Ryan, & Deci, 2010). This is referred to as normative commitment when an employee feels bound to the workplace (Baldev & Anupama, 2010). Job engagement is defined as "a worker who is completely devoted to and passionate for his or her job" (Baldev & Anupama, 2010, p. 53). Employee engagement antecedents, or predictors, study also looks at the consequences or outcomes of employee engagement, as previously stated.

The investigation into the factors that influence employee satisfaction is still ongoing (Rasheed et al., 2013). Saks (2006) was one of the first researchers to look into the factors that influence employee engagement. "Antecedents of performance management are defined as constructs, procedures, or circumstances that occur before employee engagement develops and before an organisation or leadership gets the benefit of involvement outputs," Willard and Shuck write" (2011). Productivity gains and lower turnover are among these outcomes. 102 employees from various departments and organisations were polled by Saks. The poll covered " The origins and outcomes of commitment, as well as metrics of job and organisation involvement" Saks (2006) points out that there is little empirical research on the antecedents of employee engagement, so he developed a list of possible antecedents based on Maslach et al. (2001) that includes job characteristics, Management support, promotion opportunities, rewards and appreciation, distributive and procedural, and distributive justice are all factors to consider. Positive consequences of engagement were predicted include work satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational commitment, and a lower risk of resigning.

Individual antecedent of performance management, and also administrative antecedents of employee engagement, are listed by Wollard and Shuck (2021). Each list contains twenty-one antecedents. Dedication, psychological fit, employment

balance, and psychological empowerment are only a few of the following indicators (Wollard & Shuck, 2021). Communication, management, rewards, and management consulting are some of the organization's antecedents. Work engagement, employment resources, workplace dedication, and participation in judgement are all elements that influence employee engagement (Rashad, Asad, & Ashraf, 2011).

An engaged employee, according to Vaijayanthi et al. (2011), is "someone who is entirely absorbed and excited about their profession and, as a result, performs in a way that furthers their organization's aims and is committed to preserving its values" (Shahin, 2014, p. 60). The authors go on to say that employee engagement is an important aspect of any retention approach, and that employers are accountable for ensuring that employees are enthusiastic about their jobs (Shahin, 2014). At GE Power and Water, the researchers conducted a study to determine what factors positively influence employee engagement and what ones may hamper it. According to the study, Person job fit, a supportive organizational atmosphere, the fostering of feelings so that the employee feels appreciated and involved, and a setting that encourages arrogance and involvement are all factors that contribute to employee engagement.

Rich, Lepine, and Crawford investigated Kahn's (1990) work in 2010. "The goal was to develop a theory that asserts engagement as a crucial mechanism for explaining the links between human qualities, organisational conditions, and job success," says the author (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010, p. 617). Kahn's theory was confirmed in the study, which also included firefighters and their supervisors. Employee engagement is determined by three factors: value coherence, perceived organisational support, and intrinsic self-evaluations, according to the study.

Job fit, affective commitment, and psychological climate were the three antecedents of employee engagement studied by Shuck, Reio, and Rocco in 2011. "The degree to which a person's personality and ideals are consistent with their current profession," says one definition (p. 430). Employees with a good fit have more meaningful work and a sense of belonging, which affects their work attitudes positively (Shuck et al., 2011). Affective commitment is defined as an "emotional commitment to one's job, organisation, or both" (Shuck et al., 2011, p. 430). Psychological climate is distinct as "the lens through which an employee examines and interprets their work environment in relation to the social and physical structures of external stimuli." According to the data, there is a significant correlation between employee engagement and work fit, affective commitment, and psychological climate (Shuck et al., 2011).

In Pakistan, employee involvement in the banking industry was investigated to determine the causes and consequences. The study's sample includes a total of 303 employees. As backgrounds, Rasheed et al. (2018) consider perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, and perceived organisational fairness. Perceived organisational support happens when an organisation aids a person in carrying out their duties. The extent to which a manager is worried about a well of his or her employees is known as employees' job satisfaction. There are two types of organisational justice: distributive and practical and interactional integrity. Whenever resources are distributed properly among members of an organisation, distributive justice emerges. Employees whose consider they have the right to share their thoughts regarding organisational norms and processes are said to be procedurally fair (Rasheed et al., 2013). According to the study, supposed organisational support, apparent supervisor support, and perceived organisational fairness are all positively

associated to employee engagement and organisational commitment. The findings of the investigation support this theory (Rasheed et al., 2013).

In a related study released the similar year, Moussa (2013) looked at the levels of engagement of Saudi nationals against non-nationals. The study included a total of 104 participants who worked in the fields of health care and information technology. Moussa (2013) covers the reasons for participating as well as the effects. Moussa bases her definition of employee engagement on Kahn's (1990) and Saks' (2005) claim that it is founded on social exchange theory. The findings show that vigour, absorption, and devotion are all antecedents to Schaufeli's three engagement measures: incentive and acknowledgement, value fit, and regulate.

According to Mulaudzi and Takawira (2015), teachers have high work satisfaction and company loyalty, and emotional variables are more important for job satisfaction and company loyalty. Academicians' work engagement notions and organisational commitment concepts, according to ngel (2014), have a positive relationship. The goal of this study is to use a number of variables to examine the relationship between teacher work engagement and organisational loyalty. Karataş ve Güleş, assumed as reported by Mahmutolu, employees' demeanour has an impact on positive organisational commitment and job satisfaction on a personal, organisational, and societal level (2010). According to Mpululu (2014), job satisfaction and organisational commitment are positive and significant in high-level connections, and differences in the link are reflected by age, gender, marital status, and years of working in the organisation.

Gender is not a significant variable in job engagement and organisational commitment, according to Mpululu (2014) research, because men and women's levels of integration with work are similar. In terms of marital status, married women are

more faithful than unmarried women, despite large differences in employment engagement. Women in their forties and fifties are more devoted to their partners than women in their forties and fifties. There are also considerable differences in the year of working data. Teachers with more than five years of experience have a higher level of loyalty. According to study, gender, age, seniority, and year of employment all have an impact on work engagement and organisational commitment.

Numerous research on organisational commitment have been conducted. There is a considerable correlation between teachers' organisational commitments, job happiness, and organisational creativity in schools, according to Ylmaz (2009). Mulaudzi and Takawira (2015) discovered that primary school teachers had better job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and that emotional factors (time in school, labour) are more effective than others in their research. Kayr (2013) discovered that school principals have a stronger emotional connection to the company when compared to other levels of emotional commitment. Demographic variables have an impact on organisational commitment, according to Kara (2006). According to Karapostal (2014), there are significant differences in how leaders see freedom for variables like gender, marital status, age, organisational commitment, and transformational, transactional, and seniority variables. According to Deniz, teachers in affiliated research institutions are the most emotional (2014). The focus of literature has been on integrating the different factors that influence the work. According to Ar (2011), in order to raise people's levels of integration with their occupations, the work environment should be favourable. According to Karataş and Güleş's research, which was conveyed from Sharma ve Bajpai, employees who have high job satisfaction for the organisation are boulder than employees who have poor job satisfaction for the organisation (2010). Employees that have low job satisfaction

for the company are more bound than those who have great job satisfaction for the company, and they might be hazardous to the company. According to this study, organisational commitment is a crucial factor in job satisfaction.

Despite advances in our understanding as to how to best construct, measure, and regulate staff morale, existing developments and assessments of the state of performance management have shown a number of issues which have yet to be entirely overcome (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011). To evaluate the impact of employee engagement on organisational commitment, for example, more research is needed (Albrecht, 2010). No studies have looked into the impact of employee engagement on organisational commitment in Pakistan, to the best of the researchers' understanding. This study tries to bridge the gap between public and private universities in Pakistan by comparing employees from both public and private universities.

2.7 Gap in Literature Review

There is a close relationship between organizational commitment and work engagement. Gallup Organization who is researched this relationship in America found employees who are integrated with work are loyal for organization about psychological too and excited and willing (Esen, 2011). Esen transmitted from Gostick and Elton (2011) says employees who are integrated with work give everything for organizations goals, showing better performance, they depend organizations success, they take responsibilities. Employees make of their organizations, they make an effort and spend time depend on wish, they have lower stres, their job satisfactions are high, they use lower medical helps, they obtain permission lower than others they are productive and they work in organization long time. There are some research about relationship between organizational commitment

and integration with work. Kavgacı (2014) revealed personal variables direct effects, organizational variables direct effects and organizational variables indirect effects for personal variables positive and meaningful. There are a lot of researches about organizational commitment. Yılmaz (2009) shows there is meaningful relationship between organizational commitments of teachers and their job satisfactions and their organizational creativities in schools.

Moreover, literature suggests that organizational commitment (OC) has a considerable effect on organizational performance. Teachers who have higher OC to their schools have stronger beliefs in the school's aims and values and prefer to stay in the school (Chan et al., 2008; Meyer et al., 2019). They tend to have a higher motivation to belong to the organization and display organizational citizenship behavior more frequently (Agu, 2015). Employees with a higher commitment experience feeling of warmth, appreciation, and loyalty toward the organization as a result of their positive thoughts and interactions within the organization and have a deep desire to remain within the organization (Casper et al., 2011). Research also found significant relationship between organizational commitment and Work Engagement.

In the literature, studies mostly focus on the linear relationship between teachers' EL and Work Engagement, and organizational commitment (Akin, 2021). However, there is a gap in literature investigating the indirect relationships between these variables which provide insight into processes through which Work Engagement can be fostered. Therefore, this study tests a structural model which investigates the relationship between organizational commitment and Work Engagement and the mediating role of organizational commitment on this relationship for teachers.

2.8 Summary and Conclusion

The current research on employee engagement and organisational commitment was addressed in this chapter. Workplace involvement, according to the literature, spans a wide range of job demands and organisational conditions. This study remains to illustrate how improved employee engagement can raise workplace efficiency across a wide range of industries. In empirical studies, low levels of satisfaction and commitment have been shown to contribute to disengagement. Disengaged teachers, according to study, do not stay on the job for very long. As a result, more teacher involvement is likely to result in increased educational output. The literature review offers the framework for improving the current body of knowledge on increasing teacher participation. Chapter 3 covers the research study methodology, sample population, measurement devices, research objectives, data collection, and analysis procedures.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

3.1 Research Design

A cross-sectional survey design was used in this research study. This approach is widely used in social science. For this research study, a survey was administered via personal visits of researcher to obtain data on independent variable (teacher work engagement), the dependent variable (organizational commitment) and teacher attributes (gender, age, years' experience & marital status) from a random sample of university teachers in twin-cities.

One advantage to using survey design is the convenience of assessing a large number of participants with a rapid turnaround (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Survey design was appropriate for this study because educational research studies have used this approach to examine employee engagement (Sawang, 2012; Tomic & Tomic, 2011; Wajid, Zaidi, Taqi, & Zaidi, 2011). Empirical studies on teacher engagement have also used survey design to assess organizational behavior of teachers in the workplace (Malarkodi, Uma, & Mahendran, 2012).

3.1.1 Research Approach

Using a deductive logic paradigm, to find out the relationship between Work engagement of university teachers and their organizational commitment. It is mostly observed that the research approaches qualitative and quantification are generally taken as opposing. According to Creswell (2018) Numerical data was analyzed through quantitative approach to explain the mathematical data collection and the methods applied to interpret such data was mathematical based.

3.2 Population

The population for this study consisted of $N = 7134$ (sampling framework) university teachers in 28 universities in twin-cities (21 in Islamabad, 7 in Rawalpindi). This study's population was divided into two Strata: (a) Male university teachers ($N_1=3995$, 56 percent), and (b) female university teachers ($N_2=3139$, 44 percent).

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample of 420 university teachers ($n=420$) was chosen using a stratified sampling technique (56% male, 44% female teachers in populations) but 400 (95% response rate) were found correct upon return for final analysis.

If the population is 50000, a sample of 381 is sufficient, according to Gay (1996). Taro Yamane's formula can also be used to determine/calculate/verify the sample size for the current investigation.

Taro Yamane's Formula:

n = Sample Size

N = Total Population

e = Margin of Error

1 = Constant Number

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Hence, there is enough rationale for adopting the selected sample size.

3.4 Instrumentation

The questionnaire was divided into three (3) sections. Section A featured demographic information pertaining to the employees' gender, employment, age, and marital status, Part B had factors determining employee engagement levels, and Section C contained items determining employee organisational commitment levels.

Because one item in Section C (item 24) was negatively worded or a reverse (R) question, the scale was inverted throughout the data gathering process. For the biographical profiles in Section A, the questionnaire was scored on a nominal scale with pre-coded choice groupings. Table 3.1 reflects the structure of Sections B and C of the questionnaire.

Table 3.1 *Dimensions of Employee engagement and Organisational commitment and their corresponding question numbers*

Factors	Variables	No. of items
B (Employee engagement)	Vigour	1-6
	Absorption	7-12
	Dedication	13-17
C (Organisational commitment)	Affective commitment	1-8
	Continuance commitment	9-16
	Normative commitment	17-24

The characteristics of employee engagement and organisational commitment are depicted in Table 3.1, along with their related question numbers. In order to acquire clear and thorough understanding, to determine how involved and committed workers were to their jobs and organisations, a variety of indicators were used.

Section B assessed employee engagement levels using an updated form of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Because lengthy surveys are likely to increase attrition, the altered version of UWES-17 was employed. Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha of UWES-17 revealed good results, ranging from 0.80 to 0.90. (Schaufeli et al, 2002).

Currently, the UWES is widely used indicator for gauging employee engagement (Shuck, 2011). The three core elements of employee commitment, vigor, preoccupation, and commitment, are assessed by the UWES. There are six variables for liveliness and engagement, as well as five for dedication, for a total of seventeen (17) factors to consider when assessing employee engagement.

In Section C of the questionnaire, employee commitment levels were assessed using Allen and Meyer Three-Component Model (TCM) of Organisational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1997) which is most widely used questionnaire in different studies and free of cultural bias (Hong Kong enterprises Lam (1998) , Tolentino (2013), Kanning and Hill's (2013), Al-Yami, Galdas, and Watson (2019), Liou, Tsai, and Cheng (2013), Thakre & Mayekar (2016), *T.N.Tok, B.Çağrı San (2018), Rani et al. (2020)*).

Gbadamosi (2006) internal consistency dependability for affective commitment was discovered. (0.73), continuation commitment (0.74), as well as normative commitment (0.75) in a study including African employees (0.66). This scale is used by most employers who want to know how committed their employees are. Employee commitment is measured using the Allen and Meyer Three-Component Commitment Scale, which has three main dimensions: affective commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment. Each dimension to be measured has eight items, for a total of twenty-four (24) items for analysing employee commitment levels. To make the questions easier to understand for responders, the Allen and Meyer Three-Component Organisational Commitment Scale was changed to make questions 5, 6, 8, 9, 12, 18, and 19 favorable sentences.

Scale of Questionnaire

According to Lietz (2010), the most popular and convenient approach of gauging how participants believe and feel about something in a survey is to utilise scales. The biographical data is measured using a nominal scale with pre-coded choice classifications in Section A of the questionnaire. In addition, for Sections B and C, a 5-point Likert scale was employed, agreeing respondents to choose the response that best matched their viewpoint. The Likert scale groups items into categories that span the full range of possible responses (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). Participants assessed their replies to each topic on a 1-5 point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) in both Sections B and C. The participants were given 30 minutes to complete the survey. The content and response format of the questionnaire are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 *the Scales and Content of the Questionnaire*

Section	Type of scale	Question	Question
			Number
Section A	Nominal	Biographical data	1-4
Section B	Likert	Dimensions of employee engagement	1-17
Section C	Likert	Dimensions of organizational Commitment	1-24

3.5 Validity

According to Creswell (2014), validity in quantitative research refers to whether or not the survey instrument results can be used to make meaningful and relevant conclusions. Researchers have proposed three types of validity: content

validity, construct validity, and criteria validity (Creswell, 2014; Heale & Twycross, 2015).

When it comes to content validity, according to Creswell (2014), the researcher should ask themselves, "Do the items assess the content that was intended to be evaluated?" (206). Heale and Twycross explored information validity, or whether the instrument is properly organised to include all content related to the variable (2015). When it comes to construct validity, the researcher should ask the following questions, according to Creswell (2014): "Do items measure hypothetical constructions or perceptions?" "Do the outcomes have anything to do with each other?" (206). According to Heale and Twycross (2015), construct validity evaluates whether the researcher can draw conclusions regarding test scores that are associated to the research issue. When employing predictive or concurrent validity, the researcher must ask the following questions, according to Creswell (2014): "Do scores predict a criterion measure?" "Are the findings consistent with those of others" (p. 206)? There are three types of criterion validity, Heale and Twycross (2015) revealed that convergent validity (instruments measuring related variables are highly correlated), divergent validity (instruments measuring changed variables are poorly correlated), and predictive validity (instruments measuring different variables are poorly correlated) (tools must have high correlations with prospective requirements). Instrument 1 (reliability and validity): UWES-17.

As an independent variable, employee work engagement was measured using the Work and Well-Being Survey (UWES-17; Schaufeli et al., 2006). The UWES-17 is a self-reported seventeen-item scale with three subscales: vitality (VI), dedication (DE), and absorption (AB). With over 21 translated versions, several investigators have used UWES-17 in global studies and verified it in numerous countries

employing industrial-organizational situations, comprising developing and developed nations (Carmona-Halty, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2019). Cronbach's alpha is greater than the 0.50 criteria, ranging from 0.78 to 0.87. (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Eman-Nafa (2016) investigated females in Saudi Arabia's education sector using the Arabic version of the UWES-17. Like the Dutch version, the Arabic version of the UWES-17 demonstrates instrument reliability and validity, with significant internal consistency reliability over the 0.50 criteria (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). With a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90, Martin (2017) found UWES-17 to be exceptionally reliable.

Instrument 2 (reliability and validity): OCQ.

The researcher assessed organisational commitment using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ; Allen & Meryer, 1990). To determine their commitment to their organisation, participants are asked to score statements on a 5-point Likert scale, agreeing or disagreeing with statements, four of which are negatively poled (Kanning & Hill, 2013; Mowday et al., 1979; Allen & Meryer, 1990; Thakre & Mayekar, 2016). In a sample of 2,563 employees from nine different public organisations, the median coefficient alpha was 0.90, with a range of 0.82 to 0.93, indicating a high level of reliability (Mowday et al., 1979, Allen & Meryer, 1990).

In eight different Hong Kong enterprises, Lam (1998) tested the OCQ's test-retest dependability, with 104 sales supervisors taking the 18-item OCQ twice over ten weeks; the Pearson correlation between test and retest scores was 0.59. (p.01) (see p. 788) Kanning and Hill's (2013) study used the three elements of job happiness, performance, and support for business values to examine the OCQ's translation and validity in various countries. The researchers discovered a strong link between the

variables and extraordinary translation performance, supporting the OCQ's relationship with the variables (Kanning & Hill, 2013).

Because there are no organisational commitment tools in Arabic for health organisations, Al-Yami, Galdas, and Watson (2019) did a study on the two main Ministry of Health hospitals in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The Arabic-language version of the organisational commitment tool may assist Arabic-speaking employers in better understanding their employees' feelings about the company (Al-Yami et al., 2019). Because there were a total of 4,858 personnel at these locations, one sample was gathered from each hospital, totaling 412. For translation and back-translation of the OCQ Arabic version, researchers use a two-factor structure (Factor one: value commitment; and Factor two: commitment to stay), followed by Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to test the factorial validity and item response theory of Mokken scaling.

Factor one has a congruence coefficient of 0.90 (value of commitment; $n = 193$ and $n = 219$), while Factor two has a congruence coefficient of 0.78 (commitment to stay; $n = 193$ and $n = 219$), both above the threshold of 0.50, according to Al-Yami et al's (2019) study. Cronbach's coefficients for the two variables in the Arabic version of the OCQ range from 0.69 to 0.91 in both samples, suggesting that it is reliable across cultures and has great internal consistency. With a Cronbach's alpha of 0.83, Liou, Tsai, and Cheng (2013) reported that the OCQ had satisfactory reliability and obvious validity when examined in a variety of professional groups.

Summary of reliability and validity

The research tools (UWES-17 and OCQ-24) has been demonstrated to work in the past. Many researchers have used and validated UWES-17 in international studies, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.78 to 0.87, significantly higher

than the 0.50 requirement (Carmona-Halty et al., 2019). In nine different public organisations, researchers discovered a high level of OCQ dependability, with a median coefficient alpha of 0.90 and a range of 0.82 to 0.93.

3.6 Pilot Study

According to Hilton (2017), piloting is the process of analysing a questionnaire ahead of time to assess if the items are likely to be difficult for respondents or if they achieve the questionnaire's goals. To put it another way, a pretest is an internal assessment of the questionnaire's and its items' suitability. The pretest was carried out in this study by giving the questionnaire to the supervisor to examine for validity as well as to confirm that the ethics of phrasing, quantity, and overall appearance were followed. A pilot research was done prior to data collection to test the possibility of the main investigation. A pilot test was also done to assess the entire questionnaire in real-world survey circumstances. A pilot test is a smaller version of a larger study that uses the same procedures and protocols as the main study to test research instruments. A pilot study, according to Arain, Campbell, Cooper, and Lancaster (2010), is a short type of research aimed to examine the viability of research methods or equipment before proceeding with a larger study. In this study, a pilot study was crucial since it allowed the researcher to identify or investigate any problem parts in the questionnaire before conducting the final survey. The researcher chose a total of 30 respondents to participate in the pilot study (Isaac & Michael, 1995 and Hill, 1998). Following the pilot study, the researcher compiled the final version of the questionnaire and arranged interviews, taking into account all of the participants' opinions and suggestions. In the final questionnaire administration, the respondents who took part in the pilot survey were not included in the final analysis.

3.6.1 Reliability

Reliability is defined as the degree to which an instrument measures consistently in the similar way when employed in the same settings with the same individuals (Heale & Twycross, 2015). The accuracy, reliability, and repetition of the results are all covered under reliability. Heale and Twycross (2015) defined homogeneity using object correlation, split-half reliability, Kuder-Richardson coefficient, and Cronbach's coefficient (or internal consistency). Split-half dependability divides a test or instrument's results in half. Correlations are calculated when both sides are compared" (p. 66). "Are the items' responses consistent across constructs?" Creswell (2014) encouraged researchers to ask. To determine whether ratings gained from previous use of the instrument represent reliability and to examine how they provide measures of internal consistency. A number between 0 and 1 is the Cronbach's result; strong correlations imply good reliability, while weak correlations indicate low reliability (Heale & Twycross, 2015). The reliability score, according to Nunnally and Bernstein, should be at least 0.50.

Heale and Twycross (2015) defined stability as "tested utilising test-retest and parallel or alternate-form reliability testing." When an instrument is delivered to the same persons numerous times under identical settings, test-retest reliability is found. To evaluate if ratings gathered from past usage of the instrument are dependable, researchers can ask themselves, "Are results consistent across time when the instrument is administered a second time?" (Creswell, 2014). According to Heale and Twycross (2015), a correlation value of less than 0.3 suggests a weak association, 0.3 to 0.5 indicates a moderate correlation, and greater than 0.5 indicates a strong correlation.

Inter-rater dependability was used by Heale and Twycross (2015) to assess similarity, and rigour was applied to ensure that sufficient data was collected for the validity and reliability of the tools or instruments used in the study. To establish whether test administration and scoring were consistent, Creswell (2014) proposed that researchers question themselves, "Were the inaccuracies due to a lack of care in the management or grading?" An excellent research study, according to Heale and Twycross (2015), indicates how all issues have been addressed.

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used to assess the measuring instrument's dependability (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 *Reliability of Employee Engagement: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha*

Dimension	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Overall employee engagement	17	0.841
Vigour	6	0.766
Absorption	6	0.595
Dedication	5	0.746

The inter-item consistency and reliability of the entire employee engagement questionnaire (Section B) is good (Alpha = 0.841), as shown in Table 3.3. As a result, the survey effectively assesses the major elements that influence employee engagement, such as energy, absorption, and dedication. The attributes of energy, absorption, and devotion were each assessed independently for their reliability. The inter-item consistency of vitality (Alpha = 0.766) and devotion (Alpha = 0.746) is excellent, but absorption reliability (Alpha = 0.595) is fair. The questionnaire used to evaluate overall employee involvement as well as the study's sub-dimensions is

clearly accurate and consistent.

The consistency of organisational commitment and its sub-dimensions was also evaluated (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Reliability of Organisational commitment: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Dimension	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Overall organisational commitment	24	0.826
Affective commitment	8	0.667
Continuance commitment	8	0.715
Normative commitment	8	0.683

According to Table 3.4, the questionnaire for measuring total organisational commitment (Section C) has a good level of inter-item consistency and reliability (Alpha = 0.826). As a result, the questionnaire accurately assesses the three components of organisational commitment that can influence it, namely affective, continuing, and normative commitment. Individually, the reliability of affective commitment, continuing commitment, and normative commitment was assessed. While continuous commitment exhibits a high level of inter-item consistency (Alpha = 0.715), normative (Alpha = 0.683) and emotional (Alpha = 0.667) commitment reliabilities are moderate. Clearly, the questionnaire used to assess complete organisational commitment and its sub-dimensions is reliable and capable of producing accurate results.

3.7 Data Collection

Data collection was the skill of gathering and measuring data on variables of interest in the most organised and systematic way possible so that the researcher could answer particular research questions about the subject under inquiry. The researcher

personally visited teachers to gather data and ensure the maximum response rate possible. Four hundred (400) out of five hundred (420) questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 95%.

3.8 Data analysis

The most crucial part of the research is data analysis. To ensure that the research findings were simply comprehended, the data obtained from the participants was organised in a clear and easy manner. The process of breaking down, isolating, and deconstructing research data into smaller components or units is known as data analysis (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

SPSS was used to analyse the data in order to answer the study's original questions. **Understanding Data Analysis Inferential Results** In this study, the researcher uses IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 26 to analyse data using descriptive and inferential statistics. The researcher used descriptive statistics including medians, modes, variances, and standard deviation to summarise the distribution of data and identify participant characteristics (e.g., gender, university type, and tenure-length of service) and patterns in the data. Inferential statistics such as the t-test and Pearson correlation coefficient (r) are used to analyse the link between hypotheses and enable the researcher to draw meaningful conclusions about the population.

Also as the data on both standardized questionnaires were at ordinal scale of measurement (likert-type questions) but when we have four or more liker-type questions, we can treat the composite data as quantitative data on an interval scale (Turney, 2022)

According to Ferreira and Patino (2015), statistical hypothesis testing is the most common method of resolving the problem by calculating the p-value (a typical

result is $p.05$). In other words, the extreme value of the test statistic is expected to be less than 5% of the time, and the cut-off number for rejecting the null hypothesis (that there is no difference) is 0.05. 2015 (Ferreira & Patino). In this study, the Pearson's productmoment correlation coefficient (r) was utilised to assess the strength, direction, and possibility of linear correlations between the variables of organisational commitment and employee engagement (Akoglu, 2018).

Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) is one of the most commonly used statistics to (1) determine a statistically significant positive or negative relationship between two or more variables; and (2) assess the degree of statistical significance associated with a correlation, according to Akoglu (2018) and Armstrong (2018). (2019). the links between employee engagement and organisational commitment in this study are determined using Pearson's correlation. According to Rebeki et al., the correlation coefficient (r) is a measure of how closely data is packed into a scatterplot along a straight line, as well as the degree and direction of the relationship between variables (2015). The absolute value of (r) can be anywhere between -1 and 1, with $r > 0$ indicating a positive association, $r < 0$ indicating a negative relationship, and $r = 0$ indicating no relationship (Akoglu, 2018; Rebeki et al., 2015).

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The research ethics are carefully considered in each study to guarantee that the participants are not harmed or disadvantaged in any way. The study addressed ethical issues such as informed consent, the right to withdraw, anonymity, privacy, and confidentiality. Furthermore, the data was analysed by merging the results, with no individual responses provided.

3.10 Conclusion

The demographic, as well as the sampling technique and sample size used in the study, were discussed in this chapter. After that, it taught how to collect and analyse data for quantitative data techniques. The psychometric properties (validity and reliability) of the measuring instrument were also tested in this chapter. Finally, it describes how the ethical requirements for the study were followed. The data collection and analysis were possible thanks to the methods provided in this chapter, the results of which were presented in Chapter four.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The preceding chapter went through the research technique employed in this study in great depth. This chapter presents the research findings in accordance with the goals established in Chapter 1. The surveys' Section A had biographical data for the participants, Section B contained items about employee engagement, and Section C contained items about organisational commitment. The data for the study was entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet version 2020 and analysed using SPSS version 26. The findings are presented in tabular and graphical form, with narrative explanations, and are based on descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.1 Explanation of the Sample

Participants in this study were given 420 questionnaires, and 400 of them were returned to the researcher, yielding an 95 percent response rate. Biographical information can be utilised to describe the sample, which is then represented graphically and explained (Figure 5.1 to Figure 5.4).

Figure 4.1 Respondents by Age

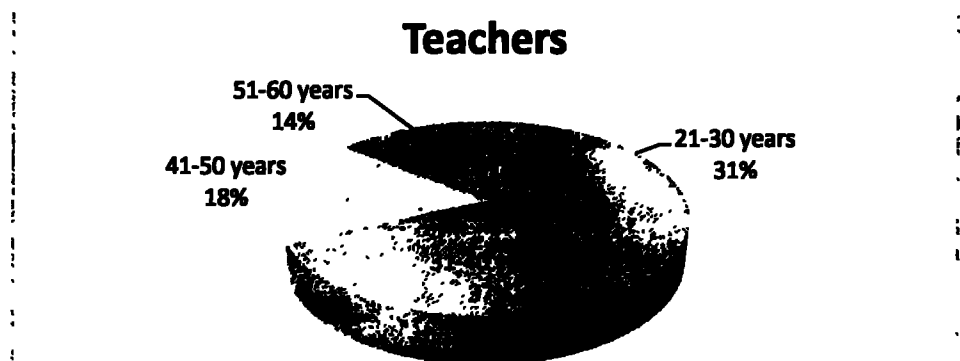
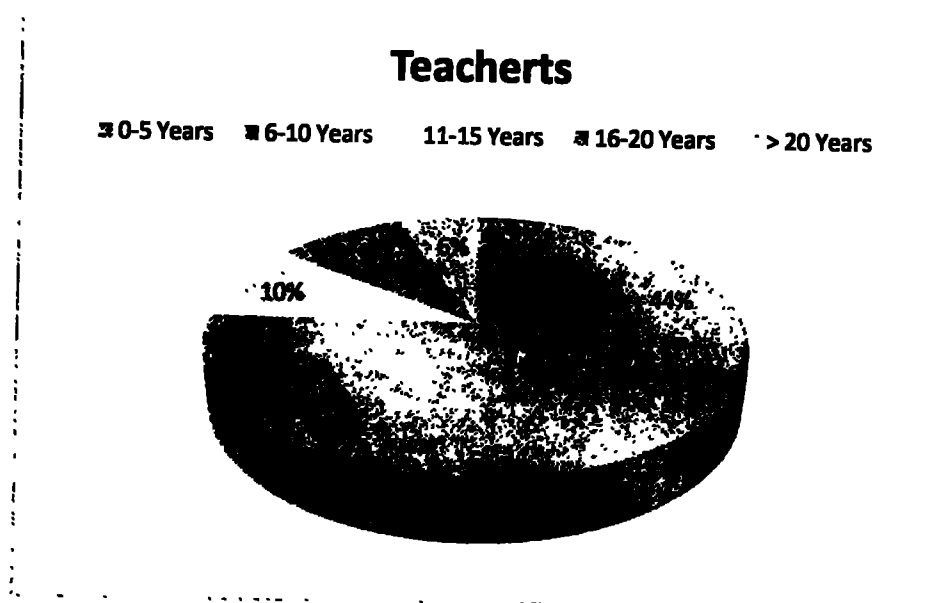


Figure 4.1 shows that the most of participants are between the ages of 31 and 40 (37%), followed by 21 to 30 (31%), 41 to 50 (18%), and 51 to 60 years (18%). (14 percent).

Figure 4.2: Gender Distribution of Respondents

Figure 4.2 reveals that male respondents had 56% of the total population, while female's teachers had 44%. According to these figures, there were more males than females, which is typical of the labour force.

Figure 4.3 Respondents by Length of service in current university



According to Figure 4.3, (44%) teachers had worked in the university for 0-5 years, followed by those with 6-10 years of service (31%), those with 11-15 years of service (10%), those who have worked in the university for more than 20 years (6%), and those who have worked in the university for more than 20 years (9%). The length of service at the university shows that the participant is familiar with the university's activities and, as a result, will give accurate answers to study-related questions.

Figure 4.4 Respondents by marital status

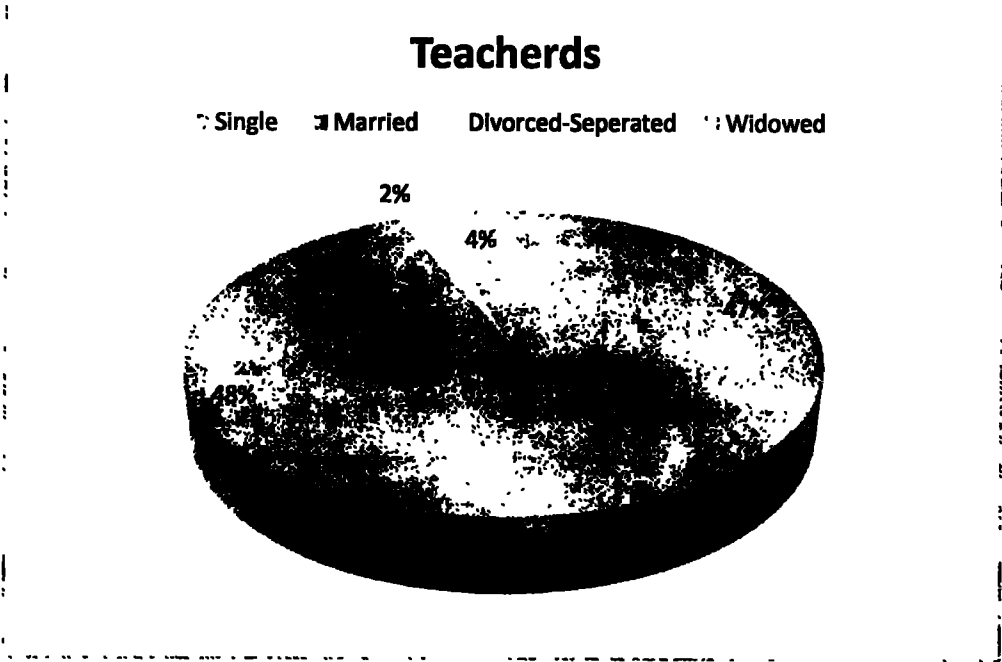


Figure 4.4 shows that the most of the teachers (48%) are married, followed by 46 percent who are single, 4% who are widowed, and the remaining 2% who are divorced or separated.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Teachers were asked to answer to several parts of issues on a 1 to 5 point Likert scale to determine their level of employee engagement and commitment. The data was analysed using descriptive statistics (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 *Descriptive Statistics: Key dimensions of employee
engagement and commitment*

Dimension	Mean	95 % Confidence		Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
		Interval				
		Lower	Upper			
		Bound	Bound			
Overall Employee Engagement	3.712	3.542	3.674	0.642	1.42	4.89
* Vigour	3.616	3.431	3.542	0.564	1.54	4.97
* Absorption	3.177	3.045	3.342	0.734	1.11	4.98
* Dedication	3.990	3.316	3.632	0.976	1.14	4.88
Overall commitment	3.671	3.154	3.068	0.463	2.53	3.95
* Affective commitment	3.961	3.123	3.342	0.123	1.42	3.76
* Continuance commitment	3.004	2.999	3.241	0.864	1.74	4.88
* Normative commitment	3.650	2.882	3.122	0.865	1.52	4.93

As shown in Table 4.5, university teachers exhibit higher levels of overall engagement (Mean = 3.712) than overall commitment (Mean = 3.671). According to a thorough analysis of the components of engagement, employees have the highest level of dedication (Mean = 3.990), followed by vigour (Mean = 3.616), and finally absorption (Mean = 3.177).

According to a thorough analysis of the components of Organizational commitment, teachers have the highest level of Affective commitment (Mean = 3.961), followed by normative commitment (Mean = 3.650), and finally Continuance commitment (Mean = 3.004).

4.3 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics were utilised to make decisions about the study's hypotheses. Relationships between the dimensions and sub-dimensions of the study. Inferential statistics on the dimensions and sub-dimensions of employee engagement and commitment were created to allow the researcher to draw conclusions regarding the study's hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

There exist significant relationships between the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, absorption and dedication) respectively (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Pearson Product Moment Correlation: Sub-dimensions of employee engagement

Sub-dimension of employee Engagement	r/p	Vigour	Absorption	Dedication
Vigor	r	1.000		
Absorption	r	0.475	1.000	
	p	0.000*		
Dedication	r	0.496	0.464	1.000
	p	0.000*	0.000*	
* p < 0.05				

At the 5% level of significance, Table 4.6 shows that there are substantial correlations between the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, absorption, and devotion). As a result, hypothesis 1 accepted.

Hypothesis 2

There exist significant relationships between the sub-dimensions of commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) respectively (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Pearson Product Moment Correlation: Sub-dimensions of commitm

Sub-dimension of Commitment	r/p	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Affective Commitment	r	1.000		
Continuance Commitment	r	0.392	1.000	
	p	0.000*		
Normative Commitment	r	0.518	0.447	1.000
	p	0.000*	0.000*	

* p < 0.05

Table 4.7 demonstrates that there are substantial connections between the sub-dimensions of commitment at the 5% significant level (affective commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment). As a result, hypothesis 2 has a chance of being accepted.

Hypothesis 3

There exist significant relationships between the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, absorption, dedication) and commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment) respectively (Table 4.8).

Table 4.8 *Pearson Product Moment Correlations: Sub-dimensions of employee engagement and commitment respectively*

Sub-Dimension	r/p	Vigour	Absorption	Dedication	AC	CC	NC
Vigour	R	1					
	P						
Absorption	R	0.475	1				
	P	0.000*					
Dedication	R	0.496	0.464	1			
	P	0.000*	0.000*				
AC	r	0.387	0.349	0.531	1		
	p	0.000*	0.000*	0.000*			
CC	r	0.304	0.350	0.392	0.392	1	
	p	0.000*	0.000*	0.000*	0.000*		
NC	r	0.318	0.278	0.342	0.518	0.447	1
	p	0.000*	0.000*	0.000*	0.000*	0.000*	

* p < 0.05

At the 5% level of significance, Table 4.8 shows that there are substantial correlations between the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigour,

absorption, dedication) and commitment (affective commitment, continuation commitment, normative commitment). As a result, hypothesis 3 might be accepted.

Hypothesis 4

There is a significant relationship between employee engagement and commitment (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9 *Pearson Product Moment Correlation: Correlation between employeeengagement and commitment*

Dimension	r/p	Commitment
Employee engagement	r	0.559
	p	0.000*

* p < 0.05

At the 5% significant level, Table 4.9 shows that there is a substantial association between employee engagement and organisational commitment. As a result, hypothesis 4 could be accepted.

Impact of biographical variables

Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions (vigour, absorption, and dedication), as well as commitment and its sub-dimensions (affective commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment) were affected by gender, age, marital status, and tenure, according to tests of differences (Analysis of Variance, t-test).

Hypothesis 5

There is a significant difference in the engagement of employees varying in biographical profiles (age, tenure, marital status, gender) respectively (Table 4.10 to Table 4.17).

Table 4.10 *Analysis of Variance: Employee Engagement and Age*

Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions	F	P
Employee engagement	4.433	0.016**
Vigour	5.875	0.001*
Absorption	1.864	0.985
Dedication	8.875	0.000*

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.10 demonstrates that there is a significant difference in the levels of engagement of employees of varying ages in terms of energy and dedication at the 1% significant level. Furthermore, there is a significant difference in the levels of overall engagement of employees of different ages at the 5% significant level. However, there is no significant difference in levels of engagement among employees of various ages when it comes to absorption. As a result, hypothesis 5 may only be partially accepted in terms of age.

The Post Hoc Scheffe's test was used to determine where the major differences are located (Table 4.11).

Table 4.11 *Post Hoc Scheffe's Test: Overall employee engagement, vigour, dedication and Age*

Dimension	Categories of Age	N	Mean
Employee engagement	21-30 years	125	3.631
	31-40 years	150	3.554
	41-50 years	71	3.482
	51-60 years	54	3.439
Vigour	21-30 years	125	3.652
	31-40 years	150	3.607
	41-50 years	71	3.508
	51-60 years	54	3.873
Dedication	21-30 years	125	3.927
	31-40 years	150	3.795
	41-50 years	71	3.630
	51-60 years	54	3.082

Table 4.11 shows that employees between the ages of 51 and 60 are significantly different from the rest of the workforce in terms of overall employee engagement, energy, and dedication. Table 4.11 further reveals that total employee involvement and dedication is highest among the younger employees (ages 21-30) and decreases as people age. In terms of vigour, a similar pattern can be noticed, with employees 51-60 years old demonstrating higher levels of energy than employees 41-50 years old.

Table 4.12 Analysis of Variance: Employee Engagement and length of service

Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions	F	P
Employee engagement	1.324	0.265
Vigour	4.649	0.002*
Absorption	0.644	0.632
Dedication	3.632	0.008*

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4.12 reveals that there is a significant difference in employee energy and dedication among employees with varying periods of service at the 5% level of significance. Employees of varying tenures, on the other hand, show no obvious change in overall engagement and absorption. As a result, hypothesis 5 may only be partially accepted in terms of tenure.

The Post Hoc Scheffe's test was used to determine where the major differences are located (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13 Post Hoc Scheffe's Test: Vigour, dedication and Tenure

Dimension	Categories of Tenure	N	Mean
Vigour	0-5 years	179	3.439
	6-10 years	123	3.776
	11-15 years	39	3.486
	16-20 years	36	4.214
	>20 years	23	2.970
Dedication	0-5 years	179	3.833
	6-10 years	123	3.626
	11-15 years	39	3.150
	16-20 years	36	3.286
	>20 years	23	3.036

Employee enthusiasm and dedication are lowest among employees with the longest tenure, according to Table 4.13. (20 years and over). Table 4.13 also shows that personnel with 16-20 years of service had the highest degree of vitality, followed by those with 6-10 years of service. Furthermore, Table 4.13 shows that personnel with 0-5 years in the organisation have the highest level of dedication, followed by those with 6-10 years in the organisation.

Table 4.14 Analysis of Variance: Employee Engagement and Marital status

Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions	F	P
Employee engagement	3.273	0.024**
Vigour	5.258	0.002*
Absorption	0.644	0.076
Dedication	3.651	0.015**

* $p < 0.01$ ** $p < 0.05$

At the 5% significant level, Table 4.14 depicts that there is a significant variation in employee vigour levels among employees with different marital status. Furthermore, at the 5% significant level, there is a substantial difference in the levels of overall involvement and dedication of employees based on marital status. Employees with different marital statuses, on the other hand, had no significant differences in absorption levels. As a result, in terms of married status, hypothesis 5 may only be partially accepted.

So as to assess exactly where the significant differences lie, the Post Hoc Scheffe's test was computed (Table 4.15).

Table 4.15 *Post Hoc Scheffe's Test: Overall employee engagement, vigour, dedication and marital status*

Dimension	Categories of Marital status	N	Mean
Employee engagement	Single	182	3.473
	Married	192	3.564
	Divorced/Separated	10	3.333
	Widowed	16	2.706
Vigour	Single	182	3.521
	Married	192	3.630
	Divorced/Separated	10	4.333
	Widowed	16	2.467
Dedication	Single	182	3.718
	Married	192	3.610
	Divorced/Separated	10	2.867
	Widowed	16	2.600

Table 4.15 shows that widowed employees had much lower levels of overall engagement, vigour, and dedication to their job than the rest of the employees; they have the lowest levels of overall engagement, vigour, and dedication to their work. Employee engagement is highest among married employees, vigour is highest among divorced/separated employees, and dedication is highest among single employees, according to Table 4.15.

Table 4.16 *T-Test: Employee engagement and Gender*

Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions	T	df	P
Employee engagement	8.736	399	0.000*
Vigour	8.084	399	0.000*
Absorption	5.113	399	0.000*
Dedication	7.846	399	0.000*

* $p < 0.05$

At the 5% level of significance, Table 4.16 shows that there is a substantial difference between male and female employees' levels of overall engagement, energy, absorption, and devotion. As a result, in terms of gender, hypothesis 5 may be accepted.

So as to assess exactly where these significant differences lie, mean analyses were computed (Table 4.17).

Table 4.17 *Mean Differences in Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions based on Gender*

Dimension	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Employee engagement	Male	224	3.403	0.550
	Female	176	3.583	0.675
Vigour	Male	224	3.493	0.731
	Female	176	3.623	0.785
Absorption	Male	224	3.222	0.615
	Female	176	3.435	0.753
Dedication	Male	224	3.513	0.908
	Female	176	3.711	0.758

Female employees at the institution have higher levels of overall employee engagement, energy, absorption, and dedication than male employees, according to Table 4.17. The implication is that women are more invested in their jobs.

Gender, age, marital status, and tenure were used to assess the impact of biographical variables on commitment and its sub-dimensions (affective commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment) using tests of differences (ANOVA and t-test).

Hypothesis 6

There is a significant difference in the commitment of employees varying in biographical profiles (gender, age, marital status and length of service) respectively (Table 4.18 to Table 4.24).

Table 4.18 *Analysis of Variance: Organisational commitment and Age*

Organisational commitment and its sub-dimensions	F	P
Organisational commitment	2.736	0.032**
Affective commitment	1.954	0.106
Continuance commitment	2.979	0.022**
Normative commitment	1.189	0.319

** $p < 0.05$

At the 5% significant level, Table 4.18 reveals that there is a significant variation in the levels of overall organisational commitment and continuation commitment of personnel varied in age. Employees of different ages, on the other hand, have similar degrees of affective and normative commitment. As a result, in terms of age, hypothesis 6 may only be partially accepted.

The Post Hoc Scheffe's test was used to determine where the major differences are located (Table 4.19).

Table 4.19 *Post Hoc Scheffe's Test: Overall organisational commitment, continuancecommitment and Age*

Organisational commitment and its sub-dimension	Categories of Age	N	Mean
Organisational commitment	21-30 years	125	3.354
	31-40 years	150	3.026
	41-50 years	71	3.088
	51-60 years	54	3.007
Continuance commitment	21-30 years	125	3.360
	31-40 years	150	2.897
	41-50 years	71	3.056
	51-60 years	54	2.735

Table 4.19 shows that older professors differ from the rest of the university's teachers in that they have significantly lower levels of overall organisational commitment and continuation commitment. Furthermore, Table 4.19 shows that teachers aged 21 to 30 years old have the highest levels of total organisational commitment and continued commitment.

Table 4.20 Analysis of Variance: Organisational commitment and length of service

Organisational commitment and its sub-dimensions	F	P
Organisational commitment	3.074	0.019**
Affective commitment	3.445	0.011**
Continuance commitment	2.077	0.088
Normative commitment	1.403	0.237

**** p < 0.05**

At the 5% level of significance, Table 4.20 shows that there is a substantial variation in the levels of total organisation commitment and emotional commitment of employees differing in tenure. Employees with varied tenures, on the other hand, show no substantial differences in degrees of consistency and normative commitment. As a result, in terms of tenure, hypothesis 6 may only be partially accepted.

The Post Hoc Scheffe's test was used to determine where the major differences are located (Table 4.21).

Table 4.21 *Post Hoc Scheffe's Test: Overall organisational commitment, affective commitment and Tenure*

Organisational commitment and its sub-Dimension	Categories of Age	N	Mean
Organisational commitment	0-5 years	179	3.238
	6-10 years	123	3.029
	11-15 years	39	2.854
	16-20 years	36	3.375
	>20 years	23	2.765
Affective commitment	0-5 years	179	3.343
	6-10 years	123	3.076
	11-15 years	39	2.813
	16-20 years	36	3.447
	>20 years	23	2.773

Table 4.21 reveals that teachers who have worked for more than 20 years had significantly lower levels of total organisational and affective commitment than the rest of the teachers. Furthermore, professors who have worked at the university for 16 to 20 years have the highest levels of overall organisational commitment and emotional commitment.

Table 4.22 Analysis of Variance: Organisational commitment and marital status

Organisational commitment and its sub-dimensions	F	P
Organisational commitment	1.360	0.258
Affective commitment	1.049	0.374
Continuance commitment	0.282	0.839
Normative commitment	2.665	0.051

Table 4.22 reveals that there are no significant differences in overall organisational commitment and its sub-dimensions across employees with different marital statuses. As a result, in terms of marital status, hypothesis 6 may not be accepted.

Table 4.23 T-Test: Organisational commitment and Gender

Organisational commitment and its sub-Dimensions	T	df	P
Organisational commitment	1.974	399	0.051
Affective commitment	2.694	399	0.008*
Continuance commitment	0.304	399	0.762
Normative commitment	1.830	399	0.070

* $p < 0.05$

At the 5% level of significance, Table 4.23 shows that there is a substantial difference in the levels of affective commitment between male and female employees. However, there is no substantial difference between male and female employees in terms of total organisational commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment. As a result, in terms of gender, hypothesis 6 may only be partially accepted.

Mean analyses (Table 4.24) were used to determine where the significant differences were located.

Table 4.24 Mean Differences in Affective commitment based on Gender

Dimension	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Organisational commitment	Male	224	3.033	0.498
	Female	176	3.188	0.643
Affective commitment	Male	224	3.121	0.691
	Female	176	3.218	0.653
Continuance commitment	Male	224	2.917	0.624
	Female	176	3.153	0.859
Normative commitment	Male	224	3.062	0.681
	Female	176	3.194	0.781

Female employees have much greater levels of affective commitment than male employees, as shown in Table 4.24. Female employees had higher levels of total organisational commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment than male employees, however the differences are not substantial. The inference is that female employees are more invested in the company, particularly emotionally.

4.4 Conclusion

In this study, descriptive and inferential statistics, were presented and discussed in this chapter. The demographic data was presented and analysed using descriptive statistics. Frequency distribution tables, bar graphs, and pie charts were used to display the biographical information. In this chapter, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the formulated study questions. To draw

conclusions on the study's hypotheses, Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient, Analysis of variance, and T-test were employed in the analysis. However, unless these conclusions are compared and contrasted with the findings of other authors' research in the areas of employee engagement and organisational commitment, they are meaningless.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

Employee engagement as a notion is still relatively new, with little academic research done on it, particularly in Pakistan. Employees that are engaged are more likely to feel obligated to repay their employer for the employment resources supplied, resulting in a strong commitment to the company. The concept of social exchange provided a solid framework for this study. The findings of this study emphasise the importance of employers providing employees with the resources they need to achieve an emotional psychosomatic professional state of mind that encourages workers to vigorously express and participate themselves passionately, cognitively, and tangibly in their roles, as this has a direct impact on employee engagement and organisational commitment.

Employee engagement includes vigour, absorption as well as dedication and organisational commitment includes affective, normative and continuance commitment. Both engagement and commitment of employees play an essential part in education sector as their performance is dependent on its employees who are instrumental in contributing to the decision- making of the organization and in delivering services to its customers (students). In this context, the study assesses the relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment in institutions of higher education (Universities) Pakistan. This study investigated the levels of engagement and commitment, their relationships and the influence of the biographic variables (age, gender, tenure and marital status) on these key dimensions.

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Employee engagement includes vigour, absorption as well as dedication and organisational commitment includes affective, normative and continuance commitment. Both engagement and commitment of employees play an essential part in education sector as their performance is dependent on its employees who are instrumental in contributing to the decision-making of the organization and in delivering services to its customers (students). The study employed a quantitative design where both quantitative data were collected from the participants. The study was undertaken on a sample of 400 teachers, drawn using the simple random sampling technique (straightified sampling) from ten universities situated in Rawalpindi/Islamabad, Pakistan. Data was collected using questionnaires. The psychometric properties (validity and reliability) of the questionnaire were assessed using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. Quantitative data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. SPSS was used to analyse the data in order to answer the study's original questions. Understanding Data Analysis Inferential Results In this study, the researcher uses IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 26 to analyse data using descriptive and inferential statistics. Inferential statistics such as the t-test and Pearson correlation coefficient (r) are used. There were moderate levels of employee engagement as well as organisational commitment. This study indicates that there are significant relationships among the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, absorption, dedication) and commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment) respectively.

5.2 Findings of the Study

5.2.1 Employee Engagement

1. Employees display a higher level of employee engagement than organizational commitment.

2. Employee dedication was higher than vigour and was higher than absorption.

5.2.2 Organizational Commitment (Oc)

1. Employees displayed lower levels of organisational commitment and employee engagement
2. Employee affective commitment is higher in normative commitment which was higher than continuance commitment.

5.2.3 Relationship between Sub-Dimensions of Employee Engagement

1. There is significant relationship between the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, absorption, dedication).
2. The sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, absorption, dedication) and commitment (affective, continuation, normative) have significant relationship.
3. Employee engagement and organisational commitment are linked in a major way.
4. The sub-dimensions of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) have a significant relationship.

5.2.4 Biographical Influences

Employee Engagement:

Significant differences based on

- i. Overall engagement (age, gender and marital status)
- ii. Vigour (age, gender, tenure and marital status)
- iii. Absorption (gender)
- iv. Dedication (age, tenure, gender and marital status)

No significant differences based on:

- i. Overall engagement (tenure)
- ii. Absorption (age, tenure and marital status)

Organisational Commitment

Significant differences based on:

- i. Overall Commitment (age and tenure)
- ii. Affective (tenure and gender)
- iii. Continuance (age)

No significant differences based on:

- i. Overall commitment (gender and marital status)
- ii. Effective (age and marital status)
- iii. Continuance (tenure and marital status)
- iv. Normative (age, gender and marital status)

5.3 DISCUSSION

The research questions, objectives, and hypotheses employed in this study were planned to be interconnected such that after the research objectives were fulfilled, the questions could be answered. Furthermore, the objectives were completed concurrently with the examination of the study hypotheses and the decision to accept or reject them. The subheadings below include discussions of the findings in relation to the research questions, hypotheses, and objectives formulated by the study.

Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions (vigour, absorption, and dedication), as well as organisational commitment and its sub-dimensions (affective commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment), were assessed with descriptive statistics.

Employees at the institution indicated a reasonably high level of total

participation in this survey (Mean = 3.482). The most of the respondents said they always try their hardest to ensure that the organization's objectives are realised. Kazimoto (2016) also discovered that the majority of workers were only working because they had access to working equipment and resources. Employees in private enterprises, on the other hand, are more engaged, according to Agyemang and Ofei (2013). Furthermore, according to Kruse (2012), highly engaged employees care about the companies they work for and are more committed to achieving the company's goals.

Bakker et al. (2011a) recognise that there are several relevant considerations about participation. The authors asked a number of questions concerning involvement, one of which was about the vigorous and sequential environment of the notion. For several years, most studies have looked on everyday changes in involvement, taking into account Patterns of employment culture and experiences over time. Employees are not equally interested in work throughout the day, according to Bakker et al. (2011b); some days are more interesting than others. Employee engagement levels differ greatly, according to Sonnentag (2011).

For example, Schaufeli and Salanova (2011) expanded on the concept of commitment by emphasising the importance of considering task engagement. Jobs, researcher stated that, are comprised of a variety of duties, with some demanding more participation than others. As a result, studying task engagement would provide a more in-depth examination of the different character of involvement. Employees who are engaged bring a unique level of inventiveness to their jobs and form their own opinions about their achievements; they seek out new initiatives that will stretch them and are dedicated to achieving excellence in their work, which results in favourable reviews from their supervisors (Vinué, Saso, &

Berrozpe, 2017).

As per the study's quantitative analysis, university personnel exhibit a fair level of overall commitment (Mean = 3.101). The most of the attendees are delighted about the event's planning. According to a study by Jayarathna, employees, conversely, show a high level of organisational loyalty (2016). Evidence shows that employees have a higher level of overall devotion to their company, according to Dachapalli (2016). Berberoglu's (2018) study of health workers in North Cyprus's public hospitals discovered that they are exceptionally dedicated. According to Manetje, employees who are unclear about their professional roles are more liable to have a poor or no dedication to the organisation (2009).

Employees who are dedicated to their company build a sentimental tie to it and begin to feel personally responsible for its success (Cherian, Alkhatib, & Aggarwal, 2018). Employees who are backed up by their bosses, according to Norizan (2012), are more engaged and loyal to stay with their company. Employees that are committed are more motivated to attain the organizational goals as well as classify most with the organizations goals (Samudi et al., 2016). Staffs who are less dedicated are most probable to be lacking from work, perform badly, be dissatisfied with their jobs, and suffer great levels of anxiety, all of which contribute to a degeneration in their health (Jayarathna, 2016).

"Passion, devotion, and absorption" define engagement, according to Ariani (2015, p. 193). According to the research, there are substantial correlations between the sub-dimensions of employee satisfaction (vigour, absorption, and devotion). Previous research has looked into the relationships between various dimensions of involvement (De Bruin, Hill, Henn, & Muller, 2013). This means

that zeal, commitment, and engrossment can all stand on their own. This study's findings support those of Yalabik, Van Rossenberg, Kinnie, and Swart (2015), who discovered important links between vigour, devotion, and preoccupation. All three factors support employees establish strong as well as self-assured arrogances about their work, which helps them give it their all.

Workers that are engaged work hard (vigorously), are committed (enthusiastic), and are deep (immersed) in their several works (Hlongwane & Ledimo, 2015). De la Rocha (2015), who studied groups of 250 or fewer people and found that vitality, devotion, and absorption were all strongly and positively related, backs up the conclusions of this study. The three aspects have a strong relationship, according to Wefald and Downey (2019), implying that involvement is a single variable. "The significant relationships across variables imply that energy, dedication, and immersion represented the same construct," writes De la Rocha (2015, p. 32). Some dimensions may have been unneeded due to the strength of these relationships."

The findings reveal significant relationships between the sub-dimensions of organisational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment). In her research, important correlations between the three elements of organisational commitment were discovered by Ramakhula-Mabona (2014). These three levels of commitment, according to Klein et al. (2009), exist. The only thing that distinguishes the commitment dimensions is their ultimate goals and significance. Employees that are passionate about their jobs, for example, will continue to effort with zeal in the organisation, allowing them to achieve organisational objectives A employee who has developed non-transferable talents and amassed advantages through time and is thus obligated to stay with the

company may not be motivated to go above and beyond to help the organization (Klein et al., 2009).

The findings of this study are supported by Ahmad's (2018) research. The three dimensions, according to Martin (2008), should be considered as components rather than distinct types of organisational commitment. An employee can show all of the components of commitment at the same time. As a result, it's futile to conceive of them as separate shapes; instead, think of them as components. Furthermore, according to Roxenhall and Andréen (2012), Sharma, Young, and Wilkinson suggest that in long-term partnerships, the affective component becomes stronger and more essential than the other two components. Numerous forms of duties can exist at the same time, according to Heery and Noon, as stated in Anttila (2015), at any given time, workers have several commitments to various organisations and persons. An employee with comparable aims to the company's works there because he or she wants to; the cost of leaving the company influences the decision to stay. Others choose to stay because they believe they owe the corporation a moral commitment (Simons & Buitendach, 2013).

According to this study, employee engagement and organisational commitment have a significant relationship. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) and Field and Buitendach (2011), for example, concur that engagement and commitment are linked, as are the findings of this study. Dedication is vital in the workplace, according to Field and Buitendach (2011), because it yields great outcomes as well as is linked to engagement. Engagement clearly functions as a link between job features and excellent work outcomes including organisational commitment (Saks, 2006; Simpson, 2009). Furthermore, Van Zyl, Deacon, and Rothmann (2010) discovered that participation and commitment are linked, which validates the

conclusions of this study.

The researchers looked at the link between organisational commitment and nursing worker engagement, Beukes and Botha (2013) found a similar finding. According to the findings of their study, a higher number of nurses conducted their responsibilities with zeal, which increased their participation and dedication at their particular institutions. Workers who are engaged are more likely to enhance their ability to repay their organisation for the resources it has provided, making them more committed to it (Hakanen et al., 2008). Other studies have found that commitment and engagement are mutually helpful (Steyn, 2011; Vecina, Chacón, Sueiro, & Barrón, 2012).

Furthermore, the findings of this study support Cohen's (2014) popular idea that being able to engage people in their professions is the first step toward connecting a devoted work situation. According to Saks (2006), commitment is defined as "the employees' loyalty, approaches, and relationship to the organisation," which is helpful to the corporation. But, meeting is a measurement of how focused and absorbed individuals are in their work, not an attitude (Saks, 2006). In addition, while commitment is centred on the institute, appointment is centred on the work.

Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions (vigour, absorption, and devotion) are explored in relation to biographical features for example age, sex, marital status, and occupation.

When it comes to overall engagement, this study discovered that there is a significant gap in the levels of involvement among employees of all ages. Younger employees in the organisation are more engaged than older employees, according to the data. Younger employees may be more energetic and willing to attempt new

things, which will increase their involvement in their jobs. According to Robertson-Smith and Markwick, young workers who join an organisation for the first time may be hopeful and engaged at first, but they may eventually become disengaged (2009). Garg (2014) acknowledges that engagement varies greatly depending on one's age. Furthermore, James et al. (2011) revealed that age groups and involvement have a substantial link.

The authors argue, however, that older employees are most involved than younger workers. According to a study by Kaliannan and Adjovu, employee engagement is unaffected by an employee's age (2015). Furthermore, Victor and Patil (2016) assumed that employee age has no influence on overall involvement. Tran (2018), on the other hand, claims that an employee's level of commitment is influenced by their age.

Furthermore, the findings reveal that male and female teachers had considerably different levels of overall engagement. Female university teachers are more engaged in their jobs than male university teachers. Female employees may be more committed in their work and always feel the requirement to show their worth because they entered the job market more recently than their male complements as a result of labour likeness. Male workers, on the other hand, have higher participation dimensions than female workers, according to Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006). The outcomes of this study are comparable to those of Shukla et al. (2015), who discovered that male and female employees have different levels of participation. In an Indian college, Yadav (2016) claims that there is no difference in engagements centered on the gender of academic personnel.

Furthermore, depending on marital status, there is a significant disparity in

total involvement levels. According to the latest research, single employees are more involved than married employees. This could be because single employees have more free time, allowing them to emphasis more, but married employees must still balance work and family duties. Gulati (2016) discovered a significant relationship between employee engagement and marital status, which is in line with the findings of this study. Anand, Banu, Rengarajan, Thirumoorthy, Rajkumar, and Madhumitha (2016), on the other hand, claim that marital status has no bearing on employee engagement.

There was no significant variation in total engagement levels between tenures in this study. Albdour and Altarawneh (2014), for example, agree with the conclusions of this research. Workers with less years of service in an organisation have high rates of involvement Stumpf, Tymon Jr., and Van Dam (2013). According to Robinson (2007), the longer someone works for a company, the lower their level of involvement increases.

Age, gender, marital status, and length of service are all examined as biographical variables that influence organisational commitment and its sub-dimensions (affective commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment).

There is a significant difference in total organisational commitment and age, according to the findings of this study. According to the survey, employees between the ages of 20 and 29 have the highest levels of organisational commitment at the university. Maybe they're young and passionate, and they feel driven to show off their knowledge and make an impression. Similarly, De Gieter, Hofmans, and Pepermans (2011) feel that commitment levels vary significantly among employees of various ages. Affum-Osei et al. (2015) stated that

significantly older employees are more loyal to the organisation because younger employees can quit at somewhat time because of greater job opportunities. Because they have invested so much in the company, the authors believe that the senior employees are unlikely to leave. According to a study done among Pakistani academics by Naseem and Khan (2013), as an employee reaches maturity, he or she gains a higher sense of responsibility, which increases their loyalty to the organisation. Like a result, senior workers are much more loyal to their employers than younger workers. Furthermore, monetary incentives play a role in this trend (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010). Despite the fact that many studies have determined that older workers are more devoted, Akinyemi (2014) discovered that older workers are not more committed than younger workers. Young and older workers, on the other hand, are more loyal to the company than workers in the middle age groups (Ogba, 2008).

According to this study, employees with different tenure levels exhibited substantial differences in whole organisation commitment. In addition, those who have worked for the firm for 16-20 years have higher stages of organisational commitment than those who have worked for the company for less time, according to the study. Perhaps they have a longer relationship with the company and have invested heavily in it, resulting in their dedication to it (Affum-Osei et al., 2015; Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). In contrast, Kelly (2015) contends that tenure has no influence on organisational commitment. Tenure has a significant impact on employee commitment (Iqbal et al. 2011).

Likewise, according to Amangala (2013), an employee's length of service has a significant impact on organisational commitment. "Long-serving employees may choose to stay with the firm since they are aware with the organization's goals or it

is so simple to work toward accomplishing them," Ramakhula-Mabona writes (2014, p. 62). Such employees are dedicated to their jobs and ready to stay on as part of the team (Mathieu & Zajac, 2005).

Furthermore, there is no substantial difference in degrees of employee engagement between men and women workers. Ramakhula-Mabona (2014) found something that opposes the results of this study. According to the writer, females are more likely to participate in the achievement of administrative objectives. Kelly stated that this is due to "females entering formerly male-dominated organisations, and as a result, women had to work tougher and have more to verify, and as a result, women were more loyal to the company" (2015, p. 34). According to Abdul-Nasiru, Mensah, Amponsah-Tawiah, Simpeh, and Kumasey, male coworkers are most dedicated than female friends (2014).

Moreover, it is assumed that no significant differences in overall organisational commitment levels among individuals with different marital statuses. Married status has no statistically significant impact on commitment, according to ogaltay (2015). Tikare (2015), on the other hand, discovered a link between marital status and commitment in his study. When compared to single workers, married workers have a stronger sense of commitment (Tikare, 2015). This could be owing to the increased obligations that come with marriage, such as providing a good living for their families and feeling financially secure, according to the author. As a result, it's possible that this will help people create a stronger feeling of commitment.

5.4 Conclusions

1. To evaluate the link between employee engagement and organisational commitment, the researchers collected and analysed quantitative data. The data collection and analysis informed the researcher's findings and considerations, which led to the study's recommendations and conclusions. The study respondents said they are fairly productive in the workplace. They also expressed their dedication to the university, hinting that there is still opportunity for progress. Furthermore, the study showed a correlation among teachers' work engagement and their loyalty to their organisations. Dedication, in particular, was determined to have a significant impact on organisational commitment.
2. Furthermore, the biographical characteristics demonstrate considerable variations in employee engagement, vigour, and dedication based on age and marital status. Moreover, there are significant differences in zeal and commitment based on tenure. Overall, there were substantial differences in participation, energy, absorption, dedication, and gender. Biographical characteristics also reveal significant differences in organisational commitment and its different sides. When it comes to organisational commitment, there were significant differences in global commitment and continuance commitment centered on age. There were also significant differences in total and emotional commitment by occupation, as well as significant differences in affective commitment by gender.
3. Employees who have their skills recognised and acknowledged feel valued and a sense of connection, which increases their commitment to

their employment. In addition, comprehensive training and development programmes will increase employee enthusiasm by ensuring that they are well-versed in their field. If staffs are assumed an allowing and helpful work setting, they will definitely have enough of vigor to fulfil their tasks. Department heads and Deans may also conversation with staffs since it supports to explain the purposes, aims, and tasks that workers are expected to do, allowing them to focus more on their work. They may hire and recruit people who can communicate their values and objectives in a way that fits with the university's mission. Employees may be offered lavish benefits so as to inspire them to stay at the university. Putting the proposals into practise will, in essence, boost university teachers work engagement as well as organisational commitment.

5.5 Recommendations

The researchers used a quantitative technique to investigate these variables in Pakistani settings, but we strongly believe that a qualitative approach may be used to investigate what really constitutes engagement and how it affects employee behaviour. Future researchers may build on these findings, whether by employing the same environment or a different one, in order to expand the literature on work engagement, which is still mostly unexplored.

1. Finally, because there appears to be a shift from previous findings, a look at tenure and commitment, as well as maybe other work outcomes, would be relevant. Employee tenure and commitment findings are currently inconclusive. The link between independent factors (employee engagement-EE), dependent variables (organisational commitment-OC),

and demographic features was investigated in this study (age, gender, length of service, marital status etc etc.).

2. The researchers presented recommendations at the teacher, university, and for future researchers based on the data analysis from this study to help universities enhance their management and teachers work engagement and organisation commitment. Meanwhile, we want to assist universities in improving their development in the future.
3. The universities may provide resources to foster employee growth learning and development to increase employee engagement and job performance.
4. The organization may increase the cooperation among employees in order to increase the relationship in every department.
5. Furthermore, the teachers may be a helpful, supportive, developing understanding with their colleagues. This will ultimately increase the performance level of the employees and can inspire the desire to assist the colleagues. Giving ample chances for up gradation will maximize the satisfaction of worker.
6. Findings of the study were that the reward advantages might be included in the form of educational allowances of employees, increments in pay, permits in the form of gift, recreation for their creative work and upgrades.

5.5.1 Recommendations for the Teachers in the University

Teachers do not take the initiative to communicate their ideas about the university with university leaders, according to the survey and its analysis. Teachers are also concerned that their genuine feelings may be revealed to university

authorities, according to the study and its analysis. At the same time, until the researchers distributed surveys, many teachers did not think much about their work engagement or organisational commitment in their daily work. Teachers only understand they have these needs and wants from university administration after that.

1. As a result, professors have their own views and perspectives, but for a variety of reasons, they do not bring their concerns to the attention of university management.
2. As a result, the researchers recommend that teachers regularly assess their own performance and provide feedback to university administrators if they have any suggestions for university management. Teachers can help university executives understand teachers' perspectives in this way, allowing them to better build university management programmes.

5.5.2 Recommendations for the University Administrators

University officials may figure out a method to embrace teacher's suggestions while also encouraging them to voice their concerns to the university. According to teacher comments, this method may be private, consistent, and transparent. Only by understanding teachers' true perspectives and needs can university administrators design better management methods to improve teachers organisational commitment.

1. When professors do a good job, university administration may provide additional non-monetary rewards to encourage them. Teachers acknowledge the university in this study's data analysis, however the university does not provide sufficient acknowledgment when teachers do good work. Meanwhile, professors complain that the university is unconcerned about their social and professional development.

2. As a result, the research advises that the institution may provide more opportunities for teachers to further their careers. Teachers stated that the university may provide transportation to and from the campus every day as a result of the facts. Because this study only touches on a few of the university's issues, the researcher recommends that the institution allow professors to engage in university management programming in order to better administer the university.
3. The university administrators may invite a few teachers to attend university management meetings and adopt the recommendations offered by the teachers for the benefit of the university. Decisions that may have an impact on teachers' well-being may be communicated as transparently as possible, boosting teachers' organisational commitment and preserving a positive and tight relationship between teachers and university officials.
4. According to the findings of the study, there is a link between teachers' work engagement and organisational commitment, and university managers must be completely conscious of the impact of this link on the overall rating of their institution. University administrators may assess whether a variety of incentives to improve teachers organisational commitment are suitable.

5.5.3 Recommendations for the Future Researchers

Employee engagement and organisational commitment are linked, according to the findings. The following suggestions are for future researchers who might be concerned in filling in the gaps in this study.

1. This research was carried out in the Rawalpindi-Islamabad education sector.

Future researchers may be able to confirm the generalizability of these

findings by duplicating the study in different geographical areas, professions, or specific industries, and changing the sizes of the sectors studied.

2. This research was restricted to a quantitative approach. Because it uses open-ended questions with no preconceived responses, using an additional qualitative method may offer significant data specifically concerns about the level of fear or anxiety teachers feel about sharing their concerns about their work environment or work situation. Through personal experience with their involvement and organisational commitment, future researchers may gain a greater grasp of participants' fundamental reasons and motives.
3. Employee engagement, organisational commitment, age, gender, length of service, university type, and other characteristics were employed in this study. Repeating the similar study with diverse predictors to highlight the links between management, employee development, organisational culture, changes, and organisational commitment may be helpful to businesses and the common works.
4. A picture of information from a certain time period was used in this investigation. If the study was reproduced in the same work setting, future scholars might associate the two sets of information to see if the study outcomes stayed the similar or changed.

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https://www.researchgate.net/publication/314094436_The_Relationship_Between_Teachers'_Work_Engagement_And_Organizational_Commitment

APPENDIX A (COVERING LETTER AND INFORMED CONSENT)

Islamic University Islamabad

Department of Education (Phd) Research

Researcher: Azeem Sabir (Azim1784@yahoo.com)

Supervisor: Dr. Muhammad Munir Kayani

I, Azeem Sabir am a Phd Scholar in the Department of Teacher Education (IIU). You are invited to participate in a research entitled, **the relationship between work engagement of university teachers and their organisational commitment**. The aim of this study is to **investigate the levels of employee engagement as well as organisational commitment of teachers in institutions of higher education (Universities)**.

Through your participation I hope to understand the extent to which Teachers are engaged in and committed to their work. The results of the survey are intended to contribute to the existing body of knowledge and help Educational Stakeholders such as head of the department dean of the faculties, HR Directors etc. To understand how they should keep their employees engaged and increase their level of commitment.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the research at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the Department of education, International Islamic University Islamabad, Pakistan.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the emails listed above.

The survey should take you about 30 minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely

Azeem Sabir (Researcher)

CONSENT

I hereby
confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the
research, and I consent to participating in the research.

**I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time,
should I so desire.**

Signature of Participant

DATE

APPENDIX B (QUESTIONNAIRE)

The following questionnaire is based on determining the levels of employee engagement and organisational commitment of teachers in a university in Pakistan. This questionnaire consists of three sections which are Section A, Section B and Section C. Section A consists of the biographical/Demographic data which requires your age, gender, tenure (Length of the service) and marital status. Section B & C consist of items which will require you to rate the statements provided on a scale of 1 to 5. You will be required to place a cross (X) against the statement which applies to you. This questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes. The completed questionnaire will then be collected by the researcher. Please note that this questionnaire is anonymous and you are not required to provide your personal information.

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Mark a cross (X) in the box that best describes you.

1. AGE

21-30 years		1
31-40 years		2
41-50 year		3
51-60 years		4

2. GENDER

Male		1
Female		2

3. Length of service in current university

0-5 years		1
6-10 years		2
11-15 years		3
16-20 years		4
>20 years		5

4. MARITAL STATUS

Single		1
Married		2
Divorced/Separated		3
Widowed		4
Other		5

SECTION B: EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

In Section B statements are provided regarding how engaged you are in your work. The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. You are required to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements using the scale below and indicating a cross (X) in the box that best describes you. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the items below using the following scale:

1 – Strongly

Disagree (SD) 2

– Disagree (D)

3 – Neither Agree nor

Disagree (NA/ND) 4 – Agree

(A)

5 – Strongly Agree (SA)

EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT						
No.	Vigour	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
1.	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.					
2.	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.					
3.	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.					
4.	I can continue working for very long periods at a time.					
5.	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.					
6.	At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.					
	Absorption					
7.	Time flies when I am working.					
8.	When I am working, I forget everything else around me.					
9.	I feel happy when I am working intensely.					
10.	I am immersed in my work.					
11.	I get carried away when I am working.					
12.	It is difficult to detach myself from my job.					
	Dedication					
13.	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.					
14.	I am enthusiastic about my job.					
15.	My job inspires me.					
16.	I am proud of the work that I do.					
17.	To me, my job is challenging.					

SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE (OCS)

In Section C the following 24 statements are provided to evaluate how committed you are to your organisation. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your organisation. You are required to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements using the scale below and indicating a cross (X) in the box that best describes you. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the items below using the following scale:

1 – Strongly

Disagree (SD)2

– Disagree (D)

3 – Neither Agree nor

Disagree (NA/ND)4 – Agree

(A)

5 – Strongly Agree (SA)

	ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT					
No.	Affective commitment	SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.					
2.	I enjoy discussing about my organisation with people outside it.					
3.	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.					
4.	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.					
5.	I feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation.					
6.	I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.					
7.	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					

8.	I feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation.					
	Continuance Commitment					
9.	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.					
10.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.					
11.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation now.					
12.	It would be too costly for me to leave my organisation now.					
13.	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as a desire.					
14.	I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organisation.					
15.	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
16.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice and another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here.					
	Normative commitment					
17.	I think that people these days move from company to company too often.					
18.	I do believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation.					
19.	Jumping from organisation to organisation seems unethical to me.					

20.	One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organisation is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.					
21.	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organisation.					
22.	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation.					
23.	Things were better in the days when people stayed in one organisation for most of their careers.					
24.	I do not think that to be a 'company man' or company woman' is sensible anymore.					

Thank you for your participation.

