

ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT IN SOFT DRINK INDUSTRY IN UGANDA

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Doctor of Philosophy in Business Management

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DECLARATION A

"This dissertation is my original work and has not been presented for a degree or any other academic award in any university or institution of learning".

Sign

JOSEPH JAKISA OWOR

Candidate

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DECLARATION B

"We confirm that the work reported in this dissertation was carried out by the candidate under our supervision".

Sign _____

Professor Kabir Haruna Danja (PhD)

Supervisor

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Professor Maicibi Nok Alhas (PhD)

Supervisor

Date

DEDICATION

To my wife Mary and the three daughters, Hope, Neema and Anneliese

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Dissertation such as this is not a single person's work. Many people have been involved and I would like to acknowledge their contributions.

First, I owe special gratitude to Professor Kabir Haruna Danja (PhD), my principal supervisor. His guidance, mentorship, and dedication to this project proved critical to its completion.

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I would also like to acknowledge the support of Century Bottling Company, Crown Beverages, Rwenzori Bottling Company and Firm A for the data that formed the basis of this research.

To my mother whose love for me compelled her to sacrifice all to ensure I attain reasonable education and to my brother Charles who strongly believed in the value of education and was willing to go any distance to ensure I get education.

To my dear wife, who endured all the loneliness during the many hours and years I spent working on this Dissertation. Your love, support, and friendship has been very instrumental

To my Heavenly Father – Glory be to your name.

ABSTRACT

This study sought to establish the relationship between antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement in soft drink industry in Uganda. The specific objectives of this study were (1) to ascertain the relationship between engagement antecedents and employee engagement; (2) to determine the relationship between employee engagement and the work outcomes; (3) to establish whether after controlling for the antecedents of engagement, employee engagement will predict unique variance in work outcomes. Adopting a pragmatic philosophy with a sequential mixed methods strategy starting with quantitative cross-sectional survey design ($N = 210$) followed by key informant interviews with managers the researcher examined the relationship between nine antecedents, employee engagement and four outcomes - job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB and turnover intent. Self-administered Questionnaire of four scales were administered to sampled employees of soft drink industry Kampala, Mukono and Buikwe districts of Uganda. Hypotheses were tested through correlation and hierarchical regression analysis techniques. All the nine antecedent variables studied were significantly correlated with employee engagement and employee engagement was significantly correlated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB and turnover intention. For the job satisfaction model, the hierarchical regression analysis results suggested that employees who experienced a high degree of role clarity, high degree of compensation fairness, and high opportunities for development, also reported being more likely to be satisfied with their place of employment. For the organizational commitment model, the hierarchical regression analysis results shows that three antecedent variables demonstrated a significant relation with organizational commitment, suggesting that employees who experienced a high degree of role clarity, high degree of job security, and high opportunities for development, also reported being more likely to be committed to their organization. For the OCB model, the hierarchical regression analysis results shows that five antecedent variables demonstrated a significant relation with OCB - role clarity, collaboration, job security, compensation fairness, and development. For the turnover intent model, the hierarchical regression analysis found the significant antecedents to be collaboration, social support, reward/recognition, compensation fairness and development. This research has validated and extended the engagement model and social exchange theory in the Uganda context. The only antecedent that is significant in all the four outcome models is *development*. The

recommendation is that for businesses to improve their employee outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB and reduction of turnover intent) they should develop and nurture strategies for improvement of the significant antecedents and employee engagement by concentrating on employee development, compensation fairness, role clarity, job security, collaboration and organizational support. Amazingly, reward/recognition as well as job design characteristics and material resources were found to be insignificant in the outcome models.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	Absorption
ABS	Absorption
Coll	Collaboration
CompF	Compensation Fairness
D	Dedication
DED	Dedication
Dev	Development
DIT	Department of Industry & Technology, MTTI
EE	Employee Engagement
GWA	Gallup Workplace Audit
H	Hypotheses
HPWP	High Performance Work Practices
HPHRP	High Performance Human Resource Practices
HPEP	High Performance Employment Practices
HRA	Hierarchical Regression Analysis
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
JobCh	Job Characteristics
JobSat	Job Satisfaction
JobSe	Job Security
Mat	Material resources
MTCS	Medium Term Competitiveness Strategy
MTTI	Ministry of Tourism, Trade & Industry
NEMA	National Environmental Management Authority
NGOs	Non Governmental Organizations
NPA	National Planning Authority
NRM	National Resistance Movement
OC	Organizational Commitment
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan

PMA	Plan for Modernization of Agriculture
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
PPP	Public Private Partnerships
PSFU	Private Sector Foundation Uganda
PSS	Perceived Supervisory Support/ Perceived Social Support
Rew	Reward & Recognition
RoleC	Role Clarity
SD	Standard Deviation
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SHRM	Society of Human Resource Management
SMEs	Small & Medium Scale Enterprises
SMI's	Small and Medium Industries
TOI	Turnover Intent
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UDC	Uganda Development Corporation
UEPB	Uganda Export Promotion Board
UIA	Uganda Investment Authority
UIRI	Uganda Industrial Research Institute
UMA	Uganda Manufacturers Association
UNBS	Uganda National Bureau of Standards
UNCST	Uganda National Council of Science & Technology
URA	Uganda Revenue Authority
UWES	Utrecht Work Engagement Scales
V	Vigour
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
VIG	Vigour

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This Chapter presents the background (general, conceptual, theoretical, and contextual), the problem statement, purpose and specific objectives, hypothesis, scope and significance of the study.

Background of the Study

The background is broken into several perspectives - general, conceptual, theoretical, and contextual which are systematically linked. General background gives an overview of the research problem, conceptual gives various definitions of key study variables, theoretical shows the theory that underpins the study and contextual shows the problem as observed in the local context.

General background

A growing body of research has argued that there is now evidence of a causal link between certain HRM practices and firm level outcomes, such as financial performance and organizational effectiveness (Datta, Guthrie, & Wright, 2005; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007; Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, & Allen, 2005). Researchers within Human Resource Management (HRM) field have long been concerned with the question of how the management of people can lead to improved organizational performance (Huselid, 1995). Indeed, the quest to understand and operationalize the HRM-performance link has come to be seen as the overriding purpose of strategic human resource management (Delbridge and Keenoy, 2010).

While early mainstream human resource management (HRM) studies tended to propose a direct link between HRM and organizational performance, recent evidence suggests that the relationship is most likely mediated by a range of attitudinal and behavioral variables at the individual level, particularly job satisfaction, affective and continuance commitment, task performance, and OCB (Guest, Conway, & Dewe, 2004; Kuvaas, 2008; Snape & Redman, 2010). Efforts to understand the missing link between HRM interventions and performance outcomes have led to a number of studies that explore the mediating role played by either employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and commitment, behaviors such as task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), or experienced organizational practices such as perceived

organizational support, organizational justice, or job design (Kuvaas, 2008; Snape & Redman, 2010; Sun et al., 2007).

In addition, early studies in the HRM-performance-relationship tended to focus on the macro level and proposed a direct or linear relationship between the two, but lacked convincing theoretical explanations (Guest 2011). Recent research has adopted a social exchange framework and quantitative methodologies at the micro level to suggest that the relationship is most likely mediated by attitudinal variables. For example, it has been proposed that positive perceptions of *HRM systems* may give rise to high levels of commitment and job satisfaction which, in turn, are linked with enhanced citizenship behaviours, lower intent to quit, reduced absence levels and improved task performance (Allen, Shore and Griffeth 2003; Kuvaas 2008; Conway and Monks 2009; Snape and Redman 2010). Snape and Redman (2010, p. 4) define such an *HRM system* as consisting of “interconnected HR activities, designed to ensure that employees have a broad range of superior skills and abilities, which are utilized to achieve the organization’s goals.”

The latest development in the understanding the mechanism through which HRM leads to Performance has ushered in a very recent interest in the parallel stream of research linking employee engagement and performance, bringing the two together to suggest that engagement may constitute the mechanism through which HRM practices impact individual and organizational performance within the framework of social exchange theory.

However, the findings within current stream of HRM research have so far also been largely inconclusive (Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees and Gatenby, 2013) but evidence has accumulated on the basis of quantitative studies to suggest that high levels of engagement are associated with high levels of performance, citizenship behaviour and individual wellbeing (Christian, Garza and Slaughter 2011; Hakanen and Schaufeli 2012; Soane 2013). In parallel with the development of the Strategic HRM field, researchers in psychology and social psychology have been concerned with exploring how the attitudinal construct of employee engagement could help explain individual performance outcomes. Given the shared focus of these two streams of research, it is perhaps surprising that it is only now that researchers within the HRM field are starting to recognize the relevance of engagement for their endeavours, and studies linking the two are just emerging (Truss, Alfes, Delbridge, Shantz and Soane 2013; Shuck and Reio 2011; Shuck and Rocco 2013).

Most recent HRM practices—engagement-performance studies situate their analyses within the framework of social exchange theory, arguing that organizational HRM practices send overt and covert signals to employees about the extent to which they are valued and trusted, giving rise to feelings of obligation on the part of employees, who then reciprocate through high levels of performance (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Gould-Williams, 2007; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Studies of mediation often draw on social exchange theory to provide an explanatory framework. Social exchange theory is based on norms of reciprocity within social relationships (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976). It is argued that employees are motivated within the employment relationship to demonstrate positive attitudes and behaviors when they perceive that their employer values them and their contribution (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010).

Besides, most of the studies that have been conducted on the predictors of employee engagement in recent years are mostly centered on the Western world such as the United States (Britt, 2003; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004), Netherlands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007), Spain (Salanova, et al., 2005), Finland (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007), Greece (Xanthopoulou, et al., 2009), Norway (Martinussen, Richardsen, & Burke, 2007), hence the need for such studies from Ugandan context.

Theoretical background

Social exchange theory (Homans, 1961, Blau, 1964; Ekeh, 1974) and employee-organization relationship frameworks (Coyle-Shapiro, Shore, Taylor, & Tetrick, 2004; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Hite, 1995) have suggested that organizations create systems that offer different forms of exchange relationships. Social exchange relationship involves unspecified obligations in which there are “favors that create diffuse future obligations, not precisely defined ones, and the nature of the return cannot be bargained but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it” (Blau, 1964, p. 93). The exchanged resources can be impersonal (such as financial) or socio-emotional such as care, respect, and loyalty (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). It is the socio-emotional resources that tend “to engender feelings of personal obligations, gratitude, and trust” (Blau, 1964, p. 94). A social exchange relationship rests on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960).

Employment relationship is seen as an exchange where the employer offers certain returns (e.g., pay, benefits, and job security) in exchange for employee contributions (e.g., effort, commitment, productivity) and the level of exchange depends on expectations from both sides. Schein (1970) argued that in order for individuals to generate commitment, loyalty and enthusiasm for their organization and its goals, and to obtain satisfaction from their work, there should be a match between what employees expect from the organization and what they owe the organization. The actual exchange involves, say money for time at work, social-need satisfaction and security in exchange for work and loyalty, opportunities for self-actualization and challenging work in exchange for high productivity, quality work, and creative effort in the service of organizational goals, or various combinations of these.

An exchange starts with one party giving a benefit (an inducement) to another. If the recipient reciprocates, a series of beneficial exchanges occur and feelings of mutual obligation between the parties are created (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). A broad notion of reciprocity encompasses a feeling of an obligation to repay favorable treatment and for an employee it includes a belief whether one should care about the organization's well-being and should help the organization reach its goals (Eisenberger et al. 2001).

Studies of engagement, like those of high performance HRM practices, draw on social exchange theory to suggest that employees will become engaged with their work when antecedents are in place that signal to them that they are valued and trusted (Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006). Although no research has examined the link between HRM practices and engagement, empirical studies have demonstrated a link between high levels of engagement and the same outcomes as the high-performance HRM practices literature. Engaged employees invest themselves fully in their roles (Rothbard, 2001), which may lead to the enactment of active in-role performances (Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Engaged employees may achieve higher performance because they focus their efforts on work-related goals, are cognitively vigilant, and are emotionally and socially connected to their work (Kahn, 1990).

Combining formal HR practices and employee engagement to understand HR outcomes within the context of social exchange theory is the major task of this study. As long as managers provide a favourable work environment, employees will engage their minds, emotions and energies with positive impact on various HR outcomes. As an alternative to studying the impact of HR practices on the usual individual performance,

this study investigates the interim outcomes like satisfaction, Organizational commitment, OCB and turnover intent.

Conceptual background

This study assumes a three-step relationship among the variables of interest – antecedents (independent) – employee engagement (mediator) – outcomes (dependent). The study of all the variables at these various stages leads to a number of constructs that have to be conceptualized here. Antecedents of employee engagement are defined as constructs, strategies, or conditions that precede the development of employee engagement and must be in place before an organization can reap the benefits of engagement (Outcomes). In order to understand employee engagement fully, the antecedents have to be understood. In this study the antecedents are conceptualized as the characteristics of the job - those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that precede the development of employee engagement and can be manipulated to increase engagement. In this study context they are also conceptualized as the positive characteristics of the HRM practices that make them conducive for employee engagement to develop.

In Human Resource Management terminology, antecedents of employee engagement are better described as *supportive* HR Practices (or generally high performance work practices, HPWP). Literature has shown that such practices tend to be part and parcel of an approach that emphasizes high quality goods and services, through engaged and empowered human resources (Appelbaum, 2002; Huselid & Becker, 1997; Tamkin, 2004). The classical approach to strategic HRM implies that the role of HR management practices is to maximize the contribution of human assets in order to achieve corporate goals. It encompasses approaches by which attempts are made to link individual attitude and role behavior to organizational performance in a logical and rational manner (see, for example Huselid, 1995).

Employee engagement is also to be driven by several factors. Kahn (1990) gives three psychological conditions (antecedents) which are critical in influencing people's engagement - *meaningfulness*, *safety* and *availability*. Under his concept of *availability* Kahn (1990) proposed that contextual factors (antecedents) such as job characteristics, social support, and organizational norms influence the way individuals engage with their work. Other research has supported the fact that contextual factors such as job resources like salary, career opportunities, interpersonal or social relations,

role clarity, performance feedback, and skill variety (Bakker et al., 2007) are antecedents to engagement (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Llorens, et al, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker, et al, 2007). Wollard and Shuck (2013) add to list of 42 antecedents, about half of which had empirically been tested and 11 of the most common are - perceived organizational support, involvement in meaningful work, vigor, absorption, dedication, job characteristics, positive workplace climate, clear expectations, job fit, rewards, and supportive organizational culture.

Employee engagement is broadly conceptualized as a positive psychological state of motivation with behavioral manifestations (Schaufeli, 2013). Several research (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Saks, 2006; Shuck, Reio, & Rocco, 2011) have shown that the concept of employee engagement is related to behavioral outcomes such as discretionary effort, intention to turnover and overall performance (Shuck, 2010; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010). Employee engagement is narrowly defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption” (Schaufeli, et al. 2002, p.74).

At the third level of analysis in this study are the outcomes. Researchers have found that employee engagement predicts organisational outcomes, including productivity, job satisfaction, commitment, turnover intention, customer satisfaction, return on assets, profits and shareholder value (Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008; Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In this study organizational outcomes are limited to turnover intent, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, which are each briefly conceptualized as below.

Turnover intent refers to the voluntary intention of an employee to leave an organization. This was determined by the intention to turnover scale developed by Colarelli (1984). It has been established that intention to turnover is more predictive of actual turnover than measures of job satisfaction or organizational commitment (Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

Job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job. It refers to how employees *feel* about their compensation, benefits, work environment, career development and relationship with management. Job satisfaction has been shown to have significant relations with employee engagement (for example Saks, 2006).

Organizational commitment is the psychological attachment an employee experiences towards the organization and its goals. Three components of commitment are employee *belief* and *acceptance* of the organisation's values and goals; *want* to exert an extra effort on behalf of the organisation and a *desire* to remain with the organisation.

Organization citizenship behaviours (OCBs) are voluntary contributions at work that include altruistic helping behaviours, compliance with work norms and requirements, courtesy to others to ensure smooth working relationships, sportsmanship to maintain performance under adversity, and civic virtue to contribute constructively to issues that arise in the workplace.

Contextual background

The performance of Industrialization in Uganda has largely been affected by the country's civil strife over the years since independence and the liberalization policy of the last two decades or more. Uganda's industrial sector, is dominated by Micro, Small and Medium enterprises (MSEs), and contributes 25 percent to the GDP. The majority of the MSEs are faced with various challenges, for example, low capital investment and access to finance, utility costs, high interest rates, poor infrastructure, corruption, bureaucracy, poor work ethics, lack of trust, and competition from foreign products (Ishengoma & Kappel, 2011; World Economic forum, 2013).

From early 1990s government of Uganda embarked on the country's Economic Recovery Programme, which aimed specifically at removing structural distortions and imbalances in the economy, and restoring macro-economic stability and effective economic management, leading to the formulation of Industrialization Policy and Framework 1994-1999 targeting investment promotion (MTTI/UNIDO, 2007; MITT, 2008). The government took the role of facilitator, ensuring an enabling environment for industry for sustainable industrial development. A number of economic reforms were made as well as physical infrastructure such as roads, electricity and water supply were greatly improved (MPED, 2004; Uganda MTCS 2005 – 2009; MTTI/UNIDO, 2007; MITT, 2008). The 1990s therefore marked the emergence of policies focusing on industry level competitiveness with the firm as the core factor.

Competitiveness is the ability of a company or a country to offer products and services that meet the quality standards of both local and international markets at prices that provide sufficient returns on investment (World Economic Forum, 2014) and

is driven by investment in physical capital and infrastructure, education and training, technological progress, macroeconomic stability, good governance, firm sophistication, and market efficiency, among others, that are considered to be drivers of productivity and competitiveness (World Economic Forum, 2014).

Despite the government's efforts to make Uganda's private sector more competitive, very little appears to be happening in comparison to other countries. The Global Competitiveness Report 2014-2015 has ranked Uganda 122 out of 144 economies, in 2013-2014, it was ranked 126 and the year before 123, which indicate an insignificant improvement in the last two years. Uganda still lags behind Rwanda (62) and South Africa (56) which are the top performers in Africa - while Kenya is ranked 90 and Tanzania 121 (World Economic Forum, 2014). This leads us to propose that the broad macro-economic policy environment is a necessary but not sufficient condition for industrial competitiveness. The solution to the competitiveness problem lies more at how the HRP practices are handled at the industrial (micro-economic) level.

Fortunately, researchers have argued that aggregate outcome variables used in the existing management literature, such as competitiveness, firm financial performance and organizational effectiveness, are too distal from the micro-level HRM interventions, and that more proximal outcome indicators at the individual level would provide a better and more reliable measure of individual HRM outcomes (Paauwe, 2004; Purcell & Kinnie, 2007; Wright & Haggerty, 2005). A further consideration is that a focus on purely short-term financial gains may be at the expense of potentially desirable longer-term outcomes, such as sustainability and resilience at the organizational level, and well-being at the individual level (e.g., Boxall & Purcell, 2008; Guest, 2002). There is a case to be made for focusing on attitudinal or behavioral outcomes at the individual level, where the link between experiences of HRM practices and a range of outcomes is more proximal, and which may be considered to be an intermediary outcome and core driver of competitiveness and overall organizational performance (Wright & Haggerty, 2005).

Below, a brief overview of the sampled industries are presented to sketch out the performance situation and to justify the need to study the human resource management factors necessary to enhance employee engagement and consequent outcomes.

The food processing and beverages industry in Uganda has been one of the fastest growing over the past five years (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2014). The

carbonated soft drink sub-sector has attracted a number of players in the last two years including Riham, Fizzy and Azam soda resulting into stiff competition causing the two giants – Century Bottling Company (Coca-Cola) and Crown Beverages (Pepsi) to cut prices to remain competitive in the market. Bottled water, which is emerging as the fastest growing segment of the beverage market due to the increasing health consciousness among consumers, has eaten into the carbonated soft drink market. This has made Coca Cola and Pepsi to introduce Disani and Peak mineral water brands, respectively. The other mineral water manufacturers are Aqua Sipi, Blue wave, Wava Water, Hema, Ripples and Azur, among others (New Vision, 2015: Focus on Manufacturing, June 2).

Crown Beverages Limited was founded as Lake Victoria Bottling Company (LVBC) in 1950 became the Pepsi Cola franchise in Uganda in 1965 and started bottling global soft drinks including; Pepsi, Mirinda, among others (Crown Beverages Ltd, 2014). It was nationalized in the 1970s but was privatized in early 1990s. The new shareholders injected more capital in the company and renamed the company Crown Bottlers Limited (CBL) with expanded brands - Pepsi-Cola, Mountain Dew, Mirinda (Fruity, Orange, Pineapple, Apple), 7UP and Evervess (Crown Beverages Ltd, 2014). In 1997, CBL went into joint ownership with International Pepsi Cola Bottling Investments, (IPCBI) of South Africa, who bought 51% shares in the CBL and injected in more capital. With the new shareholders, the company took on Crown Beverages Limited as its new name. In March 2002 the IPCBI shareholding was bought back by indigenous Ugandans (Crown Beverages Ltd, 2014). The company's current market share is reported to be over 50% (Two decades, 2013). The company is said to be currently employing 513 people (directly) making a tax contribution to government of Shs 70 billion per year (Amos Nzei, *The independent*, 2013).

The main competitor to Crown Beverages is Century Bottling Company Ltd which started in Uganda in 1988 as a family enterprise in partnership with the Coca-Cola international of Atlanta-Georgia, USA and started production with three core brands - Coca-cola, Fanta orange and Sprite but later expanded to Krest, Stoney, Novida Dasani water and Minute maid juice. Bought by Coca Cola Sabco (CCS) in 1995 it now has two plants, one in Mbarara and one in Namanve, Mukono. The company has over 500 direct employees in their Namanve plant (Coca Cola Sabco, 2014). Stiff competition set in early 2013, following the entrance of three new players - Riham, Azam and Fizzy soda

brands forcing Century Bottling Company to offer its 350ml plastic bottled sodas at the same price with Riham's 320 ml bottles (Kulabako, 2013).

Another giant competitor in the soft drink industry is Rwenzori Bottling Company Ltd, the leading water bottling company in Uganda and a subsidiary of SABMiller, the second largest brewing group in the world. From its establishment in 1993, the company's water brand has held market leadership in Uganda and its neighboring countries. Rwenzori is today a household name for bottled water in Uganda. It looks forward to strengthening its market leadership through constant improvement of its products through innovative manufacturing, and marketing, reinvestments and an efficient countrywide distribution network (Impulse Communication, 2014. Rwenzori was the first mineral water company in Uganda to receive ISO 9002 certification for developing and maintaining a high quality management system.

Since the foregoing overviews of the sampled industries are silent on the HRM factors that are necessary for competitive business outcomes, it important to note that researchers have found that the growing level of uncertainty and competition in the current globalized business environment requires firms to continuously adapt to changes and accommodate different needs of the workforce (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008; Schaufeli, 2013). Firms often compete and attempt to survive by lowering prices, cutting costs, redesigning business processes and downsizing the number of employees but all these have limits. New approaches to human resource management are therefore inevitable for firm survival and progress. Rather than focusing on reducing costs, the shift of the focus in HRM is to build employee engagement. As a result, numerous articles have been published that call for a more positive approach that focuses on the workforce, that is, engaging employees rather than focusing on problem-coping strategies (Luthans & Avolio, 2009; Bakker et al, 2008; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Avey et al., 2008; Seligman et al., 2005).

Studies on employee engagement have indicated that engaged employees are an important source of organizational competitiveness (Teng et al. 2007; Salanova & Schaufeli 2008). Engaged employees are those who give full discretionary effort at work, and are highly vigorous and dedicated to their job, while disengaged employees are those who are motivationally disconnected from work, who do not have the energy to work hard and who are not enthusiastic at work (Bakker et al. 2008; Towers Perrin 2009). By most accounts, employee engagement affects productivity, profitability, employee retention and customer services (Zigarmi et al. 2009; Xanthopoulou et al.

2009). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008), there are at least four reasons why engaged employees perform better than non-engaged employees. First, engaged employees often experience positive emotions (e.g., happiness, joy and enthusiasm). Second, engaged employees experience better health. Third, engaged employees create their own job resources and personal resources. Fourth, engaged employees transfer their engagement to others. Even so, not much is offered in the current body of knowledge concerning how best to stimulate employee engagement (Bakker et. al 2007; Bakker & Schaufeli 2008) and especially in the developing country context.

The earlier discussions underlined the government's role in providing suitable external environment for business success but external environmental conditions must be accompanied by internal human resource management factors (Pearce & Robinson, 2013). To attain competitive business performance, HRM should employ management processes and practices that will position them optimally in the competitive environment by maximising the anticipation of environmental changes and of unexpected internal and competitive demands (Pearce & Robinson, 2013). This calls for proper understanding of human resource management (micro-economic) factors to which we now turn by looking at studies in the Ugandan context that tend to underscore the need to link good HR practices, engagement and employee behavior.

Munthali, et al. (2010) study on remuneration discrepancies in Malawi and Uganda underlines the importance of compensation in building human resource capability and motivating performance. The study argues that perception of compensation unfairness between expatriates and locals may demotivate locals, leading to disengagement, job dissatisfaction, low commitment, absenteeism, turnover, corruption and reduced performance.

Zuyderduin et al (2010) research on Nurses in Uganda highlights the importance of strong networks for social support, empowerment (McQuide et al. 2007) and collaboration but also for professional development opportunities. These factors, they argue, have the potential to foster Nurses' commitment to quality care, increase job satisfaction, and reduce stress, burnout, and turnover.

A study by Kagaari, et al (2013) on performance of public universities in Uganda hints on the need to integrate employees into organizational decision-making and the need to be given opportunities, through decision-making, to voice their concerns on the issues such as job design, work organisation, technology choices and compensation (Young & Thyil, 2009). In particular, Kagaari, et al (2013) found that

public university management had established good working relationships with employees and supervisors, building support and trust and involving them in decision making, teamwork and collaboration for quality service delivery. They are also found to have vibrant staff development schemes and career paths for employees that motivate and promote engagement.

Kagaari, et al (2013) study found and supported earlier studies, that the work environment in an organisation shapes employee behaviour. In particular, work climate would impact on motivation and increase discretionary effort and performance. In support of the findings, Guest and Conway (2004) established that environments in which employees experience co-operation, flexibility and balance between work and personal life increases engagement and performance. In brief, Kagaari, et al (2013) finds that good employer-employee relations in public universities in Uganda create a good climate for motivation, engagement and delivery of quality services.

The above review has highlighted nine antecedents – (1) compensation fairness, (2) network of social support, (3) empowerment, (4) collaboration/teamwork, (5) career development opportunities, (6) employee involvement in decision making, (7) work climate, (8) flexibility, (9) work-life balance, and ten behavioural outcomes – (1) job satisfaction, (2) commitment, (3) absenteeism, (4) turnover, (5) corruption, (6) performance, (7) stress, (8) burnout, (9) discretionary effort, (10) quality service. The problem however, is that the level of empirical analysis is not rigorous, and also outside the domain of the sampled industry, hence the need to fill this gap using data from the soft drink industry in Uganda.

Statement of the Problem

There have been persistent theoretical and methodological questions raised about whether human resource practices have a direct link with performance (for example, Guest 2011). The debate is complicated by the introduction of a new and still contested construct as employee engagement into the equation. While early scholars tended to propose a direct link between human resource management practices and organizational performance, recent evidence suggests that the relationship is most likely mediated by a range of attitudinal and behavioral variables at the individual level, particularly job satisfaction, affective and continuance commitment, task performance, and OCB (Guest, Conway, & Dewe, 2004; Kuvaas, 2008; Snape & Redman, 2010). Efforts to understand the missing link between HR interventions and performance

outcomes have led to a number of studies that explore the mediating role played by either employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and commitment, behaviors such as task performance and OCB, and antecedents such as perceived organizational support, job design, employee training, employee policies and practices (Kuvaas, 2008; Snape & Redman, 2010; Sun et al., 2007). This study in the context of the employment relationship (Purcell 2013; Townsend et al. 2013; Jenkins & Delbridge 2013) is out to contribute to this debate by investigating the link between HR practices (antecedents), employee engagement and outcomes in soft drink industry in Uganda within the perspective of social exchange theory.

Although research has reported on the benefits of developing an engaged workforce (Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008; Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) few have dwelt on the antecedents–engagement–outcomes link. Researches within the last decade have suggested that there are antecedents to engagement that could enhance employee engagement and influence behavioural outcomes (Saks, 2006; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Wollard & Shuck 2011; Schaufeli, 2013; Shuck & Rose, 2013) but a lot remains unknown. Furthermore, the exact role of employee engagement in the link between the antecedents and the outcomes of engagement presents knowledge gap which has necessitated this research in the Ugandan context, especially in the Ugandan context and the soft drink industry in particular.

Literature search showed hardly any empirical study on the relationship between the HRM practices (antecedents), employee engagement and various outcome variables in Ugandan context and especially in soft drink industry. Hence the need to test the expanded employee engagement model (with antecedents, mediation, outcomes within the social exchange theory) in the Ugandan context.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to establish the relationship between employee engagement, its antecedents and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (turnover intent, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours) in soft drink industry in the Ugandan districts of Kampala, Mukono and Buikwe.

Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To ascertain the relationship between engagement antecedents and employee engagement;
2. To determine the relationship between employee engagement and the work outcomes. This is broken down into four parts, namely to determine the relationship between:
 - 2 a) employee engagement and job satisfaction
 - 2b) employee engagement and organizational commitment
 - 2c) employee engagement and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB)
 - 2d) employee engagement and turnover intent
3. To establish whether after controlling for the antecedents of engagement, employee engagement will predict unique variance in work outcomes. This is broken down into four parts, namely to determine whether employee engagement mediates the relationship between:
 - 3a) the antecedents of engagement and job satisfaction;
 - 3b) the antecedents of engagement and organizational commitment;
 - 3c) the antecedents of engagement and in organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB);
 - 3d) the antecedents of engagement and turnover intent

Hypothesis

H1: The antecedents of engagement are positively correlated with employee engagement.

H2: There is a relationship between employee engagement and work outcomes. This hypothesis is broken into four parts:

- H2a:* Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee job satisfaction;
- H2b:* Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee organizational commitment;

H2c: Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB);

H2d: Employee engagement will significantly negatively correlate with employee turnover intent.

H3: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in work outcomes. This hypothesis is broken down into four parts:

H3a: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee job satisfaction;

H3b: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee organizational commitment;

H3c: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB);

H3d: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee turnover intent

Scope of the Study

Geographical Scope

The study covered soft drink industry in the Ugandan districts of Kampala, Mukono, and Buikwe. The choice of soft drinks manufacturers were justified by the centrality of soft beverages to the healthcare sector, the general community and the industry's contribution to the economy as a source of revenue and employment (Friday, 2011). The choice of these three districts in the central region of Uganda was compelled by fact that of all the regions of Uganda, these three districts have the highest concentration of industries in Uganda, and particularly soft drink ones.

The 2010/11 census of business establishments in Uganda conducted by Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) revealed that 60% of the businesses were in the central region. The manufacturing sector, which includes food processing and other manufacturing, employed an average of 4 persons per business. This leaves the selected firms with average above 200 employees as one of the biggest firms in Uganda given 93% of all the businesses in Uganda employed less than 5 persons (UBOS, 2010/11).

Content Scope

The variables studied are the relationships between employee engagement, its antecedents and outcomes (turnover intent, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours) in soft drink industry in central Uganda. The study covered four large soft drink manufacturers in three districts of central Uganda - Crown Beverages Ltd (Kampala), Century Bottling Company Ltd (Mukono), Ruwenzori Bottling Company Ltd (Mukono) and Firm A (Buikwe).

Theoretical Scope

Although various theoretical approaches have been proposed to explain the underlying psychological and HR management factors responsible for employee engagement, so far the Kahn's (1990) model, the Schaufeli et al's (2002) Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) model and Homan's (1958) Social Exchange Theory (and its modifications) have received substantial empirical support (Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Saks, 2006; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008, and Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). However, the Social Exchange Theory is more superior as it is able to combine elements of both Kahn's and the JD-R model to explain the process through which various engagement antecedents are able to predict various outcomes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Homans, 1958, 1964; Blau, 1964; 1994 Cook & Emerson, 1978; Shaw et al., 1998; Tsui et al., 1997; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, & Gatenby, 2013; Alfes, Shantz, Truss and Soane, 2014) and is therefore adopted as theoretical framework for this research. The social exchange theory is able to adequately explain the mechanisms through which employee engagement mediates the relationship between the engagement antecedents and the outcomes.

Time Scope

The primary survey data was collected from March through September 2012. Interview data from selected key informants were collected through interview guide in June and July 2014.

Significance of the Study

The line managers and human resources Managers will benefit from the body of knowledge resulting from testing the relationship between employee engagement, its antecedents and vital human resource outcomes like turnover, job satisfaction, organization commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours. This new knowledge on employee engagement, antecedents and work outcomes will provide them with insight into the specific workplace practices that will have a positive effect on the engagement levels, increase job satisfaction, organization commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviours and reduce turnover. This new information could also serve as a structure for implementing focused and effective employee engagement interventions within organizations.

Researchers and academicians will benefit from the new knowledge generated by this research through theory building related to employee engagement, job satisfaction, organization commitment, organizational citizenship behaviours and turnover intent. For example, this research will extend and built on the current engagement theory and propose new ways of understanding employee engagement, its antecedents and its relationship to turnover intent and other work outcomes.

The employees will understand better how their engagement levels relate to job satisfaction, organization commitment, organizational citizenship behaviours and turnover intent and utilize the findings of this study to negotiate for improved work environment. The employers will also benefit when they utilize the findings of this research to improve the working environment and minimize the cost of turnover and increase job satisfaction, organization commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviours.

Management and Administrators as well as Human Resource Professionals will benefit from the findings of this study as it will help position them as important stakeholders in the future of their organization's success as the research variables are predicted to have a significant relation with vital HR outcome variables (e.g. turnover, job satisfaction, organization commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours).

The nation at large will benefit if all the positive work outcomes from engaged employees are realized - higher retention, efficiency and effectiveness, productivity, profitability, job satisfaction, organization commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours. The higher tax revenue payable by more efficient and productive

enterprises will benefit all nationals. Also the saving from the otherwise expensive turnovers will enable the companies undertake research and innovative ways of doing things for the benefit of all stakeholders.

Organization of the Dissertation

The Dissertation is structured into five chapters as follows. Chapter one entitled Introduction discusses the background in different perspectives, problem statement, purpose, objectives and scope as well as the significance of the study. Chapter two reviews the literature on employee engagement, its antecedents and outcomes starting with its conceptualization, then theoretical perspectives from which the conceptual framework for the study was derived. The chapter concludes by pointing out the gaps that this study is meant to fill. Chapter three gives an overview of the study methodology and describes in detail the research paradigm and design, the target population and sample size. The chapter also discusses the data collection methods, instruments, procedures and data analysis methods that were as well as the limitations. Chapter four is the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data obtained in tabular form and accompanied by interview transcripts. The section gives the profile characteristics of the employees, description of the objectives of the study and testing of hypotheses as used in the study. Chapter five gives the discussion of findings, contributions to knowledge, conclusions drawn, limitations and the recommendations made. The study ends by suggesting areas for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the conceptualization of employee engagement, theoretical perspectives, conceptual framework, review of related and relevant literature and the identified research gaps.

Employee engagement concept

Employee engagement was first mentioned by Kahn (1990) in an article in the *Academy of Management Journal*, where he defined personal engagement as “the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s ‘preferred self’ in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence, and active full role performances” (p. 700). Drawing from the work of Goffman (1961), Maslow (1970), and Alderfer (1972), Kahn (1990) submitted that the condition of meaningfulness, safety, and availability are important to fully understanding why a person becomes engaged. The major contribution by Kahn is the identification of the conditions in which engagement would be likely to exist. However, Kahn’s conceptualization has a weakness in that it did base on a theoretical conceptualization of engagement because of lack of literature on employee engagement in the 1990s and dependence on other psychological constructs such as job involvement and commitment at work. Kahn’s conceptualization lacked the comprehensiveness required to address what employee engagement truly is. Kahn’s (1990) conceptualization remained the only empirical work on employee engagement until the burnout construct led to the reintroduction of the concept.

Maslach and Leiter (1997) expanded their concept of burnout to include an erosion of engagement in the job and perceived engagement as being an opposite of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Maslach and Leiter (1997) reintroduced the concept of engagement as an energetic state of involvement that is posited to be the opposite of burnout. Engaged employees who are seen as energetic and take their work as a challenge appear as the opposite to burnt-out employees who are stressed and see their work as demanding (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris 2008). Maslach and Leiter (1997) added to their argument by asserting that, if an employee is not engaged, he or she will be more likely to move to the other end of the continuum and experience

burnout. The state of engagement is characterized as having high energy (as opposed to exhaustion), high involvement (as opposed to cynicism) and efficacy (as opposed to lack of efficacy). Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker and Lloret (2006) supported this view and further characterized it by activation, identification and absorption. Activation refers to having a sense of energy, identification is a positive relationship towards work, and absorption is being fully immersed in one's job. This school of thought improved on Kahn's (1990) definition of engagement as being 'present at work' by adding these three dimensions.

The burnout school of thought supported the notion that if an employee is not engaged, he or she will be likely to move to the other end of the continuum and experience burnout. The argument that engagement is the antithesis of burnout is this school's main weakness. Engagement is not the antithesis of burnout. When an employee is not engaged, it does not signify that he or she will be experiencing burnout. For example, an employee who does not have a good 'fit' with his or her job might find their job uninteresting and thus do their work routinely just to complete their tasks. However, he or she may not be suffering from exhaustion or burnout. Although burnout and engagement are conceptual opposites, they are still distinct concepts that do not lie on a continuum, and so different measures are required for assessing the construct.

Engagement has also been defined as an individual's involvement, satisfaction and enthusiasm for work (Harter et al. 2002). Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) published one of the earliest and most classic pieces of consulting work on employee engagement. They pulled data from a meta-analysis of about 8,000 business units across multiple fields of industry and were therefore the first to look at employee engagement at the business unit level. Their definition was derived from items in the Gallup Workplace Audit developed by the Gallup organization, which were based on employee perceptions of work characteristics. Perceptions of work characteristics resulted in this definition having conceptual overlaps with job involvement and job satisfaction. Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006) argued that job involvement is a function of the individual and should be seen as an antecedent in a research model, whereas engagement, on the other hand, should be seen as a dependent variable in a research model. Furthermore, this definition overlaps with the term 'job satisfaction'. Job satisfaction explains how content an individual is with his or her job; it is a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job (Locke 1976). Twelve of the

thirteen items used in the GWA explain the variance in job satisfaction. Concepts derived from the literature on satisfaction were used in explaining engagement.

Clearly, there are conceptual overlaps with both of these constructs describing engagement. This school of thought captures only one domain of employee engagement, i.e., being enthusiastic about work. Being strongly engaged in one's work does require a considerable sense of significance and enthusiasm at work. However, due to the fact that the definition of engagement was not theoretically developed and relied too much on perceptions of work characteristics, the definition from this school of thought is inadequate in explaining what engagement is. Perceptions of work characteristics, job involvement and satisfaction could be factors that affect employee engagement and not the concept itself. Clearly, there are conceptual overlaps in the constructs used by Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) to describe engagement.

Saks (2006) was the first academic research to specifically conceptualize and test antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. Before then consultancy literature was the only body of work linking employee engagement antecedents to employee engagement consequences. Saks (2006) defined employee engagement as "a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that are associated with individual role performance" (p. 602). This definition was inclusive of previous literature by suggesting that employee engagement was developed from cognitive (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001), emotional (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990), and behavioral elements (Harter et al., 2002; Maslach et al., 2001) and extended current thinking on the topic by developing a three-component model (Shuck, 2011). Saks (2006) used social exchange theory to try and explain why individuals will respond to the conditions proposed by Kahn (1990) with varying degrees of engagement and asserts that employees will repay their organizations for resources received by varying their level of engagement.

Truss et al. (2006) studied employee attitudes and engagement and proposed that employee engagement is a psychological state that employees have toward their organization and work and defined an engaged employee as a "passionate employee, the employee who is totally immersed in his or her work, energetic, committed and completely dedicated...the more engaged they will be, the better they will perform, and the less likely they will be to quit their organization" (p. 1). Simpson (2008) submitted that an engaged person should be physically involved, cognitively vigilant and emotionally connected while to Gebauer et al. (2008) an engaged employee must be

connected with the organization at three levels: the rational level, or how well an employee understands his role and responsibility; the emotional level, or how much passion and energy an employee brings to his/her work; and finally, the motivational level, or how well an employee performs in their role.

From the forgoing different conceptualizations of employee engagement this study justifies why Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) conceptualization of engagement is more precise. As an independent concept, employee engagement can best be defined as a "positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption" (Schaufeli et al. 2002, p.74). These three dimensions seem to provide a more precise, valid and comprehensive conceptualization (Kim et al. 2009; Schaufeli & Bakker 2004; Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova & Bakker 2002). From the psychological perspective, engagement is a state-like phenomenon which is portrayed as an affective-cognitive state-like condition. It is not a temporary state such as mood or as relatively non-flexible as fixed characteristics such as personality traits (Sweetman & Luthans 2010). It is deemed quite stable. Vigour is an abundance of energy at work, characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience. Dedication is emotional attachment to work while absorption is psychological (cognitive) attachment to work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). This study adopts this definition because it distinguishes employee engagement from other established measures of positive employment states such as job satisfaction and job involvement.

Perspectives (Models) of employee engagement

The academic approach to employee engagement is a recent phenomenon (Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Wefald & Downey, 2009) and scholarly research is in the early stages of development, not yet properly organized into collections of theoretical or conceptual frameworks. Using a search term *employee engagement* on scholarly and practitioner databases between 1990 and 2010 Shuck and Wollard (2010) found only 26 articles considered empirically driven scholarly research. A number of theoretical perspectives have been proposed, each putting emphasis on a different aspect, which cannot be integrated into one overarching conceptual model. Below, six approaches to understanding engagement are reviewed, four of which were crystallized by Shuck (2011) based on 213 reviewed publications searched from relevant HRM, psychology, and management databases: (1) The need-satisfying approach, (2) Maslach et al.'s (2001) burnout-antithesis approach (3) Harter et al.'s (2002) satisfaction-engagement

approach, (4) Saks' (2006) multidimensional approach (5) Schaufeli (2002) Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) model and (6) The Social Exchange Theory. A discussion of each approach follows.

1. The Needs-Satisfying approach

Five main studies make up the needs-satisfying approach – Kahn (1990), Kahn (1992), May, Gilson and Harter (2004), Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) and Shuck (2010). We look at each of them in brief.

Kahn (1990) pioneered the first application and use of engagement theory to the workplace when he published his grounded theoretical framework of personal engagement and disengagement in the *Academy of Management Journal*. He was the first to define engagement as a separate concept using research. According to Kahn's (1990; 1992) conceptualization, three psychological conditions are important to understanding how engagement develops: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. *Meaningfulness* is influenced by the nature of the job; that is, its task characteristics and role characteristics. Psychological *safety* is mainly influenced by the social environment; that is, by interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, management style, and social norms. Finally, *availability* depends on the personal resources that people can bring to their role performance, such as physical energy. Kahn (1992) in a conceptual study explored psychological presence and its meaning to employees and managers in a workplace context. In this second study he introduces the concept of meeting basic needs as a function of engagement.

May, Gilson, & Harter (2004)'s empirical study was the first to test Kahn's conceptualization of engagement. They found that meaningfulness and to a lesser degree also safety and availability, were positively associated with engagement. They also found in agreement with Kahn's theorizing that job enrichment and role fit were positively related to meaningfulness, whereas rewarding co-worker and supportive supervisor relations were positively related to safety, and personal resources were positively related to availability.

Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) is one of the recent studies to reexamine Kahn's original domains of engagement (e.g., meaningfulness, safety, availability) did an empirical survey of 245 firefighters employed across four Municipalities in the US. Their study provided empirical evidence that engagement (Kahn, 1990) mediated the relationship between value congruence, perceived organizational support, core self-

evaluation, and the two outcome variables, task performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

Shuck (2010), using Kahn's framework to study a sample of 283 employees in multiple fields of industry, suggested that job fit, affective commitment, and psychological climate were all significantly related to employee engagement and that employee engagement was significantly related to discretionary effort and intention to turnover.

Several antecedent variables are identifiable in this approach - challenging and meaningful work, including job design characteristics, interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, management style, social norms, job enrichment, role fit (job fit), rewarding co-worker, supportive supervisor relations, perceived organizational support, personal resources (e.g. physical energy), value congruence, core self-evaluation, affective commitment and psychological climate. Whereas the outcome variables identified in this approach are task performance and organizational citizenship behavior, discretionary effort and intention to turnover.

In brief the Needs-Satisfying approach assumes that when the job is challenging and meaningful, the social environment at work is safe, and personal resources are available, the needs for meaningfulness, safety and availability are satisfied and thus engagement is likely to occur. Although important for the theoretical thinking about engagement, the Needs-Satisfying approach is just slowly gaining momentum in empirical research (e.g. May, Gilson & Harter, 2004). Besides this approach does not clearly describe the process by which the antecedents influence the outcomes hence the need to review other approaches.

2. Burnout-Antithesis approach (Maslach et al, 2001)

Five main works in this approach are Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter (2001), Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Roma, and Bakker (2002), Shirom (2003), Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova, (2006) and Wefald (2008). These works are summarized below.

Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter (2001) provide the first major works on employee engagement after Kahn (1990). Maslach et al. (2001) pioneered reaching across academic boundaries for definitions of employee engagement, conceptualizing the construct as the positive antithesis to burnout. Rooted in occupational health psychology, two schools of thought exist on this issue. According to Maslach and Leiter (1997) and Maslach et al. (2001) engagement and burnout are the positive and negative

endpoints of a *single continuum*. Burnout was theorized to be the erosion of engagement and occurs when once important, meaningful, and challenging work became unpleasant, unfulfilling, and meaningless. More specifically, engagement is characterized by energy, involvement and efficacy, which are considered the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions exhaustion, cynicism and lack of accomplishment, respectively. By implication that means that persons who are high on engagement are inevitably low on burnout, and vice versa.

Schaufeli, et al (2002) tested Maslach et al. (2001) burnout model using a measure of employee engagement in empirical study of 314 Spanish university students and 619 Spanish employees from private and public companies. Results indicated a negative relationship between levels of burnout and employee engagement. They consider employee engagement as a *distinct concept* that is negatively related to burnout. In their own terminology, work engagement, is defined as a concept in its own right as: “a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, et al, 2002, p.74). To date, most academic research on engagement uses the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), a brief, valid and reliable questionnaire that is based on the definition of work engagement as a combination of vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, 2013).

Shirom (2003) in a conceptual study examined the Maslach et al. (2001) and Schaufeli, et al. (2002) models of engagement and proposed that engagement was a separate psychological state, quite different from other psychological constructs. He proposed several research questions around the psychological state of vigour.

Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova, (2006) in empirical studies of 14,521 data points across 27 studies carried out between 1999 and 2003 in 10 different countries to establishment the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), characterized engagement as a positive work-related state of being inclusive of vigour, dedication, and absorption building on the earlier Schaufeli et al. (2002) model.

Wefald (2008) in an empirical study of 382 employees and managers at a mid-sized financial institution in the US critically examined the concept of employee engagement and provided empirical evidence regarding its validity as a work-related construct.

As a critique of the Maslach et al. (2001) and Schaufeli et al. (2002) models, Johnson (2003) suggested that this approach to understanding engagement is devoid of the cognitive engagement processes conceptualized by Kahn (1990) and focuses only

on emotional and physical absence of burnout. Shorim (2007) suggested that as a result of the Maslach et al. (2001) and Schaufeli et al. (2002) models, employee engagement could be differentiated from other psychological constructs such as flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 2003), commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and peak experiences (Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002). Studies using a similar framework provide additional empirical support for the Maslach et al. (2001) approach (for example, see Shrager, 2007; Shorim, 2003, 2007; Weferald, 2008).

Despite the criticisms, research on burnout-antithesis approach led to the development of engagement as a distinctive construct negatively related to burnout. The approach has been very useful in differentiating engagement from other psychological constructs like flow, commitment, satisfaction, extra-role behavior. Apart from this distinction-making role, this approach does not help us understand the link between employee engagement, its antecedents and the outcomes, especially the process of mediation.

Although both Kahn's (1990) and Maslach et al.'s (2001) models indicate the psychological conditions or antecedents that are necessary for engagement, they do not fully explain why individuals will respond to these conditions with varying degrees of engagement. A stronger theoretical rationale for explaining employee engagement can be found in social exchange theory (SET) which will be explained later (Saks, 2006, Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

3. Harter et al. (2002) Satisfaction-engagement approach

About six sources have so far contributed to the Satisfaction-engagement approach - Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes (2002), Buckingham and Coffman (1999), Luthans and Peterson (2002), Arakawa and Greenberg (2007), Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2003), Wagner and Harter (2006).

Harter et al. (2002) as an outgrowth of the positive psychology movement of the early 21st century published one of the most widely cited researches on employee engagement. As promoters of the Gallup Organization research they defined employee engagement as "an individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work" (Harter et al., 2002: 269). Thus, like the definitions of other consultancy firms, Gallup's engagement concept seems to overlap with well-known traditional constructs such as job involvement and job satisfaction.

Harter et al. (2002), used data from a meta-analysis of about 8,000 business units across multiple fields of business unit levels to establish relationship between employee engagement-satisfaction and business unit outcomes. Their results suggested that employee engagement had a positive relationship to important business outcomes such as customer satisfaction, turnover, safety, productivity and profitability. Buckingham and Coffman (1999) was the first widely publicized literature to distribute the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA), a well recognized and proprietary 12-item questionnaire to measure employee engagement – (popularly known as Q12).

Researchers using the Harter et al. (2002) approach have continued to release updates (Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes, 2003; Wagner & Harter, 2006) and new findings (Fleming & Asplund, 2007), whereas other scholars have focused on well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Studies of similar framework provide additional empirical support for use of the Harter et al. (2002) approach (Arakawa & Greenberg, 2007; Heger, 2007).

Luthans and Peterson (2002) extended Harter et al. (2002) model by examining the relationship between employee engagement and manager self efficacy and perception of effective management practices. Results indicated that manager self-efficacy had a positive relationship with employee engagement. Arakawa and Greenberg (2007) explored the role of managers in the development of employee engagement. They provide evidence that management style could affect the level of engagement, optimism, and performance of a team. Harter, Schmidt and Keyes (2003) discuss the role of employee engagement as a function of well-being. One of the first publications to suggest health benefits as an outcome of being engaged. Wagner and Harter (2006) made follow-up study to the *New York Times* best seller *First Break All the Rules* and by using the GWA, they provide specific strategies for promoting full engagement of employees.

Rather than experiencing engagement in terms of involvement, satisfaction and enthusiasm, the Q12 measures the several *antecedents* of engagement in terms of perceived job resources. Some of which are - clarity of expectations and basic materials and equipment provided; feelings of contribution to the organization; feeling a sense of belonging to something other than oneself; and feeling as though there are opportunities to discuss progress and grow (Simpson, 2008, p.9).

The Satisfaction-Engagement approach has had a significant impact in academia, because Gallup's research has established meaningful links between

employee engagement and business unit outcomes, such as customer satisfaction, profit, safety, productivity and turnover (Harter et al., 2002). Recent developments in engagement research link engagement with several aspects of employee wellbeing (Career, social, financial, physical, and community - Rath & Harter, 2010).

Despite this approach's contribution to the development of the antecedents-engagement-outcome link and the popularization of the linkage between engagement and business level outcomes, this approach does not make clear distinctions between employee job satisfaction, involvement and engagement, and yet these are different constructs and may in fact be consequences of engagement (May et al, 2004; Saks, 2006).

4. Saks' (2006) multidimensional approach

Major promoters of the multidimensional approach are Saks (2006), Britt, Castro, and Adler (2005), Macey and Schneider (2008), Zigarmi, Nimmon, Houson, Witt, and Diehl (2009), Shuck and Wollard (2010). A summary of the developments are given below.

Saks (2006) hypothesized that employee engagement developed through a social exchange model and was the first academic researcher to separate *job engagement* (performing the work role) and *organizational engagement* (performing the role as a member of the organization) (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli, 2013). In his conceptualization, Saks (2006) defined the emerging multidimensional concept of employee engagement as "a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that are associated with individual role performance" (p. 602). This definition was inclusive of previous literature by suggesting that employee engagement was developed from cognitive (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001), emotional (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990), and behavioral elements (Harter et al., 2002; Maslach et al., 2001) and extended current thinking on the topic by developing a three-component model (Shuck, 2011).

To test the three-component model (cognitive-emotional-behavioral), Saks (2006) collected data from 102 working graduate students at a Canadian university. Results indicated a positive relationship between the antecedents - job characteristics, perceived organization support, and procedural justice and engagement ($r = .37$; $r = .36$; $r = .18$). Further it was reported that job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit had an outcome relation with employee engagement ($r = .26$; $r = .17$; $r =$

-22). Perceived supervisor support and rewards and recognition were also tested antecedent variables, but no significance was indicated.

Saks (2006) was the first research to examine antecedents and consequences to employee engagement in the academic literature. Prior to Saks practitioner research was the only body of work connecting employee engagement antecedents to employee engagement outcomes. This research extended Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) model of engagement by suggesting that engagement could be experienced emotionally and cognitively and manifested behaviorally.

Providing support for Saks (2006) model Britt, Castro, and Adler (2005), examined the role of psychological, emotional, and cognitive resources on US combat soldiers. Results indicate that engaged employees - whether soldiers or team members - experience less stress and fatigued when engaged in their work (Shuck, 2011). Rich et al. (2010) provided similar empirical evidence and is the first known research to examine the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects of Kahn's conceptualization of engagement, paralleling the Saks (2006) model of engagement.

Macey and Schneider (2008) work extended Saks's (2006) model suggesting that each proceeding state of engagement (cognitive-emotional-behavioral) build on the next, eventually leading to complete engagement (Kahn, 1990). They were the first to conceptualize trait, state, and behavioral engagement as separate but related constructs.

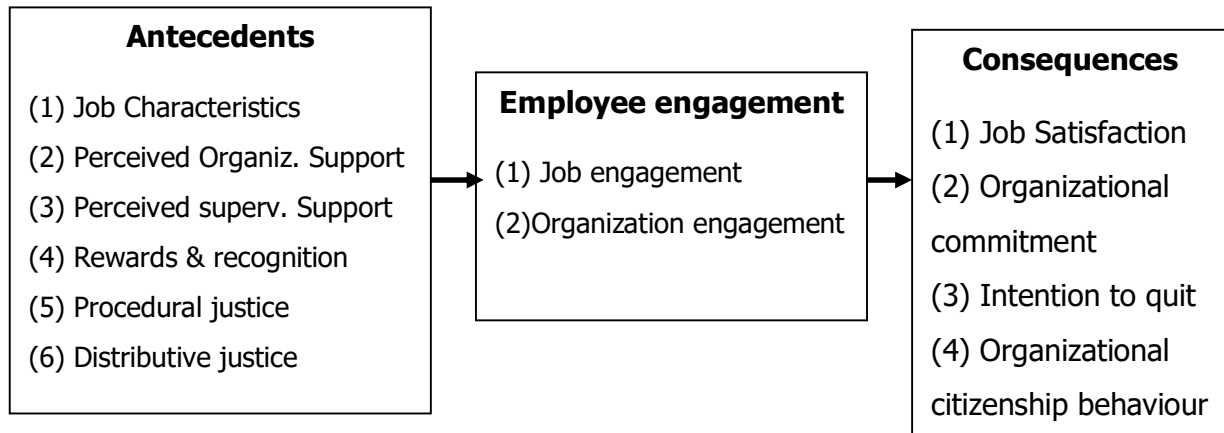
Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, and Diehl (2009) published conceptual research using a multidimensional approach, built from previous frameworks, which became the first article to introduce the concept of employee work passion as an emergent construct, unique from employee engagement.

Shuck and Wollard (2010) conducted an empirical integrated literature review of employee engagement concept and defined engagement as "an individual employee's cognitive, emotional, and behavioral state directed toward desired organizational outcomes" (p. 103). This definition used the multidimensional framework espoused by Saks (2006) but was inclusive of early research on engagement (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli, et al., 2002) and grounded in emerging frameworks (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Saks, 2006).

Saks's (2006) multidimensional approach remains widely cited in the literature (Macey & Schneider, 2008) and is often used as a framework for emerging

employee engagement models (see, for example, Dalal, Brummel, Wee, & Thomas, 2008; Macey et al., 2009, Schuck, 2011).

Fig 2.1 Saks' (2006) Model of antecedents and consequences of EE



Evaluation of the four approaches to understanding engagement

Several aspects of employee engagement have been studied in a variety of theoretical and conceptual spaces in the above four approaches. Taken together, these four approaches each stress a different aspect of engagement: (1) its relation with role performance; (2) its positive nature in terms of employee wellbeing as opposed to burnout; (3) its relation with resourceful jobs; and (4) its relation with both the job as well as with the organization.

Although no research has suggested that one approach is academically more accepted than another, the debate is certainly still on (Newman et al., 2010); Maslach et al. (2001) is by far the most widely cited (Christian & Slaughter, 2007). Regardless of each approach proposing a different perspective, the varying approaches agree that the development of employee engagement inside organizations has the potential to significantly impact important organizational outcomes (Saks, 2006; Arakawa & Greenberg, 2007; Christian et al., 2011, Shuck, 2011). Rather than asking which approach is the right approach, researchers should ask, "What question about engagement am I hoping to answer?" (Shuck, 2011). Similar to choosing a research method (Creswell, 2003), the approach used to study engagement should match the

question, definition, and chosen measurement tool and must be grounded within the subject context (shuck 2011).

Since the issue of approach and operational definition is important, Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) propose a more restrictive model that considers work engagement as an experienced psychological state which mediates the impact of job resources and personal resources on organizational outcomes. Unlike Macey and Schneider (2008), who present an all-inclusive taxonomy that covers the entire range of concepts which have been associated with engagement, Schaufeli and Bakker model distinguishes the *experience* of work engagement from its perceived *antecedents* and *consequences*. That means that neither resourceful jobs (as in the Satisfaction-Engagement approach) nor employees' performance behavior (as in the business approach) are conceived as constituting elements of work engagement.

Nonetheless, these antecedents and consequences could (and should) be included in research and practice, but they are considered to be distinct concepts. For instance, a job can be resourceful but an employee might not feel engaged because of family problems. Alternatively, an employee might feel engaged but not show initiative (i.e. extra-role behavior) because of constraints at work. These two examples illustrate that the experience of work engagement is neither inherently linked to challenging work nor to performance and should therefore be treated as a separate entity (Schaufeli, 2013).

This leads us to another model (The job demands-resources model) and theory (Social exchange theory) which are now evaluated individually below and later in combination to guide this research.

5. The job demands-resources model (JD-R)

A host of studies on work engagement have used the Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) model as an explanatory framework (see Bakker and Demerouti, 2008, and Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). Particularly scholars who believe that engagement is the antithesis of burnout use the JD-R model because it conceptualizes burnout and engagement as two separate constructs that are integrated in an overarching conceptual model.

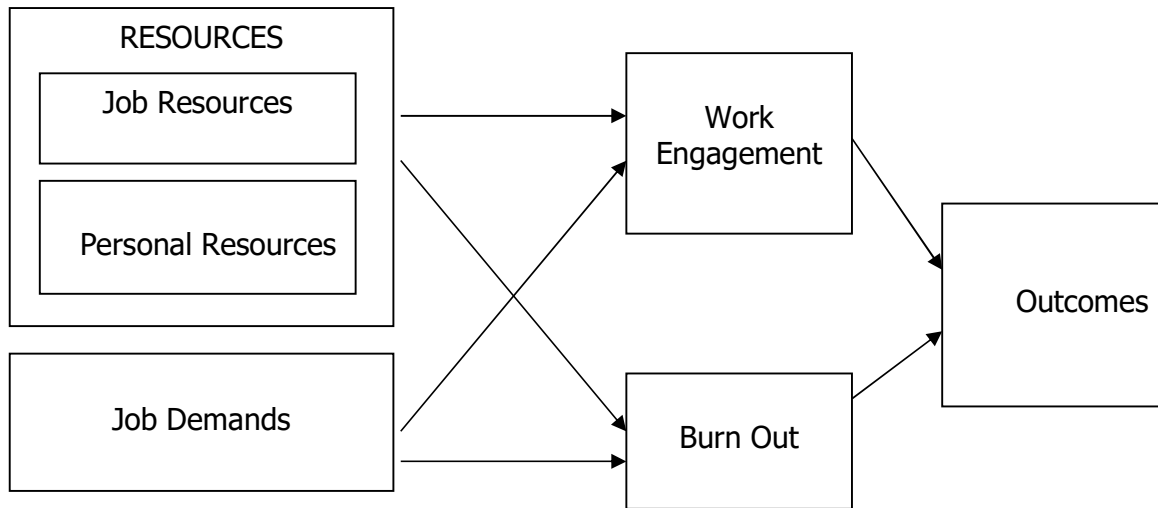
Essentially, the JD-R model assumes that work engagement results from the inherently motivating nature of resources, whereby two types of resources are

distinguished; (1) job resources, which are defined as those aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands, or stimulate personal growth and development (e.g., performance feedback, job control, and social support from colleagues); (2) personal resources, which are defined as aspects of the self that are associated with resiliency and that refer to the ability to control and impact one's environment successfully (e.g., self-efficacy, optimism and emotional stability).

According to the JD-R model, resources energize employees, encourage their persistence, and make them focus on their efforts. Or put differently, resources foster engagement in terms of vigour (energy), dedication (persistence) and absorption (focus). Furthermore, the JD-R model assumes that, in its turn, engagement produces positive outcomes such as job performance. So taken together, the JD-R model posits that work engagement mediates the relationship between job and personal resources on the one hand and positive outcomes on the other hand. This is called the *motivational process*, which is represented by the upper part of the model (Fig 2.4).

But also a second but negative process also operates - the so-called *health impairment process* which is represented in the lower part of the model (Fig 2.2). This process is sparked by job demands, which are defined as those aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort (e.g., work overload, time pressure, role conflict, and red tape). When job demands are high, additional effort must be exerted to achieve the work goals and to prevent decreasing performance. This compensatory effort obviously comes with physical and psychological costs, such as fatigue and irritability. When recovery is inadequate or insufficient, employees may gradually exhaust their energy backup and might eventually burn out. In its turn, burnout may lead to negative outcomes such as depression, cardiovascular disease, or psychosomatic complaints (Melamed, Shirom, Toker, Berliner, & Shapira, 2006).

Fig 2.2 - The Job Demands-Resources model



As can be seen from Figure 2.2 cross-links also exist between the motivational and the health-impairment processes. More specifically, poor resources may foster burnout, whereas job demands might increase work engagement. However, the latter is only true for the so-called challenge demands that have the potential to promote mastery, personal growth, and future gains (e.g. time pressure, high workload and high job responsibility).

In contrast, hindrances that have the potential to thwart personal growth, learning and goal attainment (e.g. role conflict, red tape, and hassles) do not have an impact on work engagement. Using a meta-analysis based on 64 independent samples, Crawford, LePine and Rich (2010) found that demands were positively related to burnout, but that the relations between demands and engagement varied with the nature of the demand: hindrances related *negatively* and challenges related *positively* to engagement.

Moreover, abundant empirical evidence exists for the main assumption of the JD-R model; the presence of a motivational and a health impairment process. For instance, Schaufeli and Taris (2014) reviewed the results of 16 cross-sectional studies from seven countries and concluded that in *all cases* mediating effects of engagement and burnout were found, albeit that in four cases partial instead of full mediation was observed. That means that in addition to an indirect effect of demands and resources via engagement and burnout, also a direct effect on outcomes occurred. In the study

significant crosslinks in 13 of the cases were found, particularly between poor job resources and burnout. However, no causal inferences can be made from cross-sectional studies so that it cannot be ruled out that, for instance, high levels of engagement lead to more favourable perceptions of resources (reversed causation).

So what about longitudinal evidence about the direction of causation? A three-year follow-up study among Finnish dentists (Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008) supported both the motivational process and the health impairment process. It appeared that job resources influenced future work engagement, which, in its turn, predicted organizational commitment, whereas job demands predicted burnout over time, which, in its turn, predicted future depression. No reversed causation was observed – that is, neither burnout nor engagement predicted job demands or job resources. In a similar study among Dutch managers, increases in job demands and decreases in job resources predicted burnout across a one-year period, whereas increases in resources predicted work engagement (Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen, 2009). Moreover, burnout predicted future absence duration (an indicator of health impairment), whereas work engagement predicted future absence frequency (an indicator of employee motivation).

Another one year follow-up study among Australian university staff showed that job resources predicted psychological strain (negatively) and organizational commitment (positively), but failed to confirm the effect of job demands on strain (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata et al., 2011). Again, no reversed causal effects were detected. In a final longitudinal study spanning 18 months, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009) found that personal resources (i.e., self-efficacy, optimism, and organization-based self-esteem) predicted later work engagement next to job resources (i.e., control, supervisory coaching, feedback, and opportunities for development).

Growing empirical evidence suggests the dynamic nature of the motivational process of the JD-R model as far as job performance is concerned. That is, a feedback loop seems to exist that runs back from performance and engagement to job and personal resources (see Salanova, Schaufeli, Xanthopoulou and Bakker, 2010, for a review). This feedback loop is consistent with the notion of resource accumulation after successful performance. For instance, when an engaged employee accomplishes his or her work task successfully, this not only increases his or her level of self-efficacy (a belief that acts as a personal resource), but also leads to positive feedback from one's supervisor (a job resource). In a somewhat similar vein, in their three-wave study Weigl,

Horning, Parker et al. (2010) found evidence for the existence of a gain spiral between work engagement and both job resources (i.e. job control and social support) and personal resources (i.e. active coping). Hence, it seems that increases in work engagement lead to increases in resources, and vice versa.

The Social exchange theory

Homans (1961) defined social exchange as the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons. The theory's fundamental principle is that humans in social situations choose behaviors that maximize their likelihood of meeting self-interests in those situations. We begin by giving the assumptions of theory before we discuss its application.

The basic assumption of social exchange theory is that individuals establish and continue social relations on the basis of their expectations that such relations will be mutually advantageous. The initial impetus for social interaction is provided by the exchange of benefits, intrinsic and extrinsic, independently of normative obligations (Blau, 1964, 1994). It operates on the assumption that individuals are generally rational and engage in calculations of costs and benefits in social exchanges. This assumption reflects the perspective that social exchange theory largely attends to issues of decision making.

Second, social exchange theory builds on the assumption that those engaged in interactions are rationally seeking to maximize the profits or benefits to be gained from those situations, especially in terms of meeting basic individual needs. In this respect, social exchange theory assumes social exchanges between or among two or more individuals are efforts by participants to fulfill basic needs.

Third, exchange processes that produce payoffs or rewards for individuals lead to patterning of social interactions. These patterns of social interaction not only serve individuals' needs but also constrain individuals in how they may ultimately seek to meet those needs. Individuals may seek relationships and interactions that promote their needs but are also the recipients of behaviors from others that are motivated by *their* desires to meet their own needs.

Social exchange theory further assumes that individuals are goal-oriented in a freely competitive social system. Because of the competitive nature of social systems, exchange processes lead to differentiation of power and privilege in social groups. As in

any competitive situation, power in social exchanges lies with those individuals who possess greater resources that provide an advantage in the social exchange. As a result, exchange processes lead to differentiation of power and privilege in social groups. Those with more resources hold more power and, ultimately, are in a better position to benefit from the exchange.

From a social exchange perspective, human behavior may be viewed as motivated by desire to seek rewards and avoid potential costs in social situations. Humans are viewed as rationally choosing more beneficial social behaviors as a result of rational reviews of all available information. Because all behavior is costly in that it requires an expenditure of energy on the part of the actor, only those behaviors that are rewarded or that produce the least cost tend to be repeated. Generally speaking, social exchange theory proposes that individuals are motivated to gain rewards in social exchanges. In the absence of apparent rewards, individuals in social exchanges may be primarily motivated to avoid costs in those exchanges. Costs are either punishments or forfeited rewards that result from social exchanges.

The foundation of the theory was laid in 1958 by an American sociologist George Caspar Homans in his article, *Social Behaviour as Exchange* (Homans, 1958). At the heart of social exchange theory are the concepts of equity and reciprocity. Equity refers to the perceived balance in the partner's contributions and outcomes. An individual is *under benefited* in a relationship if he or she contributes more but receives less than his or her partner. The state of *over benefit* occurs when one is contributing less but receiving more than one's partner. Both *under benefit* and *over benefit* inequity is predicted to strain the relationship and cause distress leading to overall reduction in satisfaction and commitment (Hatfield, Utne, & Traupmann, 1979; Davidson, 1984; Sprecher & Schwartz, 1994).

Homans (1961) originally introduced the notion that individuals are most comfortable when they perceive they are receiving benefits from a relationship approximately equal to what they are putting into the relationship. Homans once summarized the theory in this way - social behavior is an exchange of goods - both material and non-material and persons that give much to others tend to get much from them, and persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them. This is the principle of reciprocity that keeps the recipient in a state of indebtedness until the donor has been repaid in kind – a condition Gouldner (1960, p. 174) refers to as the 'norms of reciprocity'.

It is believed that the reciprocal relationships evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments as long as the parties abide by certain “rules” of exchange (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). For example, when individuals receive economic and non-economic resources from their organization, they feel obliged to respond in kind and repay the organization (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). This is consistent with Robinson *et al.*’s (2004) description of engagement as a two-way relationship between the employer and employee. One way for individuals to repay their organization is through their level of engagement. That is, employees will choose to engage themselves to varying degrees and in response to the resources (*inducements*, Shaw et al, 2009) they receive from their organization. Bringing oneself more fully into one’s work roles and devoting greater amounts of cognitive, emotional, and physical resources is a very profound way for individuals to respond to an organization’s positive actions.

There is growing awareness that employees’ work attitudes and behaviours are important factors influencing organizational performance outcomes (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997). To a large extent, positive attitudes depend on employees’ perceptions of how much the employing organization cares about their well-being and values their contribution (Allen et al., 2003). This view is consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) which is premised on the assumption that the exchange of favours creates a sense of obligation or indebtedness on the part of the recipient to the donor.

In essence, social exchange theory argues that relationships at work evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments as long as all parties involved abide by reciprocity or repayment rules. For example, when employees receive particular resources (*inducements*, Shaw et al, 2009) from their organization (e.g., a decent salary, recognition, and opportunities of development) they feel obliged to respond in kind and “repay” the organization. Following this lead, Saks (2006) argues that one way for individuals to repay their organization is through engagement. In other words, employees will engage themselves to varying degrees and in response to the resources (*inducements*, Shaw et al, 2009) they receive from their organization. In terms of Kahn’s (1990) definition of engagement, employees feel obliged to bring themselves more deeply into their role performances as repayment for the resources they receive from their organization. Alternatively, when the organization fails to provide these resources, individuals are more likely to withdraw and disengage themselves from their roles, which eventually might result in burnout (Schaufeli, 2013).

A theory that can most appropriately explain the link between the HR practices (antecedents) and the outcomes (consequences) of employee engagement is the social exchange theory. Social exchange theory views interactions between individuals as an exchange of goods and services that is carried out in pursuit of individual goals (Homans, 1958). The terms of the exchange reflect the relative power of each partner. The partner who is least dependent on the relationship for valued benefits has greater bargaining power to improve on the exchange (Cook & Emerson, 1978). In social exchange theory behavior is motivated by the desire to maximize positive experiences and minimize negative experiences through social interaction (Weiss and Stevens, 1993). In the employee-employer context, organizations are forums for transactions (Cropanzano, 2005) through which, for example, one exchanges work for pay and other benefits. Generally speaking, the theory assumes at least two exchange partners. One of these partners is the employee and the other is the immediate supervisor.

Social exchange theories (Homans, 1961, Blau, 1964; Ekeh, 1974) and employee-organization relationship frameworks (Coyle-Shapiro, Shore, Taylor, & Tetrick, 2004; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Hite, 1995) have suggested that organizations create HR management systems that offer different forms of exchange relationships. HRM systems reflect the different investments organizations make in their employees and also the different behaviors organizations expect of their employees (Shaw, Dineen, Fang & Vellella, 2009). Employers look for employees who are dependable, who have the skills and experience to contribute effectively to their business, and with positive attitude, strong work ethic, high integrity and honesty, ability to work within a team and independently. Employees on the other hand expect employers to give them a contract with clear roles and responsibilities, adequate work resources/supplies, good communication (channels), respect, equitable pay, career development, performance feedback, good working conditions, achievable goals, good leadership, reasonable autonomy and clear and fair policies.

In an organizational context, HR managers use practices and policies to establish the rules of exchange or the normative definition of the situation that forms among participants (Emerson, 1976) and also to specify the resources or content of exchange. Exchange resources are typically characterized as either tangible or socio-emotional in organizational research (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Using these exchange rules and resources, one can conceptualize employee-organization exchange

relationships from the viewpoint of employers along two distinct dimensions - employer expectations about specific desired contributions from employees and the inducements offered to effect the desired contributions (Tsui et al., 1997; Shaw et al, 2009). From the viewpoint of employees, employee inputs can be categorized as specific, narrow, and often short-term contributions versus broadly defined and open-ended contributions (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

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Studies of mediation often draw on social exchange theory to provide an explanatory framework. Studies of engagement, like those of high performance HRM practices, draw on social exchange theory to suggest that employees will become engaged with their work when antecedents (*inducements*, Shaw et al, 2009) are in place that signal to them that they are valued and trusted (Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006). Innovative, efficient and human resource practices that the employee enjoys have been found to increase levels of engagement and this leads to increases in organisational effectiveness (Agarwala 2003). When an employee feels attached to, is involved with and identifies with the values of the organisation, hence being engaged, the organisation will reciprocate, especially when the employee exceeds the minimum requirements of their job by helping others and the organization (Chang & Chelladurai 2003).

Gould-Williams (2007) conducted a research on UK local government workers in which the effects of social and negative exchanges on work-related attitudes

and behaviours were assessed. HR practices and organizational climate were used as measures of social exchange. Negative exchanges were based on measures capturing non-supportive management practices and unfair treatment. The findings suggest that, consistent with social exchange theory, positive exchanges lead to enhanced worker attitude and behaviour, with negative exchanges leading to increased work-related stress, reduced motivation and a greater propensity to quit (Gould-Williams, 2007).

Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, & Gatenby (2013) used a social exchange framework, to argue that employee experiences of HRM practices interact with perceived line manager behaviour to impact on levels of employee engagement and individual performance. Their findings are consistent with social exchange theory, which suggests that organizations able to cultivate a climate of reciprocity will draw out positive attitudinal and behavioral outcomes from employees. Within a social exchange relationship, their findings suggest that employees' positive perceptions of organizational investments in them, reflected through line manager behaviour and perceived HRM practices, will cause them to reciprocate through willingness to engage cognitively, affectively, and behaviourally, and leading to high levels of task performance and innovative work behavior (Alfes et al, 2013).

Recently, using a social exchange perspective Alfes, Shantz, Truss and Soane (2014) showed that the relationships between engagement and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as well as that between engagement and turnover intention was moderated by perceived organizational support and by the relationship with the supervisor. More specifically, when engaged employees felt supported by their organization and when they had a good relation with their supervisor, they exhibited more citizenship behaviour and less intention to quit (Alfes et al, 2014).

Choice of Theory

Although various theoretical approaches have been proposed to explain the underlying psychological and HR management factors responsible for employee engagement, so far the Kahn's (1990) model, the Schaufeli et al's (2002) Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) model and Homan's (1958) Social Exchange Theory (and its modifications) have received substantial empirical support (Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Saks, 2006; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008, and

Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). However, the Social Exchange Theory is more superior as it is able to combine elements of both Kahn's and the JD-R model to explain the process through which various engagement antecedents are able to predict various outcomes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Homans, 1958, 1964; Blau, 1964; 1994 Cook & Emerson, 1978; Shaw et al., 1998; Tsui et al., 1997; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, & Gatenby, 2013; Alfes, Shantz, Truss and Soane, 2014) and is therefore adopted as theoretical framework for this research. The social exchange theory is able to adequately explain the mechanisms through which employee engagement mediates the relationship between the engagement antecedents and the outcomes.

Employee engagement, its antecedents and outcomes (the HRM perspective)

In Human Resource Management terminology, antecedents of employee engagement are better described as *supportive* HR Practices (or generally HPWP). Literature has shown that such practices tend to be part and parcel of an approach that emphasize high quality goods and services, and engaged and empowered human resources (Appelbaum, 2002; Huselid & Becker, 1997; Tamkin, 2004). The classical approach to strategic HRM implies that the role of the HR-function and practice is to maximize the contribution of human assets in order to achieve corporate goals. It encompasses approaches by which we attempt to link individual attitude and role behavior to organizational performance in a logical and rational manner (see, for example Huselid, 1995).

The high performance HR practices is seen by some scholars to work more effectively in combination (bundles), for example, training and skills, participation, empowerment, communication and compensation. Discussion of impact suggests that HPWPs act to improve the self confidence and flexibility of the workforce and contribute to increased motivation, morale and commitment, which in turn are related to individual and business performance (Becker & Huselid, 1998, 2006; Appelbaum, 2002). To be in line with scholarly terminologies, the package of work-place changes, re-organization, and human resource practices are better presented as systems which have been given various terms ranging from good people management systems, to high involvement management practices, to strategic HRM, to HPWPs (Tamkin, 2004; Becker & Huselid, 1998, 2006).

Reviews of 'bundles' of practices have sought to find which practices are most often included in HPWPs. It has been argued (Bosalie and Dietz, 2003) that practices relating to employee development and training, participation, and empowerment (teamwork and autonomy), information sharing, and compensation systems are most often combined (Tamkin, 2004; Appelbaum, 2002). Because no exact number of practices in the HPWPs 'bundle' are agreed upon (Boxall, & Macky, 2007, Delery, 1998; Becker & Huselid, 1997, 2006; MacDuffie, 1996; Thompson, 2000; Guest, 2000; Batt, 2002), this study looks at nine very common set of supportive HRM practices – Job characteristics, role clarity, material supplies, collaboration/teamwork, reward & recognition, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security, employee development, which have been found to have impact on HR outcomes (Rich et al, 2010; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Xanthopoulou, 2009; Seigts & Crim, 2006; Harter et al, 2002; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Kahn 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Mikovich & Newman, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and hence to test the model in the context soft drink industry in Uganda .

HRM in contemporary organizations became a source of competitive advantage in the 1980s when it moved from the traditional clerical function to strategic management role and thereby constitute an essential ingredient for achieving organizational and individual performance. Researchers (Becker & Huselid, 1998, 2006; Appelbaum, 2002 Uysal, 2012) have found strong, positive and significant relationship among HRM policies and practices and employee-based organizational outcomes. Several scholars found positive relationships between HRM policies/practices and variables like commitment, productivity, profitability and quality, among others (Guest & Conway, 2011; Schneider & Bowen, 1985; Boselie et al, 2005; Frenkel et al, 2012; Demo et al, 2012). A meta-analysis performed by Combs, Liu, Hall, and Ketchen (2006) found that relationships between HR practices and organizational outcomes are stronger in manufacturing companies than in service companies.

In cultures other than the American and European context, Majumder (2012) confirmed strong relationships between HRM practices and employee satisfaction in Bangladeshi private banks, while Kim and Lee (2012) found evidence that HRM policies and practices improve strategic capabilities and firm performance in management consulting firms in South Korea. There is indeed a consensus that HRM practices produce higher organizational performance when integrated into business strategy (Ezzamel, Lilley, & Willmott, 1996; Guest & Hoque, 1994), even for small firms. The

study conducted by Katou (2012) showed that HRM policies have a positive effect on organizational performance through employee attitudes (satisfaction, commitment, motivation) and employee behaviors (absences, turnover, disputes).

HRM practices represent the conceptual dimensions of social exchange that manifest not only the rules or norms of exchange from an employer's point of view, but also specify the resources of exchange between employers and employees. Certain HRM practices (e.g., proper job design, training, pay level, benefits level, job security, procedural & distributive justice) reflect higher levels of inducements and investments (rewards) offered to employees (Shaw et al., 1998; Tsui et al., 1997). On the other hand, certain HRM practices reflect higher levels of employer expectations about employee performance levels. Individual pay-for-performance systems, employee monitoring, and formal performance appraisals are examples of such practices (Shaw et al., 1998). From an employer's perspective, the goal of these practices is to raise overall performance levels and perhaps to categorize employees by performance level (Gerhart & Rynes, 2003). In doing so, employers place greater demands on or institute stronger systems of accountability for employees. This presents a fair exchange relationship.

These HRM practices (inducements and investments, Shaw et al, 2009) are likely to elicit increased positive emotional responses to the organization and are likely to decrease turnover intent (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). High levels of pay and benefits are tangible inducements that can be readily used for comparison with levels in potential alternative employment opportunities. Training, job security, proper job designs, role clarity and other intrinsic HR practices are less tangible, but employees can interpret each practice as a retention inducement and a long term perception of the employment relationship. Drawing on exchange theory ideas, Shaw et al. (1998), for example, argued that lack of stability implies a breach of informal organizational contracts and will diminish employees' engagement, attachment and perceived organizational responsibility (Ashford, Lee, and Bobko, 1989).

From an employer's perspective, HRM inducements and investments (positive HRM practices or job resources) represent a sustained commitment to workers and an attempt to build deep pools of committed and engaged "human capital" (Osterman, 1988). According to the social exchange theory, high levels of HRM inducements and investments extend beyond an economic exchange for narrow task accomplishment to include socioeconomic issues, such as considerations of employee well-being, stability, and career enhancement, as well as intangible and symbolic

considerations, such as perceptions of fairness (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Tsui et al., 1997). From the employees' perspective, when HRM inducements and investments are higher, employee obligations include being willing to learn skills that are specific to their organization and make organization specific links or connections that may fall outside the employees' own areas of expertise (Hom et al., 2009). Thus, from an exchange theory view, higher levels of HRM inducements and investments will likely increase employees' perceived obligation to the employer, elicit engagement, as well as perceptions of commitment or decrease turnover intent.

In the context of social exchange theory and the employer-employee performance-reward relationship, Shaw and colleagues (2009) studied several predictors of employee quitting rates in trucking industry in the USA and found them to be related. The predictors they studies included *inducements* - *pay level* (average annual pay), *benefits level* (e.g. health insurance), *Job security (job guarantee)*, and *training* as well as what they called *expectations-enhancing practices* (employer expectations) - *pay-for-performance*, *performance appraisal (frequency)*, *monitoring technologies*. To them inducements and performance expectations must flow together and they influence the level of commitment or quit rates differently depending on whether one is a high or low performer (high-/low-performance-oriented, Shaw et al 2009).

However, there are hardly any empirical data on the state of these variables in the soft drink industry in Uganda and hence the need for the study to generate primary data for an industry facing very stiff competition from many entrants to win both the country's overwhelmingly young population as well as the old. In this study, we empirically test the effects of exchange relationships between managers and soft drink industry employees in four major industries in central Uganda. Social exchange theory is used as a framework to explain the link between the antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement and thereby predicting four outcomes of HR Management practice: employee job satisfaction, employee organizational commitment, employee OCB and intention to quit. Several employee engagement antecedents consistent with high performance work practices will be used to predict the outcome variables under the mediation of employee engagement. In other words, social exchange theory will be used to explain how HRM practices (the antecedents) interact with employee engagement to predict all the four outcome variables.

Engagement antecedents and employee engagement

Review of literature shows that antecedents to employee engagement are many although few have been extensively empirically tested and those that have been identified are scattered throughout a large literature base (Wollard & Shuck, 2011, Rich et al., 2010). The purpose of this section is to examine several antecedents of employee engagement, whether empirically tested or not, to identify a common ground and framework to be tested in this study. By the time of writing their article Wollard & Shuck (2011) found 42 reported antecedents of employee engagement which they categorized as individual-level and organizational-level antecedents, only half of which are empirically tested (appendix 6).

Previous studies have consistently shown that job resources (antecedents) such as social support from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy, and learning opportunities are positively associated with employee engagement (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli and Salanova, 2007). Job resources are working conditions or the characteristics of the job such as the task design and the distribution of work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), or socio-emotional resources such as support given by supervisors (Humphrey, Nahrganga & Morgeson, 2007).

The Social Exchange theory (SET), upon which this research is based, proposes that job resources influence engagement through the reciprocal exchange of engagement for motivational job resources. The Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) model suggests that job resources are related to engagement and engagement is in turn, related to employee work outcomes like turnover intention, job satisfaction, organization commitment and OCB .

Consistent with the motivational role of job resources, several studies have shown a positive relationship between job resources and employee engagement. For example, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found evidence for a positive relationship between three job resources (performance feedback, social support, and supervisory coaching) and work engagement among four different samples of Dutch employees. Using structural equation modeling they found that job resources predicted engagement, and that engagement is a mediator of the relationship between job resources and turnover intentions.

This study was replicated in a sample of over 2,000 Finnish teachers (Hakanen et al., 2006). Results showed that job control, information, supervisory support, innovative

climate and social climate were all positively related to work engagement. Conceptually similar findings were reported by Llorens et al. (2006) in a Spanish context. In addition, Koyuncu et al. (2006) examined potential antecedents and consequences of employee engagement in a sample of women managers and professionals (n = 286) employed by a large Turkish bank. Results showed that work life experiences, particularly control, rewards and recognition and value fit, were significant predictors of engagement.

These studies suggesting a relationship between job resources and engagement, though conducted among different populations, are cross-sectional but longitudinal research has also generally confirmed the positive relationship between job resources and work engagement. Mauno et al. (2007) utilized a two-year longitudinal design to investigate work engagement and its antecedents among Finnish health care personnel (n = 409) and found that job resources predicted work engagement. Further, in their study among managers and executives of a Dutch telecom company (n = 201), Schaufeli et al. (2008) found that changes in job resources were predictive of engagement over a period of one year.

The Research Conceptual framework

Basing on the various theories, models and concepts reviewed in the literature, a conceptual framework linking employee engagement, antecedents and outcomes has been developed and tested in this study (figure 2.3 below). Employment relationship is seen as an exchange where the employer is obligated to offer certain inducements (e.g., pay, benefits, and job security) in exchange for employee contributions (e.g., effort, commitment, productivity) and the level of exchange depends on expectations from both sides. Schein (1970) argued that in order for individuals to generate commitment, loyalty and enthusiasm for their organization and its goals, and to obtain satisfaction from their work, there should be a match between what employees expect from the organization and what their obligation to the organization is. The actual exchange involves, say money for time at work, need satisfaction and security in exchange for work and loyalty, opportunities for self-actualization and challenging work in exchange for high productivity, quality work, and creative effort in the service of organizational goals, or various combinations of these.

An exchange starts with one party giving a benefit (an inducement) to another. If the recipient reciprocates, a series of beneficial exchanges occur and feelings of mutual obligation between the parties are created (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). A

broad notion of reciprocity encompasses a feeling of an obligation to repay favorable treatment and for an employee it includes a belief whether one should care about the organization's well-being and should help the organization reach its goals (Eisenberger et al. 2001).

Empirical studies in this research are discussed in line with the reciprocity framework of the Social Exchange theory (SET), which proposes that engagement antecedents (job resources, or positive HRM practices) influence engagement through the reciprocal exchange of engagement for motivational job resources or positive HRM practices. The framework postulates that these resources (engagement antecedents or positive HRM practices) are related to employee engagement and employee engagement is related to organizational outcomes in a reciprocal relationship. The engagement resources are provided by the employer and the more motivating they are the more engaged the employee becomes and once an employee is engaged certain positive outcomes result. The nine antecedents of employee engagement (positive HRM practices) studied in this research are job characteristics, role clarity, material adequacy, teamwork, rewards & recognition, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and employee development. These antecedents (HRM practices/resources) are assumed to separately but also collectively drive employee engagement and employee engagement drives work outcomes. These all happens in the context of social exchange theory.

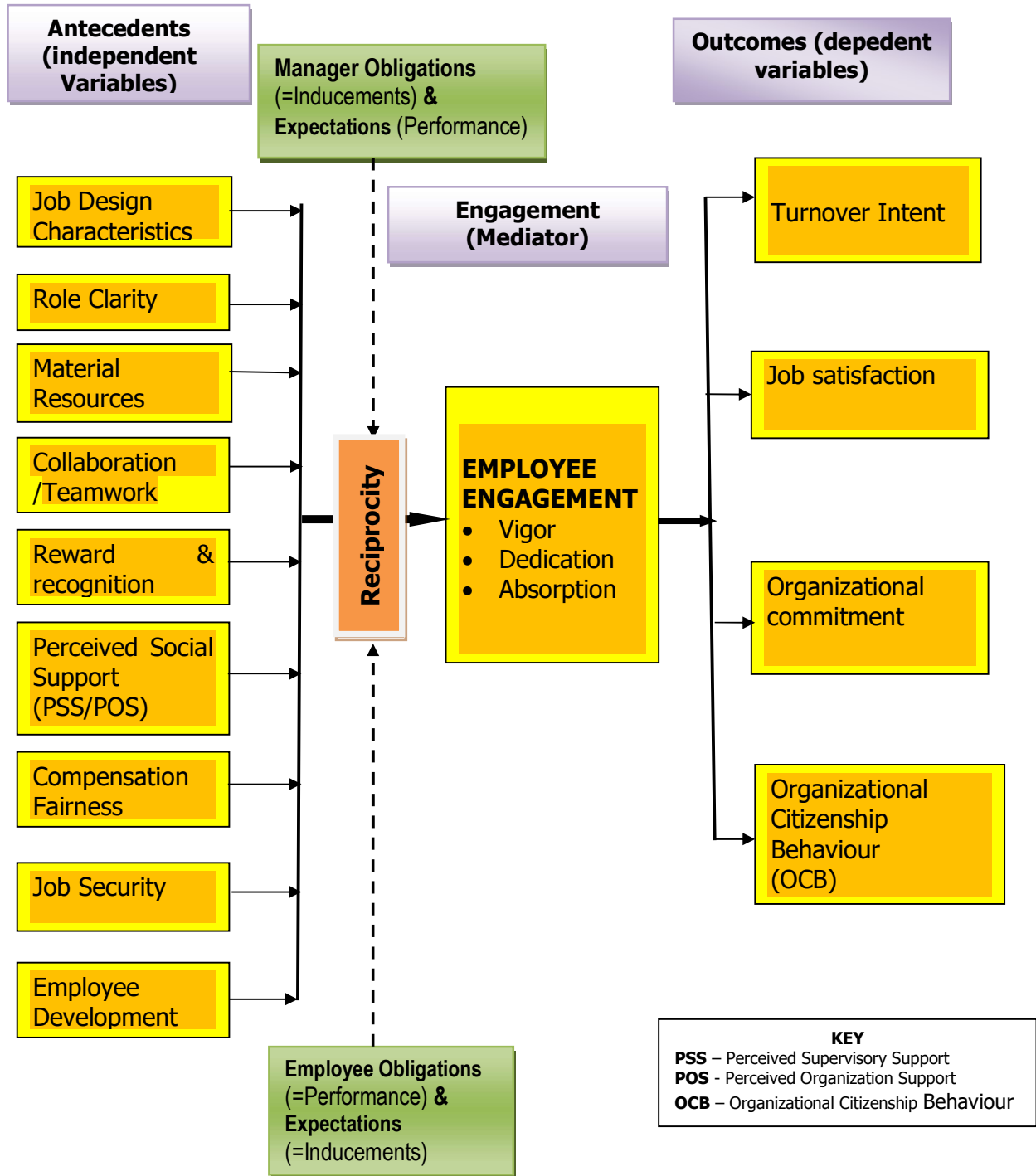
Social exchange relationship involves unspecified obligations in which there are "favors that create diffuse future obligations, not precisely defined ones, and the nature of the return cannot be bargained about but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it" (Blau, 1964, p. 93). The exchanged resources can be impersonal (such as financial or inducements) or socio-emotional such as care, respect, and loyalty (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). It is the socio-emotional resources that tend "to engender feelings of personal obligations, gratitude, and trust" (Blau, 1964, p. 94). A social exchange relationship rests on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). An exchange starts with one party giving a benefit (an inducement) to another. If the recipient reciprocates, a series of beneficial exchanges occur and feelings of mutual obligation between the parties are created (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). A broad notion of reciprocity encompasses a feeling of an obligation to repay favorable treatment and for an employee it includes a belief whether one should care about the

organization's well-being and should help the organization reach its goals (Eisenberger et al. 2001).

According to Aselage and Eisenberger (2003), the exchange, or reciprocation, in social relationships becomes stronger when both partners are willing to provide resources valuable to the other. Whereas employees value beneficial treatment (inducements), employers seek loyalty and dedication (or performance, Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Eisenberger, et al., 2001). But which of the two parties starts first? Research discusses mostly organizations as initiators. Positive actions directed at employees by the organization are argued to contribute to the establishment of high-quality exchange relationships (Eisenberger, et al., 2001; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Empirical evidence supports this sequential order of reciprocation. Most notably, these exchanges have been used to explain the positive consequences that follow when employees respond to perceived organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The fact that employee engagement is an outcome of the obligatory reciprocal motivational process fits with what has been found previously, that engaged individuals tend to exhibit behaviours that might be expected of motivated people, as they tend to be satisfied, high performers, committed and undertake extra role behaviours (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Saks, 2006). Employee engagement in the framework mediates the relationship between the antecedents (HRM practices/resources) and the outcomes – job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB and turnover intent.

Fig. 2.3 - Conceptual Framework: Antecedents, Employee Engagement and Work Outcomes



Source: Derived from review of Literature and Social Exchange Theory – in line with Robinson et al.'s (2004) portrayal of engagement as a two-way relationship between the employer and employee and Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005)'s rule of reciprocity.

Working regression models

The regression model assumes a general equation:

$$DV = f(IV)$$

$$DV = a + b(IV)$$

In multiple regression model with 9 IVs, the IV is defined as $IV_1, IV_2, IV_3, IV_4, IV_5, IV_6, IV_7, IV_8$ and IV_9 .

Therefore, $DV = f(IV_1, IV_2, IV_3, IV_4, IV_5, IV_6, IV_7, IV_8 \text{ and } IV_9)$

$$DV = \alpha + \beta_1 IV_1 + \beta_2 IV_2 + \beta_3 IV_3 + \beta_4 IV_4 + \beta_5 IV_5 + \beta_6 IV_6 + \beta_7 IV_7 + \beta_8 IV_8 + \beta_9 IV_9 + E$$

Where;

α is a constant

DV is the dependent variable

IV is independent variable

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \dots, \beta_9$ are parameters that indicate the variability caused in the DV by the individual independent constructs.

Given the multiple independent variables, mediator and multiple dependent variables, the conceptual framework is converted into four regression equations – each representing the outcomes as dependent variables, the antecedents as independent and employee engagement as mediator. Using a hierarchical regression analysis the researcher combines all the independent variables in one block - job characteristics (JobCh), role clarity (RoleC), material resources (Mat), collaboration (Coll), reward & Recognition (Rew), perceived social support (PSS), compensation fairness (CompF), job security (JobSe), development (Dev), and the mediator (employee engagement – EE – using 3 factors – ABS, DED, VIG) in a second block - to examine their unique contributions to the dependent variables (i.e., turnover intent (TOI), Job satisfaction (JobSat), organizational commitment (OC) and organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) to give four separate multiple regression equations:

$$TOI = \alpha + \beta_1 JobCh + \beta_2 RoleC + \beta_3 Mat + \beta_4 Coll + \beta_5 Rew + \beta_6 PSS + \beta_7 CompF + \beta_8 JobSe + \beta_9 Dev + \beta_{10} EE (ABS, DED, VIG) + \epsilon_1$$

$$JobSat = \alpha + \beta_1 JobCh + \beta_2 RoleC + \beta_3 Mat + \beta_4 Coll + \beta_5 Rew + \beta_6 PSS + \beta_7 CompF + \beta_8 JobSe + \beta_9 Dev + \beta_{10} EE (ABS, DED, VIG) + \epsilon_2$$

$$OC = \alpha + \beta_1 JobCh + \beta_2 RoleC + \beta_3 Mat + \beta_4 Coll + \beta_5 Rew + \beta_6 PSS + \beta_7 CompF + \beta_8 JobSe + \beta_9 Dev + \beta_{10} EE (ABS, DED, VIG) + \epsilon_3$$

$$OCB = \alpha + \beta_1 JobCh + \beta_2 RoleC + \beta_3 Mat + \beta_4 Coll + \beta_5 Rew + \beta_6 PSS + \beta_7 CompF + \beta_8 JobSe + \beta_9 Dev + \beta_{10} EE (ABS, DED, VIG) + \epsilon_4$$

Key: ABS – Absorption, DED = Dedication, VIG = Vigour

Review of the engagement antecedents (HRM practices) studied

Job Characteristics

Demerouti & Bakker (2011) refer to engagement antecedents as *job resources* which they define as physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that correspond with Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model (JCM). The JCM emphasizes the motivational potential of job resources at the task level, including autonomy, feedback, and task significance. Job resources may be located at the *organizational* level (e.g. salary or wages, career opportunities, job security), at the *interpersonal* level (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support, team climate), at the specific *job position* (e.g. role clarity, participation in decision making), and at the *task level* (e.g. skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and performance feedback). Apart from material resources, all the other eight antecedents considered in this study are covered by the Job characteristics Model. Some of these aspects are referred to as meaningful workplace environment or meaningful work and has been found to be related to employee engagement (May et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010).

Studies have found a relationship between autonomy and engagement. Xanthopoulou *et al* (2009) found that job resources, including job autonomy, to have a positive effect on daily rates of engagement in fast-food employees (n=42). In a study by de Lange, Witte and Notelaers (2008), job autonomy was related to levels of engagement over time. However, this effect could be caused by the tendency for longer servicing staff to have more responsibility and thus more autonomy, as giving autonomy infers that there is an amount of trust from supervisors in the ability and competence of the employee as a professional and capable staff member. Either directly by autonomy or via the relationship to responsibility, greater autonomy is related to engagement.

Appraising and giving feedback to employees for good performance helps maintain their motivation and signals them to continue in this direction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Communicating with employees in a positive manner when they need to improve their performance will help prevent work problems and minimize surprises during the performance review. Constructive feedback not only helps employees do their work more effectively but also improves communication between supervisors and employees. When specific and accurate information is provided in a constructive way, employees are more likely to be engaged and can improve or change their performance (Martocchio & Webster, 1992).

Participation in decision making, which refers to the employee's influence on higher-level decision processes concerning work, including decisions about the job design and discussing problems with higher-level managers, has been found to be one of the job characteristics with potential engagement effects. Participation in decision making increases the employee's motivation and engagement in exchange for the recognition and responsibility given by the organization.

These lead us to the following propositions:

Proposition 1(i): Job characteristics is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 1(ii) employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes

Proposition 1(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between job characteristics and work outcomes.

Role Clarity (Expectations)

Role clarity refers to the extent to which an employee receives and understands information required to perform his/her job (Kelly & Richard, 1980). Role clarity (expectations) is an important employee engagement antecedent. It has been studied by Seigts and Crim (2006) under the idea of “convey” (communicate) where leaders clarify work-related expectations for employees. Similar research appears in Spector’s (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey and House et al. (1983) measure of Role Conflict and Ambiguity. Role clarity has been found to be positively related to engagement by Buckingham & Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002).

Role clarity is perceived by front desk employees as having a positive effect on their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (De Ruyter, Wetzels, & Feinberg, 2001). On the other hand, when workers lack role clarity, they tend

to experience negative feelings such as job tension and dissatisfaction (Kelly & Richard, 1980). In service settings, role clarity provides an opportunity for customer-contact employees to act quickly to serve their customer during the service encounter without having to refer to their superiors for advice. Such prompt response is likely to delight customers leading to greater satisfaction. Terje, Göran, and Sander (2011) added that when there is a lack of role clarity among customer-contact employees, negative outcomes are likely to occur such as the concerned employee may mislead customers by providing incorrect information, which leads to poor service quality experiences for the customers. Therefore, when customer-contact employees are clear on what they are supposed to do in their job, they are more likely to adopt a favorable attitude towards work in terms of exhibiting greater perseverance in handling job challenges and displaying higher dedication in serving their customers. In light of the above discussion, it is proposed that:

Proposition 2(i): Role clarity is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 2(ii) employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes

Proposition 2(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between role clarity and work outcomes.

Materials adequacy

The engagement driver *Materials* refers to the availability of materials, equipment, and technology that workers need in order to accomplish their jobs (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; Towers Perrin Talent Report, 2003). According to Seigts and Crim (2006) it is unethical and de-motivating if employees are not given the knowledge and tools to be successful. He emphasizes that inadequate resources is likely to lead to stress, frustration, and, ultimately, lack of engagement. *Materials* have been found to be positively related to engagement by both Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002). In the related literature, the lack of needed materials is frequently referred to as resource inadequacy. Getting people what they need to do their work is important in maximizing efficiency, in demonstrating to employees that their work is valued, and in showing that the company is supporting them in what they are asked to do. Great managers help employees see how their requests for materials and equipment connect to important organizational outcomes (Harter, J. K., et al, 2009). This leads to the following propositions:

Proposition 3(i): materials adequacy is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 3(ii) employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes

Proposition 3(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between materials adequacy and work outcomes

Collaboration/Team Work

One of the important drivers to engagement is the opportunity for employees to give their opinions in matters that affect their work. *Opinions Count* as considered by Gallup Organization researchers refers to whether or not an employee's opinions were taken into consideration such as in a collaborative work environment (Tower Perrins, 2003). These collaborative work environments are often characterized by trust and cooperation and may outperform groups which were lacking in positive relationships (Seigts & Crim, 2003). Similar items have been used in Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) measure of Perceived Organizational Support. *Employee Opinions* as cited by both Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002) are positively related to engagement. Team working is a means of facilitating and enhancing amongst employees: lateral communication; information sharing between and within organizational levels; cooperative problem ownership and resolution through critical evaluation of existing organization processes channeled by a commitment to continuous improvement (see Brodbeck, 2002; Ozaralli, 2003; Seibert *et al.*, 2004; Beirne, 2006).

Teams within the company should frequently and actively review their objectives because this advances the commitment of the team and all team members to achieve desired goals. When employees realize that they have successfully reached set goals, this will give its members more energy. Employees will be able to dedicate themselves more to the work when objectives are clear and they know exactly what they have to do in order to reach their goals (Gast, 2012). Successfully reviewing goals and objectives will help employees to become more absorbed by their work and be less likely distracted from it. It is also important that all members feel comfortable working within the team and that they feel supported by the team. When feeling comfortable working in the team, employees will be more willing to dedicate themselves more to their work and can become absorbed by it (Gast, 2012). This will lead to engaged employees, higher

task effectiveness, better mental health and long term viability. This leads us to the following propositions:

Proposition 4(i): teamwork is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 4(ii) employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes

Proposition 4(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between teamwork and work outcomes.

Recognition/ Rewards

Rewards such as pay-for-performance and monetary incentives have been explored in the literature and linked somewhat to discussions of hygiene and issues of justice and fair pay. Moreover, intrinsic motivations that come from external sources of feedback in the form of sincere recognition and encouragement on the job have been conceptually linked as antecedents to engagement, but no empirical evidence exists on the linkage. Some evidence does suggest that poorly appropriated monetary structures can undermine organizational engagement efforts (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010; Sparrow & Balain, 2010).

Recognition as documented by the Gallup Organization researchers involves recognition or praise used as a reward for doing good work in an effort to encourage future efforts. Seigts and Crim (2003) emphasize that good leaders frequently recognize their employees by congratulating and by coaching them. *Recognition* has been found to have a weaker but positive relationship to engagement by Harter et al. (2002).

Existing literature on the subject establishes and clarifies the concept of employee recognition in the work place. Numerous renowned researchers like Herzberg, (1968, 1987), McGregor (1960), Vroom (1964), Porter and Lawler (1968) whose seminal work opened the avenues for unending research and theory formation in the field of employee motivation highlighted employee recognition as an essential component of motivation. These authors stipulate that organizational performance is determined by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Several other studies support this theory, which can be referred to as recognition based rather than incentive based motivation as a predictor of organizational performance (Deci and Ryan 2000, 2005).

A survey by Scott et al (2010) from 736 *WorldatWork* members from around the world on which specific rewards-related programs might have an impact on

employee engagement revealed that more than 40% of the respondents believe that base salary, base salary increases, and benefits and perquisites have a “high” or “very high” impact on employee engagement. Furthermore, respondents believe that short-term incentives or bonuses have an even higher impact on engagement (54%). However, substantially fewer believe that long-term incentives and financial recognition have a high impact on engagement - 32% and 32%, respectively (Scott et al, 2010).

The impact of intangible rewards on employee engagement is perceived as very high with work environment or organization climate rated at 61%; work-life balance rated at 55%; the nature of the job or quality of work rated at 69%; and career development opportunities rated at 59%. Only, nonfinancial total rewards programs receive a relatively low score at 37%, which is interesting given that nonfinancial recognition programs are often suggested as ways to motivate and engage employees (Scott et al, 2010).

As to whether total rewards-driven employee engagement programs had impact on organizational performance, Scott et al (2010) found that 42 percent of the respondents agreed that organization’s total rewards strategies had a positive effect on employee engagement, whereas 24% denied. *WorldatWork* members were asked to assess how their efforts to engage employees through total reward programs affected a variety of employee and business outcomes and found that 22% to 24% of respondents agreed that the efforts to engage employees through total rewards programs had reduced employee complaints about pay fairness and equity, reduced turnover, reduced absenteeism and reduced employee problems (Scott et al, 2010). However, a larger proportion of respondents disagreed that total rewards programs reduced complaints about pay fairness and equity (36%) and reduced turnover (39%). Approximately an equal number “disagreed” that efforts to engage employees through total rewards programs reduced absenteeism (22%) and reduced employee performance problems (26%) (Scott et al, 2010).

These lead us to the following propositions:

Proposition 5(i): Rewards/recognition is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 5(ii) employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes;

Proposition 5(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between Rewards/ recognition and work outcomes.

Perceived Social Support (Supervisory/Organizational)

An important aspect of safety stems from the amount of care and support employees' perceive to be provided by their organization as well as their direct supervisor. Psychological safety involves a sense of being able to show and employ the self without negative consequences (Kahn, 1992). In fact, Kahn (1990) found that supportive and trusting interpersonal relationships as well as supportive management promoted psychological safety which is positively related to personal engagement. Organizational members feel safe and engaged in work environments that were characterized by openness and supportiveness.

Supportive environments allow members to experiment and to try new things and even fail without fear of the consequences (Kahn, 1990). In their empirical test of Kahn's model, May et al. (2004) also found that supportive supervisor relations was positively related to psychological safety and engagement. Social support is also one of the conditions in the Maslach et al. (2001) model and a study by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that a measure of job resources that includes support from colleagues predicted engagement. A lack of social support has also consistently been found to be related to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001).

Two variables that are likely to capture the essence of social support are perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS). POS refers to a general belief that one's organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Basing on the Social exchange theory, POS creates an obligation on the part of employees to care about the organization's welfare and to help the organization reach its objectives (Rhoades et al., 2001). One reason that POS might lead to positive outcomes is through employee engagement. Basing on SET, when employees believe that their organization is concerned about them and cares about their well-being, they are likely to reciprocate by attempting to fulfil their obligations to the organization by becoming more engaged (Rhoades et al., 2001).

In addition, because employees tend to view their supervisor's orientation toward them as indicative of the organization's support (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002), PSS is also likely to be an important predictor of employee engagement. In fact, a lack of support from supervisors has been found to be an especially important factor

linked to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). In addition, first-line supervisors are believed to be especially important for building engagement and to be the root of employee disengagement (Frank et al., 2004).

These lead us to the following propositions:

Proposition 6(i): Perceived social support is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 6(ii) employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes;

Proposition 6(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between perceived social support and work outcomes.

Compensation Fairness

For employees in any business or industry, compensation and benefits are important as they provide the means for employees to meet their needs for basic necessities in life. For the employer, compensation and benefits are important also as they are one of the most visible rewards (Milkovich & Newman, 2005); they are a means to retain the best employees (Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008); and are used to motivate employees in the development of skills (Milkovich & Newman, 2005). Concerning pay and turnover intent, the negative relationship between pay level and turnover intent has been reported so frequently by economists that the relationship has been accepted as a fact (Montowidlo, 1983).

Compensation fairness refers to the perceptions that employees have regarding equity in company practices concerning internal compensation, external compensation, and benefits. Researchers have suggested that when pay is reasonable, especially in comparison with other's pay, a worker is more likely to be engaged.

Conceptually, varying literature has suggested that hygiene factors extrinsic to the employee drive potential conditions for engagement at the organizational level (Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, 2008; Shuck, Rocco, et al., 2011). Hygiene factors are operationalized as including fair pay, reasonable working conditions, a reasonable degree of security, and low levels of trust with the leader (Herzberg, 1968, 1987). When hygiene factors are not met, (i.e., employees believe they are not being paid fairly, they do not believe they have reasonable working conditions, or they do not feel a reasonable degree of job security) engagement is not likely to develop.

These lead us to the following propositions:

Proposition 7(i): Compensation fairness is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 7(ii) employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes;

Proposition 7(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between compensation fairness and work outcomes.

Job security

Meltz (1989) defines job security broadly as a situation where an employee remains employed with in the same organization with no reduction of seniority, pay, pension rights, and the like. Herzberg (1968) defines job security as the extent to which an organization provides stable employment for employees. This definition clearly shows that it is the role of the employer to create job security for employees. The employer must put in place provisions to show employees that their jobs are secure even in events of major organisational changes. Once security is assured employees are more likely to be engaged. Job security determines attitudinal reactions from employees - such as reduced satisfaction, reduced commitment, and turnover intentions.

Job insecurity is considered detrimental to the individual employee and the organisation (De Cuyper & De Witte 2005) because of negative job-related attitudes. Numerous studies have linked the perception of job insecurity to a decline in organisational commitment (Bosman et al. 2005; Buitendach & De Witte 2005; Meyer & Parfyonova 2010) and increased disengagement. It is also linked to less enthusiasm about jobs, less willingness to expend time and energy (De Cuyper & De Witte 2005), decreased job satisfaction and job involvement as well as intention to quit (Cheng & Chan 2008).

Luthans and Youssef (2007) note that when employees are concerned about the possibility of losing their job, they might initially tend to respond by working harder and longer to show their value to their organization in the hope of securing their employment. They further state that if such extraordinary work efforts persist for too long, they might have unintended negative consequences including work performance quality deficits, job burnout and health problems such as increased stress, anxiety and depression. Some employees with very low levels of engagement, who may be defined as having active disengagement, may match what highly engaged colleagues are trying to accomplish. Therefore, encouraging work engagement is especially needed during uncertain times or when there is a threat of job loss.

These lead us to the following propositions:

Proposition 8(i): Job security is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 8(ii) employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes;

Proposition 8(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between job security and work outcomes.

Employee Development

Some authors suggest that opportunities for learning (Czarnowsky, 2008) and talent management systems (Hughes & Rog, 2008) that involve employee and organizational development initiatives are antecedents to engagement. The Gallup Organization researchers look at employee development as one of the critical drivers of engagement. They claim that development includes support offered by other workers to further the employee's development through challenging and meaningful work (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; Towers Perrin Talent Report, 2003). Development may also include supervisor endorsement of the training and development (Baldwin & Ford, 1988) as well as coaching (Deal, 2007). Work settings in which employees have ample opportunities for development provide an important job resource because opportunities for growth increase employee motivation and engagement (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Employees are challenged when they can bring in ideas and learn new skills. Such a challenge results in more intrinsic motivation and increased vigor, absorption and dedication to the job (Bakker et al., 2007).

Harter et al. (2002) mentions development as positively related to engagement. According to Deal (2007), coaching is one of the top 5 delivery methods for learning both "soft" skills and "hard" skills. Coaching is an excellent way to help employees learn and grow due to the individualized and targeted nature of the instruction. Coaches (and mentors) present opportunities and challenges for growth, supports goal setting, encourages, listens, and gives honest appraisals and feedback (DeLong, Gabarro, & Lees, 2008).

These lead us to the following propositions:

Proposition 9(i): employee development is positively related to employee engagement;

Proposition 9(ii): employee engagement is positively related to work outcomes;

Proposition 9(iii): employee engagement mediates the relationship between employee development and work outcomes.

Employee engagement, antecedents and social exchange theory (SET)

Social exchange theory (Homans, 1961, Blau, 1964; Ekeh, 1974; Gouldner, 1960) in the context of the employment relationship has been seen as an exchange where the employer offers certain returns (e.g., pay, benefits, and job security) in exchange for employee contributions (e.g., effort, commitment, productivity) and the level of exchange depends on expectations from both sides. Schein (1970) argued that in order for individuals to generate commitment, loyalty and enthusiasm for their organization and its goals, and to obtain job satisfaction, there should be a match between what employees expect from the organization and what they owe the organization. The actual exchange involves money, need satisfaction and loyalty, opportunities for self-actualization and challenging work in exchange for high productivity, quality work, and creative effort in the service of organizational goals. This exchange is reciprocal. If the recipient reciprocates, a series of beneficial exchanges occur and feelings of mutual obligation between the parties are created (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Eisenberger et al. 2001).

The review of literature on the above nine categories of engagement antecedents and their relation to engagement and outcomes suggest that social exchange theory is able to explain the mechanisms through which employee engagement mediates the relationship between the antecedents and the outcomes. That is, employees who say, perceive higher support from their employer in terms of resources, teamwork, development and compensation, and the like - are more likely to reciprocate with greater levels of engagement. Employees who are provided with jobs that are high on the job design characteristics are more likely to reciprocate with greater engagement; and employees who have higher supervisory and organization support are more likely to reciprocate with greater engagement. Engaged employees are also more likely to have a high-quality relationship with their employer leading them to also have more positive attitudes and behaviours. This leads us to the following proposition:

Proposition 10: Social exchange theory is able to explain the mechanisms through which antecedents of engagement are conveyed through employee engagement to the outcomes.

Outcomes of Employee Engagement

Scholarly research on engagement has demonstrated that employee engagement is related to organizational variables such as turnover intentions (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Saks, 2006; Alarcon, et al. 2008; Shuck, Reio, & Rocco, 2011), job satisfaction (Alarcon & Edwards, 2008; Saks, 2006), organizational commitment (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Saks, 2006), health (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), organizational citizenship behaviours (Saks, 2006; Rich et al 2010) and task performance (Salanova et al., 2003). In this study we concentrate on four outcomes - turnover intentions, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours, all of which have empirically been studied (Christian et al., 2011; Shuck, 2011; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010; Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Richman, 2006).

Although neither Kahn (1990) nor May et al. (2004) included outcomes in their studies, Kahn (1992) proposed that engagement leads to both individual outcomes (i.e. quality of people's work and their own experiences of doing that work), as well as organizational-level outcomes (i.e. the growth and productivity of organizations).

Furthermore, Maslach et al. (2001) treats engagement as a mediating variable for the relationship between the six Areas of Work life (workload, control, rewards, community, fairness and values) and various work outcomes and emphasizes that like burnout, these antecedent factors should be related to engagement and to outcomes such as increased withdrawal, lower performance, job satisfaction, and commitment. Maslach et al., (2001) suggest that engagement is associated with a sustainable workload, feelings of choice and control, appropriate recognition and reward, a supportive work community, fairness and justice, and meaningful and valued work. Like burnout, engagement is expected to mediate the link between these six work-life factors and various work outcomes.

There are a number of reasons to expect engagement to be related to work outcomes. Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003) describe the experience of engagement as *a positive, fulfilling work-related experience and state of mind* and has been found to be related to good health and positive work affect (Sonnentag, 2003). These positive experiences and emotions are likely to result in positive work outcomes. As noted by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), engaged employees likely have a greater attachment to their organization and a lower tendency to leave their organization. As an

individual becomes more engaged in the work, it is less likely the individual will have aspirations of leaving (Alarcon & Edwards, 2008; Saks, 2006). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that engagement was negatively related to turnover intention and mediated the relationship between job resources and turnover intention.

Employee Engagement and Turnover

Employee engagement has been found to be negatively related to turnover Intent (Shuck, Reio, & Rocco, 2011; Berry & Morris, 2008; Harter et al., 2002; Wagner & Harter, 2006). In a study using four independent samples Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found only moderate and negative relationship to turnover. This finding is attested by the meta-analysis of Halbesleben (2010) that showed that work engagement mediated the relationship between job resources and turnover intention; the more resourceful the job, the higher the levels of engagement, and the lower the level of intention to quit.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that engagement was negatively related to intentions to leave. This indicates that highly engaged employees are more likely to stay with their organisation, while those with low engagement are more likely to consider leaving.

In a longitudinal study in a sample of predominately private sector employees (n=871) with 16 months between measurement intervals of engagement levels, job resources, and job tenure, de Lange, Witte and Notelaers (2008) found that low amounts of resources was related to low engagement. This low engagement predicted transfer to another company (de Lange, Witte & Notelaers, 2008). This link is also supported by Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008). In a study of employees (n=587) from a wide variety of industries, Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) found that engagement explained unique variance in intention to leave.

Since engagement is a motivating, fulfilling, satisfying and positive work-related state of mind, a reduction in this state would be followed by interest in seeking other avenues that better fulfil this optimal state of being. As Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) noted, engaged employees have significant amounts of energy invested in their work. Employees are therefore less likely to seek other work since by changing jobs they risk losing the resources they have accumulated (de Lange, Witte & Notelaers, 2008). Engaged employees are found to have a lower instance of reported turnover intentions and hence the negative relationship between intention to turnover and engagement.

Employee Engagement and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been defined in a variety of different ways. A general definition of job satisfaction is how much one is fond of one's job (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction has also been defined as an appraisal of one's job (i.e. a cognitive variable), an affective reaction to one's job, or an attitude towards one's job (Spector 1997; Weiss & Brief, 2001; Weiss, 2002). Weiss (2002) has argued that job satisfaction is an attitude, and research should distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation such as emotions, beliefs, and behaviours. He argues that previous measures of job satisfaction confound job cognitions with job satisfaction, the former being cognitive evaluations and the latter being affective.

Engagement, like Job satisfaction, has positive valence, but it differs in being more strongly activated. "It is the sense of *energy* and *enthusiasm* in engagement that makes the construct different" (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 24); "engagement connotes *activation*, whereas satisfaction connotes *satiation*" (p. 8). The notion of engagement incorporates positive feelings as does satisfaction, but additionally brings in energized experiences and enthusiasm. Engaged workers are motivated to expend energy even in the face of difficulties and threats to their well-being (Kahn, 1990).

Research using structural equation modelling has demonstrated that job satisfaction is an outcome of work engagement, and that work engagement fully mediates the relationship between variables such as role clarity and job satisfaction (Alarcon et al., 2008).

Employee Engagement and Organizational Commitment

Organisational commitment is most commonly defined as the employee's involvement and identification with their respective organisation (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian 1974). Porter et al. (1974) have identified three components of commitment; employee belief and acceptance of the organisation's values and goals; the desire to exert an extra effort on behalf of the organisation and a desire to remain with the organisation.

Commitment can be further described as two distinct types of commitment; affective and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer 1990). Affective commitment is "an affective or emotional attachment to the organisation such that the strongly

committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organisation” (Allen & Meyer 1990, p. 2). Affective commitment is also seen as going beyond the call of duty, putting in the extra effort on behalf of the organisation. Continuance commitment is staying with the organisation based upon the cost of not staying (Allen & Meyer 1990).

Although the University of Utrecht measure of engagement (UWES) was correlated with a measure of organizational commitment, structural equation modelling demonstrated they are distinct constructs. The correlation between work engagement and organizational commitment was .46 meaning they only shared approximately 21.16% of variance. Organizational commitment is a correlate of engagement, but not necessarily the same construct. It is possible to imagine an individual who is engaged in the work, yet not committed to the organization, and vice versa.

According to Saks (2006) job and organization engagement are related to employees’ attitudes, intentions, and behaviors and in particular, job and organization engagements predicted job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit. Like several other studies (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003), the results of Sak’s study suggest that employee engagement partially mediates the relationship between antecedent variables and consequences, job satisfaction inclusive.

Employee Engagement and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The concept of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) was introduced to the research literature in 1983 (Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K., 1995). OCBs are voluntary contributions at work that include altruistic helping behaviours, compliance with work norms and requirements, courtesy to others to ensure smooth working relationships, sportsmanship to maintain performance under adversity, and civic virtue to contribute constructively to issues that arise in the workplace.

Organ (1988) tries to define OCB and highlights the following five precise types of discretionary behaviour and describes how each assists to improve the efficiency of the organizations.

- Altruism (e.g., helping new colleagues and freely giving time to others) is naturally concentrating toward other individuals but add to group efficiency by increasing the performance of individuals.

- Conscientiousness (e.g., efficient use of time and going beyond minimum expectations) increase the efficiency of individual and the group.
- Sportsmanship (e.g., avoids complaining and whining) improves the quantity of time spent on productive activities in the organization.
- Courtesy (e.g., advance notices, reminders, and communicating appropriate information) facilitate, avoid problems and facilitates productive use of time.
- Civic Virtue (e.g., serving to communities and voluntarily attending functions) endorse the interests of the organization.

Organ (1988, 1990) suggests that employees who are treated fairly are likely to exhibit citizenship behaviours in order to maintain equilibrium between them and the organization, whereas those employees who feel they have been treated unfairly will withhold citizenship behaviours. This could relate to Kahn's (1990) psychological condition of meaningfulness, as employees will personally engage when they feel they are getting a good return of investment of their given self.

Engagement resources, Engagement, SET and Outcomes

Given that the engagement antecedents (job resources/ positive HRM practices) are expected to predict engagement and engagement predicts the outcomes, it is possible that engagement mediates the relationship between the engagement antecedents or job resources and the outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intentions, organization commitment, OCB. This is consistent with the Maslach et al. (2001) model and is more likely given that most of the job resources (e.g. job characteristics, POS,) have been associated with various work outcomes. Furthermore, several studies have found that engagement mediates the relationship between antecedent variables and outcomes (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003).

As this study is out to test the validity of the social exchange theory (SET) in explaining how employee engagement mediates the relationship, it has been established that employees who perceive reasonable support from their employer or organization in terms of resources, collaboration, development and compensation fairness are more likely to reciprocate with greater levels of engagement. Employees who are provided with jobs that are high on the job characteristics are more likely to reciprocate with greater job engagement; and employees who have higher supervisory and organization support are more likely to reciprocate with greater engagement.

Engaged employees are also more likely to have a high-quality relationship with their employer leading to more positive attitudes, intentions, and behaviours.

Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) argued that when individuals receive economic and non-economic resources from their organization, they feel obliged to respond in kind and repay the organization. This is consistent with Robinson *et al.*'s (2004) description of engagement as a two-way relationship between the employer and employee. One way for individuals to repay their organization is through their level of engagement. That is, employees will choose to engage themselves to varying degrees and in response to the resources they receive from their organization (Kahn, 1990, 1992).

Bringing oneself more fully into one's work roles and devoting greater amounts of cognitive, emotional, and physical resources is a very profound way for individuals to respond to an organization's positive actions (Kahn, 1990, Saks, 2006). Several resources have been found to motivate employees and hence cause engagement namely, job autonomy, participatory decision making, role clarity, performance feedback, availability of material resources, teamwork, perceived social support (relationship with the supervisor and co-workers), reward & recognition, compensation fairness, job security, and opportunities for development (Maslach *et al.*, 2001; Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002, Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004, May *et al.*, 2004; Saks, 2006; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli and Salanova, 2007; Humphrey, Nahrganga & Morgeson, 2007).

Gaps identified from related literature

There have been persistent theoretical and methodological questions raised about whether human resource practices have a direct link with performance (for example, Guest 2011). The debate is complicated by the introduction of a new and contested construct as employee engagement into the equation. While early researchers of employment relationships tended to propose a direct link between human resource management practices and organizational performance, recent evidence suggests that the relationship is most likely mediated by a range of attitudinal and behavioral variables at the individual level, particularly job satisfaction, affective and continuance commitment, task performance, and OCB (Guest, Conway, & Dewe, 2004; Kuvaas, 2008; Snape & Redman, 2010). Efforts to understand the missing link between HRM interventions and performance outcomes have led to a number of studies that

explore the mediating role played by either employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and commitment, behaviors such as task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and antecedents such as perceived organizational support, job design, employee training, employee policies and practices (Kuvaas, 2008; Snape & Redman, 2010; Sun et al., 2007). This study in the context of the employment relationship (Purcell 2013; Townsend et al. 2013; Jenkins & Delbridge 2013) is out to contribute to this debate by investigating the link between HR practices (antecedents), employee engagement and outcomes in soft drink industry in Uganda within the perspective of social exchange theory.

Secondly, for organizations to survive in the contemporary global competition, engagement of their human resources is vital because of its linkage to business outcomes. Although research has reported on the benefits of developing an engaged workforce (Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008; Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) few have dwelt on the antecedents–engagement–outcomes link. Researches within the last decade have suggested that there are antecedents to engagement that could enhance employee engagement and influence behavioural outcomes (Saks, 2006; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Wollard & Shuck 2011; Schaufeli, 2013; Shuck & Rose, 2013) but a lot remains unknown. Furthermore, the exact role of employee engagement in the link between the antecedents and the outcomes of engagement presents knowledge gap which has necessitated this research in the Ugandan, especially in the context of the soft drink industry in particular.

Thirdly, Saks (2006) was the first academic researcher to specifically conceptualize and test antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. No other study since has been able to include as many variables as Saks'. Before then consultancy literature was the only body of work linking employee engagement antecedents to employee engagement consequences. This study responds to Saks' (2006) call for research to investigate a wider range of antecedents that might also be important for employee engagement. The new variables that this study adds to Sak's model are *role clarity*, *material resources*, *collaboration*, *compensation fairness*, *job security* and employee *development* - all of which have been supported by review of literature (Seigts & Crim, 2006; Harter et al, 2002; Buckingham& Coffman, 1999; Tower Perrin, 2003; Seibert et al, 2004; Beirne, 2006; Vandenberghe & Tremlay, 2008; Schaufeli et al 2008; Schuck et al, 2011; Herzberg, 1968; Meltz, 1989; Baldwin & Ford,

1988; Hughes & Rog, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Bakker et al, 2007; DeLong et al, 2008). Hence, this study sought to investigate and test a new and expanded employee engagement model with nine predictors and four outcomes, which has hitherto not been investigated.

Fourthly, this research sought to extend and built on the theoretical frameworks of current engagement theory (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2006) by combining the social exchange theory with Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli (2002 engagement models and propose new ways of understanding employee engagement.

Fifthly, this study proposes to use and validate the Shaufeli et al' s three factor engagement model and Social exchange theory in the study of the relationship between employee engagement, the antecedents and four work outcomes. Hence this study sought to test a unique combination of variables, models and theories untested simultaneously before with the aim of understandings how each variable impacts employee engagement and consequently how each variable impacts one another.

Additionally, a detailed literature search showed no empirical study on the relationship between employee engagement and various outcome variables in Ugandan context and especially in soft drink industry. Hence the need to test the expanded employee engagement model in the Ugandan context.

Finally, different organizations are assumed to create an employee engagement culture in different ways, using different strategies and methods that are unique to their organization. There is no known research on the process of engagement creation. This study will try to fill this gap by recommending how the soft drink industry in Uganda could better achieve employee engagement.

These gaps are addressed with the following hypothesis:

H1: The antecedents of engagement are positively correlated with employee engagement.

H2: There is a relationship between employee engagement and work outcomes. This hypothesis is broken into four parts:

H2a: Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee job satisfaction;

H2b: Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee organizational commitment;

H2c: Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB);

H2d: Employee engagement will significantly negatively correlate with employee turnover intent.

H3: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in work outcomes. This hypothesis is broken down into four parts:

H3a: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee job satisfaction;

H3b: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee organizational commitment;

H3c: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB);

H3d: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee turnover intent

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research paradigm, design, population, sampling strategies, sample size, data collection methods, instruments, data quality control, procedure and data analysis used in this study.

Research Paradigm/Philosophical Worldviews

Since the publication of Kuhn's (1962) *Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, the notion of a paradigm as a framework which shapes people's approach to the world has become common. Much of the debate in social science research has been on the distinction between two dominant paradigms - the positivist, which advocates the quantitative approach, and the constructivist, which advocates the qualitative approach. The centrality of a study paradigm is emphasized by Guba and Lincoln (1994) that no inquirer ought to enter the business of inquiry without a clear paradigm that informs and guides his or her approach. Creswell (2009) reiterates that in planning a study, researchers need to think through three things - the philosophical worldview assumptions that they bring to the study (*postpositivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory, pragmatism*), the strategy of inquiry that is related to the worldview (qualitative - e.g. ethnography, quantitative - e.g. experiments, mixed methods - e.g. sequential) and the specific methods or procedures of research that translate the approach into practice (questions, data collection, analysis, interpretation, write-up, validation).

Making clear the larger philosophical ideas will help explain why one chooses qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods approaches to research. Instead of the term paradigm, Creswell (2009, p.6) uses the term worldview as meaning "a basic set of beliefs that guide an action". Others call these philosophical ideas epistemologies and ontologies (Crotty, 1998). Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009) defined 'paradigm' as a worldview, together with the various philosophical assumptions associated it. Worldview refers to the way the world is experienced, which is based on beliefs, morals, values and aesthetics (Morgan 2007). A worldview consists of orientation adopted on the elements of ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology (Creswell & Plano-Clark 2011). Using these dimensions, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) identified four world views which are most commonly agreed upon among scholars - *postpositivism, constructivism,*

participatory, pragmatism. The major elements of each position are presented in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Elements of worldview and implications for practice

Worldview Element	Postpositivism	Constructivism	Participatory	Pragmatism
Ontology (What is the nature of reality?)	Singular reality (e.g., researchers reject or fail to reject hypotheses)	Multiple realities (e.g., Researchers provide quotes to illustrate different perspectives)	Political reality (e.g., findings are negotiated with participants)	Singular and multiple realities (e.g., researchers test hypotheses and provide multiple perspectives)
Epistemology (What is the relationship between the researcher and what is being researched?)	Distance and impartiality (e.g., researchers Objectively collect data on instruments)	Closeness (e.g., researchers visit participants at their sites to collect data)	Collaboration (e.g., researchers actively involve participants as collaborators)	Practicality (e.g., researchers collect data by 'what works' to address research question)
Axiology (What is the role of values?)	Unbiased (e.g., researchers use checks to eliminate bias)	Biased (e.g., researchers actively talk about their biases and interpretations)	Negotiated (e.g., researchers negotiate their biases with participants)	Multiple stances (e.g., researchers include both biased and unbiased perspectives)
Methodology (What is the process of research?)	Deductive (e.g., researchers test <i>a priori</i> theory)	Inductive (e.g., researchers start with participants' views and build up to patterns, theories and generalizations)	Participatory (e.g., researchers Involve participants in all stages of the research and engage in cyclical reviews of results)	Combining (e.g., Researchers collect both quantitative and qualitative data and mix them)
Rhetoric (What is the language of research?)	Formal style (e.g., researchers use agreed-on definitions of variables)	Informal style (e.g., researchers write in an informal style)	Advocacy and change (e.g., researchers use language that will help bring about change and advocate for participants)	Formal and informal (e.g., researchers may employ both formal and informal styles of writing)

Source: Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011)

Postpositivism represents the thinking after *positivism*, challenging the traditional notion of the absolute truth of knowledge and recognizing that we cannot be “positive” about our claims of knowledge when studying the behavior and actions of humans (Creswell, 2009, p.7). Postpositivists hold a deterministic philosophy in which causes probably determine effects or outcomes. *Postpositivism* is closely identified with quantitative research. Researchers make claims based on a cause-and-effect relationship, focusing on variables that can be interrelated, conducting detailed measures of variables, and testing and refining theories (Slife & Williams 1995). *Postpositivists* aim to test a theory and describe an experience through observation and measurement in order to predict a claim. The accepted scientific approach to research is to start with a theory, collect data that either supports or refutes the theory, and then make necessary revisions before additional tests are made (Creswell, 2009).

Social Constructivists (or interpretivists, Mertens, 1998) on the other hand, are typically associated with qualitative approaches. The main aim of this paradigm is to understand the world of human experience, which suggest that reality is socially constructed (Mertens 2009). The main assumption is that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work by developing subjective meanings of their experiences. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading to the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meaning into a few categories or ideas (Creswell, 2009). With this form of enquiry, researchers find the meaning of a phenomenon through understanding participants and their subjective views. These subjective meanings are not imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others (hence social constructivism). The researcher’s intent is to make sense of (or interpret) the meanings others have about the world. Rather than starting with a theory, inquirers generate or inductively develop a theory or patterns of meaning (Creswell, 2009).

Participatory philosophical worldview, often associated with qualitative approaches, is influenced by political concerns. The position arose in the 1980s and 1990s from individuals who felt that *postpositivist* assumptions imposed structural laws and theories that did not fit marginalized individuals in our society that needed to be addressed (Creswell, 2009). Heron and Reason (1997) claimed that the fundamental quality of participatory worldview is that it is self reflexive. It allows a human to know that everyone is a part of the whole rather than separated, and to join others in collaborative

forms of enquiry. Accordingly the research inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and should contain an action agenda for reform to remove issues of domination, inequality, oppression, alienation (Creswell, 2009).

The fourth worldview, pragmatism, emphasizes the consequences of research and is pluralistic in nature. The pragmatic approach relies on abductive reasoning that moves back and forth between induction and deduction (Morgan 2007) (Table 3.2). Pragmatists also use an intersubjective approach, which captures the components of both subjectivity and objectivity. Further, researchers with this view advocate the concept of transferability and ask whether something that is learned in one context can be applied in another.

Table 3.2: A pragmatic alternative to the key issues in social science research methodology

	Qualitative approach	Quantitative approach	Pragmatic approach
Connection of theory and data	Induction	Deduction	Abduction
Relationship to research process	Subjectivity	Objectivity	Intersubjectivity
Inference from data	Context	Generality	Transferability

Source: Morgan (2007)

There are many forms of pragmatism, but pragmatism as a world view arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (as in postpositivism). It is concerned with whatever works (applications) and solutions to problems (Patton, 1990). Instead of focusing on methods, the researchers emphasize the research problem and use of approaches available to understand the problem (Creswell, 2009).

Mixed method research allows for additional insights and understanding that might be neglected when only a single method is used, and thus it produces the more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). There are four purposes for mixed method research as identified by Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989): (1) triangulation (convergence and corroboration of

findings from different methods), (2) complementarity (elaboration, enhancement or clarification of the findings from one method with the findings from the other method), (3) development (results from one method help to develop or inform the use of the other method) and (4) expansion (extending the breadth and range of enquiry by using different methods for different enquiry components).

The Mixed Method Approach

This study appears as though it has adopted a clearly planned mixed method approach to social inquiry. And indeed our ontological and epistemological positions, whether implicit or explicit, generally influence the ways in which we approach and craft our research. At the outset, this research adopted a purely quantitative paradigm but the researcher was asked to supplement the quantitative data with qualitative interviews. This last minute attempt at mixing methods without prior plan is responsible for the ad hoc nature of the data integration. A mixed methods strategy at proposal stage would have helped uncover the intricacies that lie beneath a given phenomenon as corroboration of findings revealed by one method by findings based on another method can produce more comprehensive and valid findings and meaningful answers (Greene, 2006). This was not possible at the planning stage and therefore this research cannot claim to have used a mixed methods strategy. There is therefore no detailed explanation in this chapter or elsewhere how the qualitative data were collected, analysed and interpreted, apart from the fact that the interviews with the sampled managers were tape recorded and later transcribed. Themes and patterns that emerged were later summarized in table form (appendix 10 and 11).

Research Design

This study should have followed a pragmatic paradigm, with sequential mixed methods strategy where the study begins with a quantitative method (for theory testing) followed by a qualitative method involving detailed exploration with a few cases or individuals (Creswell, 2009). It however ended up being mainly a quantitative cross-sectional survey design using self-administered questionnaires followed by interviews from managers as key informants. The advantages of the sequential mixed methods strategy which should have been preferred from the proposal stage was not fully exploited as the quantitative approach was recommended by Graduate School administration at the time.

Because of the three-step nature of the study variables this study employed hierarchical regression analysis of the quantitative data. This is an advanced form of linear regression, used as an alternative to comparing betas when assessing the unique variance contributed by independent variables (Aiken & West, 1991). This technique was used because of its ability to detect unique variance in the outcome variables (Hinkle et al., 2006), from the pooled variance of independents (job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development).

Research Population

Target Population

The target population was a total of 1,773 employees of the four purposively sampled soft drink industry in central Uganda sampled from Kampala, Mukono, and Buikwe districts. The four firms were purposively sampled because they had well defined organization structure and human resource management systems which are considered to be appropriate for study of an emerging construct of employee engagement (Shuck, 2011; Creswell, 2003). The choice was also justified by the centrality of soft drinks to the healthcare sector, the general community and the industry's contribution to the economy as a source of revenue and employment (Friday, 2011).

The choice was influenced by the fact that of all the regions of Uganda, these three districts have the highest concentration of firms in Uganda. The 2010/11 census of business establishments in Uganda done by Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) revealed that 60% of the Businesses were in the central region. The Manufacturing sector, which includes Food Processing and other Manufacturing, employed an average of 4 persons per business. Because the sampled firms have over 200 employees on average they qualify among the biggest firms in Uganda given 93% of all the businesses in Uganda employed less than 5 persons (UBOS, 2010/11).

The target population were all the employees of the four large soft drink firms totalling to 1,773 – composed of Century Bottling Company Ltd, 500 staff, Crown Beverages, 513 staff, Rwenzori Bottling Company, 210 staff, and Firm A, 550 staff. To increase the sample of middle and higher level category of employees who are usually too busy to attend to research questionnaire, a purposive sample of 40 managers and supervisors were made in Crown Beverages and Firm A and interviewed.

The existing research has reported on the benefits of developing an engaged workforce and as a result, many organizations are turning to enhancing levels of engagement within their influence. Managers are seeking ways to embrace the concept, designing development plans, and surveying their employees to find out what steps they need to take first (Ketter, 2008). This means managers and supervisors are at the centre of engagement enhancing strategies and therefore their roles and views should be captured. Research suggests the manager has a role in creating a supportive climate (Plakhotnik, Rocco, & Roberts, 2011), execution of mission and vision on a local level (Fleming & Asplund, 2007), and that managers with a non-defensive approach (Shuck, Rocco, & Albornoz, 2011) effect the development of engagement positively. Moreover, the role of culture, both organizational culture and local micro-cultures, have been examined as an antecedent variable (Brown & Leigh, 1996; Shuck, Reio, et al., 2011). Furthermore, research has suggested that workplace climates that are supportive, authentic, and positive all work to enhance the conditions of engagement. Supportive, emotionally positive workplace climates (Dollard & Bakker, 2010) have been operationalized to include the perception of supportive management, role clarity for in-role tasks, ability to contribute to organizational success. This explains why the interviews targeted the managers.

Below is the table showing the population and sampled soft drink firms in central Uganda:

Table 3.3a: Population and Sample of the soft Drink Industry

S/ N	Firm	Pop. (N) (Total Staff)	Sample following Krejcie & Morgan Table	Questionnaire collected (usable)	Response rate (%)	Employee Categories Lower Middle Higher (75%) (15%) (10%)		
1	Century	500				375	75	50
2	Crown	513				385	77	51
3	Rwenzori	210				158	32	20
4	Firm A	550				413	83	54
	TOTAL	1773	317	210	66	1331	267	175

Firm A – identity concealed

Source: Human Resource Department of the various firms

Table 3.3b: Population and Sample of Managers interviewed

S/N	Firm	Pop. (N) (Managers)	Interview Sample (Krejcie & Morgan Table)	Interviews (conducted)	Response rate (%)	Employee Categories		
						Lower (50%)	Middle (30%)	Higher (20%)
2	Crown	77				385	77	51
4	Firm A	83				413	83	54
	TOTAL	160	113	17	15	798	160	105

Firm A – identity concealed

Source: Human Resource Department of the various firms

Sample Size

To be able to make inferences regarding the characteristics of the population an appropriate size of the sample was considered (Hinkle et al., 2006). For methods such as correlation analysis, a sample size of at least 5 and up to 50 participants per variable is recommended (Green, 1991). Given that this study had 14 variables, a minimum total sample size of 70 would be recommended (Green, 1991) but this was found inadequate and a more standard procedure using Krejcie & Morgan (1970) table was applied giving 317 as the recommended sample size for this study.

Sampling Procedure

The target population were all the employees of the four large soft drink firms totalling to 1,773 – composed of Century Bottling Company Ltd, 500 staff, Crown Beverages, 513 staff, Rwenzori Bottling Company, 210 staff, and Firm A, 550 staff. Given that the target population from the four selected firms is 1,773 employees, a sample of 317 different categories of employees were sampled using sloven's formula and confirmed by Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table. The authenticity of Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table was confirmed by use of Sloven's formula, which give very similar results.

The formula states that for any given population the sample size is given by:

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

Where, n = sample size

N = Target population

1 = Constant

e = margin of error expected (0.05)

Therefore, $n =$

$$\frac{1773}{(1+1773(0.05^2))} = 326$$

To increase the sample of middle and higher level category of employees who are usually too busy to attend to research questionnaire, out of a population of 160 managers from two companies - Crown beverages and Firm A – a sample of 113 managers was selected (using Krejcie & Morgan table) and interviewed. After interviewing 8 Managers in each of the two companies, it was found that no new information was being generated and the interviews were closed. The interviews with the sampled managers were tape recorded and later transcribed. Themes and patterns that emerged were later summarized in table form in appendix 10 and 11.

Purposive sampling procedure was used to select the four firms because they are among the largest private sector employers in Uganda (UBOS, 2011). Stratified random sampling was used to select the respondents from the different strata i.e. high level, middle level and lower level employees. Thereafter simple random sampling was used to select the respondents from the different strata. However, the largest strata are lower category of employees (75%) who had difficulties with understanding the questionnaire and led to a very low response rate.

The units of analysis are the individual employee and managers from the sampled categories of employees. Engagement antecedents (drivers), employee engagement and the outcome variables were measured using standardized instruments.

Researchers (Wollard & Shuck, 2011) have recognized that what causes the unit of analysis to be engaged are identifiable at two levels: (a) *individual antecedents* and (b) *organizational antecedents*. Individual antecedents are strategies and conditions that are applied directly to or by individual employees and that are believed to be foundational to the development of employee engagement. Organizational-level antecedents are strategies and conditions that are applied across an organization as foundational to the development of employee engagement at the structural or systematic level. This means the role of management is very fundamental to the development of employee engagement both at individual and organizational level.

Research Instruments

The instruments used to measure employee engagement, engagement antecedents (drivers) and the outcome variables were standardized instruments used previously in several empirical studies and therefore needed no pre-testing.

The engagement antecedents were determined using the 58 short questions measuring 9 different drivers which are phrased into statements describing how the respondent feels in his /her job/organization – (Survey questions 1 – 58 in Appendix IVB). The nine employee engagement antecedents studied in this research with a computed (overall scale reliability coefficient alpha of 0.91) are (1) job characteristics (six items – Cronbach alpha, 0.55) , role clarity (six items – Cronbach alpha, 0.70), material adequacy (five items – Cronbach alpha, 0.78) , teamwork (five items – Cronbach alpha, 0.82), rewards & recognition (seven items – Cronbach alpha, 0.75), perceived social support (twelve items – Cronbach alpha, 0.82), compensation fairness (six items – Cronbach alpha, 0.82), job security (three items – Cronbach alpha, 0.77) and employee development (eight items – Cronbach alpha, 0.81).

Employee engagement was determined using the 9-scale University of Utrecht Work engagement scales (UWES-9, nine items - Cronbach alpha, 0.84). The UWES Scales is the most popular employee engagement scale in the academic literature to date (Alarcon & Edwards, 2008). The original version of the scale is 17-items long (Schaufeli et al., 2002), but a shorter 9-item version of the scale has been created (Schaufeli et al., 2006). This study uses the 9-item version (UWES-9) which has also been developed with the three sub-scales vigour, dedication and absorption being assessed by 3-items each. The computed alpha for the three sub-scales are as follows – vigour (0.69), absorption (0.56) and dedication (0.80) being assessed by 3-items each. Vigour is an abundance of energy at work, characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience. Dedication is emotional attachment to work while absorption is psychological (cognitive) attachment to work (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

The dependent variable - turnover intent level was determined using the modified *Intention to Turnover Scale* developed by Colarelli (1984) – (four items, Cronbach alpha, 0.70). The other outcome variables are also measured using slightly modified standardized instruments - Job Satisfaction (three items - Cronbach alpha, 0.56), Organization Commitment, (six items - Cronbach alpha, 0.88), and Organization Citizen Behaviour (OCB, seven items - Cronbach alpha, 0.84) - Appendix IVC.

The responses to the questions were elicited on a 4 point Likert type scales of - Strongly Disagree (1), - Disagree (2) - Agree (3), - Strongly Agree (4). Also included

in the survey items are five profile questions which will give information about the respondents and which we believe are possible predictors of engagement – gender, age, qualification, length of service.

The interpretations of the scores were based on the mean ranges. To calculate the mean range, we first get the interval by using the following formula:

Interval = highest scale – lowest scale/Highest scale = $(4 - 1)/4 = 0.75$, which is then interpreted as follows:

Mean Range	Response Mode	Interpretation
3.26-4.00	Strongly agree	Very High
2.51-3.25	Agree	High
1.76-2.50	Disagree	Low
1.00-1.75	Strongly disagree	very Low

Validity of the instrument

To ensure content validity, the survey instruments on the various engagement antecedents were subjected to judgment by the content experts in the field of Psychology and Management who estimated the validity on the basis of their experience. The experts looked at the validity of the question items in view of the problem, objectives, conceptual framework and the literature review. They also validated clarity of the instruction, the wording of the questions/items. They experts found the instrument valid.

Reliability of the instrument

The reliability of the data collected in the study was tested using Cronbach's Alpha – computed using SPSS and STATA. This test was done to determine if all the items in the instrument measure the same thing. Apart from Job Characteristics whose Cronbach's Alpha was 0.55 the rest measured 0.7 and above. The closer the alpha is to 1.00, the greater the internal consistency of the items being measured (George & Mallery, 2006).

Data Gathering Procedures

Before data gathering:

1. An introduction letter was obtained from the College of Higher Degrees and Research for the researcher to solicit approval to conduct the study from the sampled firms.
2. Upon approval, the researcher secured a list of the target population from the sampled firms and then used sloven's formula and the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table to estimate the minimum sample size. The instruments were distributed in proportion to categories of the employees – lower (75%), middle (15%) and upper level (10%).
3. Research assistants who assisted in the data collection were selected oriented and trained in order to be consistent in administering the questionnaires
4. The respondents were be enlightened about the study and were requested to sign the Informed Consent Form (Appendix 3).

During data gathering:

1. The respondents were requested to answer completely and not to leave any part of the questionnaires unanswered.
2. The researcher and assistants emphasized retrieval of the questionnaires within five days from the date of distribution.
3. On retrieval, all returned questionnaires were checked if all are answered.

After data gathering

The researcher edited and entered the questionnaire responses into the SPSS computer package for further processing and analysis. STATA computer package was also used to compare results and exploit its user friendliness and accuracy. A final report was prepared and after approval by the dissertation supervisors, the final copy was prepared and presented to the College of Higher Degrees and Research for final examination.

Data Analysis

All quantitative data were entered into both the SPSS and STATA database for comparison purposes. The programs enabled the examination of the data for statistically significant relationships using correlation and regression analyses (Hinkle et al., 2006). Characteristics of the data were analyzed using descriptive statistics including frequency, mean, and standard deviation as well inferential statistics, including correlations and hierarchical regressions. A significance level of .05 (two-tailed) was used in all hypothesis tests. Mean scores were computed and rankings used to show

the strength and level of each of the variables - employee engagement antecedents, employee engagement and employee outcomes. The following mean range was used to simplify interpretation of the descriptive statistics:

Mean Range	Response Mode	Interpretation
3.26-4.00	Strongly agree	Very High
2.51-3.25	Agree	High
1.76-2.50	Disagree	Low
1.00-1.75	Strongly disagree	Very Low

Before the correlation analysis was done data previously entered on SPSS and STATA were transformed and the question items aggregated together to give composite scores. Pearson's linear correlation coefficient was computed to test the correlation between the dependent and independent variable at 0.05 level of significance. The hierarchical regression analyses were performed to determine the relationship among the relevant variables.

Assuming the relationships between the variables are linear, the conceptual framework is converted into four regression equations – each representing the employee outcomes as dependent variables, the antecedents (drivers) as independent and employee engagement as mediator. Using a hierarchical regression analysis the researcher combines all the independent variables in one block - job characteristics (JobCh), role clarity (RoleC), material resources (Mat), collaboration (Coll), reward & Recognition (Rew), perceived social support (PSS), compensation fairness (CompF), job security (JobSe), development (Dev), and the mediator (employee engagement – EE – using 3 factors – ABS, DED, VIG) in a second block - to examine their unique contributions to the dependent variables (i.e., turnover intent (TOI), Job satisfaction (JobSat), organizational commitment (OC) and organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) to give four separate multiple regression equations:

$$TOI = \alpha + \beta_1 JobCh + \beta_2 RoleC + \beta_3 Mat + \beta_4 Coll + \beta_5 Rew + \beta_6 PSS + \beta_7 CompF + \beta_8 JobSe + \beta_9 Dev + \beta_{10} EE (ABS, DED, VIG) + \epsilon_1$$

$$JobSat. = \alpha + \beta_1 JobCh + \beta_2 RoleC + \beta_3 Mat + \beta_4 Coll + \beta_5 Rew + \beta_6 PSS + \beta_7 CompF + \beta_8 JobSe + \beta_9 Dev + \beta_{10} EE (ABS, DED, VIG) + \epsilon_2$$

$$OC = \alpha + \beta_1 JobCh + \beta_2 RoleC + \beta_3 Mat + \beta_4 Coll + \beta_5 Rew + \beta_6 PSS + \beta_7 CompF + \beta_8 JobSe + \beta_9 Dev + \beta_{10} EE (ABS, DED, VIG) + \varepsilon_3$$

$$OCB = \alpha + \beta_1 JobCh + \beta_2 RoleC + \beta_3 Mat + \beta_4 Coll + \beta_5 Rew + \beta_6 PSS + \beta_7 CompF + \beta_8 JobSe + \beta_9 Dev + \beta_{10} EE (ABS, DED, VIG) + \varepsilon_4$$

Key: ABS – Absorption, DED = Dedication, VIG = Vigour

Prior to testing the model, underlying assumptions about correlation and hierarchical regression analyses techniques were examined. The three conditions examined are multi-collinearity, linearity, and homoscedasticity (Hinkle et al., 2005). Serious violations of these assumptions may make inferences drawn from results of this study unreliable.

Multi-collinearity occurs when variables are so highly correlated that it is difficult to obtain reliable estimates of their individual regression coefficients (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). When two variables are highly correlated, they are basically measuring the same phenomenon or construct. To avoid multi-collinearity, correlation between predictor variables greater than .90 should be removed or combined (Green, 1991). High intercorrelations of predictors increase the standard error of the beta coefficients and make assessment of the unique role of each predictor variable difficult or impossible (Green & Salkind, 2005). Intercorrelations were checked and no correlation between predictor variables was found to be greater than .90.

Linearity. The assumption of linearity assumes the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is linear (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). While hard to confirm, this assumption was tested with a bivariate scatterplot (Green, 1991). An examination of the bivariate scatterplots showed they formed relatively linear lines, thus there were no violations of linearity.

Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity is the assumption that the variability in scores for one variable is roughly the same at all values of the other variable, which is related to normality. When normality is not met, variables are not homoscedastic (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Green 1991). The homoscedasticity assumption was tested with bivariate scatter plots and examined for an oval shape versus a cone or funnel shape (Green, 1991). An oval shape provides evidence that the variance of residual error was

constant for all values of the predictor variables. The scatter plot showed a generally oval shape for all predictors.

Hypothesis Testing

The three main hypotheses tested in this study are:

H1: The antecedents of engagement are positively correlated with employee engagement.

H2: There is a relationship between employee engagement and work outcomes. This hypothesis is broken into four parts:

H2a: Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee job satisfaction;

H2b: Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee organizational commitment;

H2c: Employee engagement will significantly positively correlate with employee organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB);

H2d: Employee engagement will significantly negatively correlate with employee turnover intent.

H3: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in work outcomes. This hypothesis is broken down into four parts:

H3a: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee job satisfaction;

H3b: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee organizational commitment;

H3c: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB);

H3d: After controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in employee turnover intent

To test *H1*, a correlation analysis was conducted to test the relation between the antecedents (job characteristics, role clarity, materials resources, collaboration,

reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security, staff development) and employee engagement. The resulting correlation coefficient indicated the strength and direction of relationship between the variables of interest simultaneously (Hinkle et al., 2006).

To test *H2*, a correlation analysis was conducted to test the relation between employee engagement and the outcomes (turnover intent, Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours). As in *H1*, the resulting correlation coefficient indicated the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables of interest simultaneously (Hinkle et al., 2006).

To test *H3*, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed where the combination of job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development, and employee engagement variables were examined for their unique contributions to the dependent variables (i.e., turnover intent, Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours).

Ethical Considerations

To ensure confidentiality of the information provided by the respondents and to ascertain the practice of ethics in this study, the following activities were implemented by the researcher:

1. Sought permission through a written request to the concerned authorities of the firms included in the study.
2. Requested the respondents to sign in the *Informed Consent Form*
3. The respondents and sampled firms were coded instead of reflecting the names.
4. Acknowledged the authors quoted in this study and the author of the standardized instrument through citations and referencing.
5. Presented the findings in a generalized manner.

Limitations of the Study

In view of the following threats to validity, the researcher provided an allowable 5% margin of error at 0.05 level of significance. Measures were also taken to minimize the threats to the validity of the findings of this study.

Firstly, were the limitations arising from the *extraneous variables* which were beyond the researcher's control such as respondents' honesty, personal biases and uncontrolled setting of the study.

Secondly, the use of research assistants can bring about inconsistency in the administration of the questionnaires in terms of time of administration, understanding of the items in the questionnaires and explanations given to the respondents. To minimize this threat, the research assistants were oriented and briefed on the procedures in data collection.

Thirdly, *attrition*: Not all questionnaires were returned completely answered. Some were even retrieved unanswered due to circumstances on the part of the respondents such as travels, sickness, hospitalization and refusal/withdrawal to participate. Because of low response rate from the lower employee categories, the overall response rate averaged 66%.

Fourthly, the study overwhelmingly used the Likert scale, and particularly the even-scales without the neutral choice for its quantitative data collection. Behavioural variables have questions which may be perceived as neutral by respondents. The even scales were prescribed for all candidates by the Graduate School administration as requirement at the proposal stage and by the time of collecting data no repeal had been made. The argument was to discourage respondents choosing the easier neutral position, since the odd Likert scales was claimed to have an inherent central tendency, acquiescence and social group biases embedded in its nature.

Finally, emphasis was put on the quantitative methodology and the proposal did not make provisions for mixed methods (such as use of interviews or secondary data) as the Graduate School Administration at the time was biased in favour of quantitative strategy. Later on the researcher was advised to triangulate methods when data had already been collected and analysed and final draft report prepared. Even when key informants interviews were conducted with managers, it was not planned at the proposal stage and made it very difficult to integrate the findings with those of the quantitative data. This is a weakness of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter presents the background of the respondents, descriptive statistics, and correlation and regression analysis of the data triangulated with interviews.

Profile of Respondents

The respondents' profile items included in this study are sex, age, educational level, job title (category) and length of service. Frequencies and percentage distributions were used to summarize the profile of the respondents as indicated below in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Profile of the Respondents – A Summary

Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Sex		
Male	124	59
Female	86	41
Age		
20-39 (Early adult hood)	152	72.0
40-59 (Middle adult hood)	56	27.0
60 and above (Late adult hood)	2	1.0
Qualifications		
Certificate	35	17.0
Diploma	44	21.0
Bachelors	111	53.0
Postgraduate	20	9.0
Other Qualifications		
Length of service		
Below 1 year	29	14.0
1 years - 2 years	60	29.0
3 years - 4 years	63	30.0
5 years - 6 years	29	13.5
7 years and above	29	13.5
Categories of Employees		
Lower level	100	48.0
Middle level	68	32.0
Upper level	42	20.0

Source: Primary Data, 2012

According to table 4.1 above, there are more male respondents (59%) as compared to females (41%). The majority of the respondents were in their early adulthood (72.4%) and very few indeed in their late adulthood (0.95%). It is found that slightly more

than half (53%) of the respondents had a Bachelor's degree and only 10% had Postgraduate qualifications. The majority of the respondents have been with their organizations for between 3-4 years (30%) and 72% have been with their organization for 1-4 years. Only 30% have been with their organizations for 5 years and more. In terms of employee category, the majority of the respondents are in the lower level category (48%) and only one-fifth (20%) are in the upper level category.

A multiple regression analysis of employee engagement on all the nine engagement antecedents with all the profile variables controlled yielded no significant relation between the profile variables and employee engagement. This means none of the profile variables - gender, age, educational level, job title (category) and length of service predicts employee engagement.

Descriptive Statistics 1 - Level of Employee Engagement antecedents

Table 4.2 provides simple summaries about the sample and about the findings on the level of antecedents of employee engagement in the study firms in terms of: job characteristics, role clarity, material resource adequacy, team work, rewards & recognition, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security, employee development.

Table 4.2: Mean Scores & SD of EE antecedents – ranked

Engagement Driver	Mean	Interp.	SD	t-values	Rank
Role Clarity	2.99	High	0.51	5.86	1
Job Characteristics	2.97	High	0.51	5.82	2
Perceived Soc. Support	2.57	High	0.46	5.59	3
Material resources	3.00	High	0.68	4.41	4
Development	2.63	High	0.61	4.31	5
Reward & Recognition	2.69	High	0.67	4.01	6
Collaboration	2.96	High	0.74	4.00	7
Compensation Fairness	2.61	High	0.76	3.43	8
Job Security	2.59	High	0.89	2.91	9

Source: Primary Data, 2012

For interpretation of the responses, the following numerical values and descriptions were followed:

Mean Range	Response mode	Interpretation
3.26-4.00	Strongly agree	Very High
2.51-3.25	Agree	High
1.76-2.50	Disagree	Low
1.00-1.75	Strongly disagree	very Low

The mean levels of employee engagement antecedents (table 4.2) in the selected firms are all high (within the range 2.51-3.25 – corresponding to “agree”) and are all significant at 1% level (t-values ranging from 2.9 to 5.86). This means the respondents agree that all the nine engagement antecedents are necessary for engagement but the five most significant ones are *role clarity*, *job characteristics*, *perceived social support*, *materials and development*.

These findings have been supported by interviews with managers where *role clarity* and *job characteristics* came out as the most common antecedents in the sampled firms. All except one agreed that their jobs are *clear* and *meaningful*. Excerpts of their responses are as follows beginning with role clarity:

We are given role profiles so the roles are clear ..., (Interviewee 2); *we have roles specified for each position, so we know our roles and areas within our control - there are clear demarcations* (Interviewee 6); *my roles are clear, where I need help, I consult my supervisor* (Interviewee 11); *my roles are clear because I have a job description and I know what to do. Role ambiguity may be there but not to a great extent* (Interviewee 14).

The only respondent that sounded negative turned out to be positive on further evaluation – *my roles tend to alter, sometimes they are audit related sometimes administrative due to the diversity of the company* (Interviewee 16).

On *job characteristics* the managers had these to say:

My work is interesting. It has been challenging due to competition (Interviewee 2); *my work is meaningful. I ensure the quality of work right from the preparation to dispatch to the market* (Interviewee 6); *my work is meaningful because it is what I always wanted to do. I find my work interesting* (Interviewee 8); *my work is meaningful because I enjoy dealing with human beings – a challenging job but I think I have learned how to interact with people* (Interviewee 14).

Collaboration and compensation fairness came out as the least common antecedents. Quantitative data also supported interview data where *collaboration* and *compensation fairness* came out as the worst antecedents with the following excerpts beginning with collaboration:

... frustration occasionally happens when people are not willing to give information delaying our work (Interviewee 1); *collaboration is not very high, sometimes you ask for information from other departments (you) end up begging and begging* (Interviewee 3); *collaboration is not always guaranteed. There is some friction. Some departments think they make the money. Information may be denied* (Interviewee 7); *conducive environment*

for teamwork is lost when you are barked at by expatriate bosses (Interviewee 10); We try to work in collaboration but in audit department colleagues tend to perceive us as unwanted and disliked (Interviewee 16).

On compensation fairness, excerpts from managers are as follows:

Compensation is insufficient; salary issue is the reason for (high) labour turnover. It is not very competitive (Interviewee 10); ... they call me Senior Sales Manager but you do not get the benefits of holding that big title. In other companies a holder of this position is given a car to carry out duties (Interviewee 11); Our compensation is lower than our sister companies (Interviewee 12); I would describe my compensation as not fair (Interviewee 15);

Job security which was ranked lowest by quantitative data was ranked 6th by the managers ahead of collaboration, compensation fairness and employee development. Development was rated by five managers as not good enough while only three managers rated job security as not good. The differences in rating may be due to the staff positions. Managers will tend to see job security as more stable than the lower level staff.

Generally, the perception the research antecedents by the managers interviewed correspond with the quantitative data collected. All the antecedents are ranked high (within the mean range 2.51-3.25 – corresponding to “agree”) and are all significant at 1% level (t-values ranging from 2.9 to 5.86).

Descriptive Statistics for Level of employee engagement

The mean levels of employee engagement in the selected firms are all high (within the range 2.65-2.97 – corresponding to “agree” - see second part of table 4.3) and are all significant at 1% level (t-values ranging from 3.47 to 3.67). This is likely to mean that the employees of the sampled firms are more dedicated (emotionally engaged) and absorbed (cognitively engaged) in their work than vigorous (physically engaged). Although about 50 per cent of the sample are lower level employees, the nature of work in the sampled firms probably demand more cognitive and emotional than physical engagement.

Table 4.3: Mean Scores – Employee Engagement (UWES-9)

Construct	Mean	Interp.	SD	t-values	Rank
My job inspires me (D)	3.04	High	0.93	3.27	1
I am proud of the work that I do (D)	3.08	High	0.99	3.11	2
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (V)	2.91	High	0.97	3.00	3
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (V)	2.86	High	0.97	2.95	4
I am enthusiastic about my job (D)	2.79	High	0.96	2.91	5
I am immersed in my work (A)	2.75	High	1.03	2.67	6
I feel happy when I am working intensely (A)	2.70	High	1.01	2.67	6
I get carried away when I am working (A)	2.50	High	1.01	2.48	8
At my work, I feel bursting with energy (V)	2.37	Low	1.03	2.30	9

3-variable factor engagement	Mean	Interp	SD	t-value	Rank
Dedication (D)	2.97	High	0.81	3.67	1
Absorption (A)	2.65	High	0.74	3.58	2
Vigour (V)	2.71	High	0.78	3.47	3
Overall Mean	2.78	High	0.78	3.56	

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Hypothesis 1: Engagement antecedents and employee engagement

Hypothesis 1 (H1) stated that there would be a positive correlation between the engagement antecedents and employee engagement. Zero-order correlation coefficients between the variables of interest were examined for meaningfulness according to effect size standards (Cohen, 1988). Following Cohen's (1988) effect size evaluation criterion, correlation coefficients $< +.28$ are small effects; medium effects range from $+.28$ - $.49$; and, large effects are greater than $+.49$.

Pearson's correlation analysis (table 4.5 and 4.6) showed that employee engagement is significantly positively related to each of the nine engagement antecedents - collaboration ($r=0.67$, $p=0.00$), employee development ($r=0.63$, $p=0.00$), *materials* adequacy ($r= 0.62$, $p=0.00$), perceived social support ($r=0.59$, $p=0.00$), *role clarity* ($r=0.55$, $p=0.00$), reward & recognition ($r=0.53$, $p=0.00$), job characteristics ($r=0.52$, $p=0.00$), compensation fairness ($r=0.51$, $p=0.00$), job security ($r=0.48$, $p=0.00$).

The three sub categories of engagement (vigor, absorption and dedication) are also found to be significantly positively related to engagement antecedents with the correlation coefficient ranging from $r = .34$ to $r=.65$. The engagement antecedent with the

highest correlation coefficient is *collaboration*, followed by *development*, while the dimensions of engagement with the highest correlation coefficient are *collaboration - vigor*, $r = .63$, and *development - vigor*, $r = .60$). Eight of the nine engagement antecedents showed large effects correlation coefficients (Cohen, 1988), providing empirical support for H1. Employees who scored highly on employee engagement also reported high levels of all the tested engagement antecedents.

Table 4.5: Correlation – Employee engagement (V, A, D) and the nine engagement antecedents

	EE	Vigor	ABS	DED	JobCh	Role	Mat	Coll	Rew	PSS	CompF	JobS	Dev
1.Engag't	1.00												
2.Vigor	0.85*	1.00											
3.Absorpt	0.84*	0.646	1.00										
4.Dedicat	0.86*	0.57*	0.59*	1.00									
5.Job Char	0.52*	0.46*	0.45*	0.42*	1.00								
6.Role Clar	0.55*	0.51*	0.47*	0.42*	0.57*	1.00							
7.Mater'l	0.62*	0.56*	0.54*	0.50*	0.53*	0.52*	1.00						
8.Collab	0.67*	0.63*	0.53*	0.55*	0.49*	0.63*	0.59*	1.00					
9. Reward	0.53*	0.54*	0.48*	0.36*	0.50*	0.54*	0.50*	0.55*	1.00				
10.Support	0.59*	0.57*	0.50*	0.44*	0.55*	0.60*	0.61*	0.65*	0.70*	1.00			
11.Compen	0.51*	0.52*	0.44*	0.35*	0.41*	0.43*	0.55*	0.57*	0.65*	0.68*	1.00		
12.Job Sec	0.48*	0.48*	0.34*	0.40*	0.23*	0.32*	0.36*	0.47*	0.42*	0.48*	0.54*	1.00	
13.Dev	0.63*	0.60*	0.54*	0.48*	0.45*	0.48*	0.54*	0.66*	0.64*	0.72*	0.69*	0.55*	1.00

* Significant at 1% Level of significance. Primary Data, 2012

The correlation analysis showed that employees who scored highly on each of the engagement antecedents were also more likely to report higher levels of total engagement and engagement categories (i.e., vigour, dedication and absorption). In other words, employees who scored highly on employee engagement also reported high levels of role clarity, material resource adequacy, team work, rewards & recognition, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security, employee development and the desired job characteristics. Strategies to increase employee engagement must target to increase each of these antecedents.

Table 4.6: Correlation between engagement antecedents and employee engagement

Variables correlated	r - value	p-value	Interpretation	Decision on H1
Job Characteristics & EE	0.52*	0.000	JC is positively related to EE	Accept the H1
Role Clarity & EE	0.55*	0.000	RC is positively related to EE	Accept the H1
Materials & EE	0.62*	0.000	M is positively related to EE	Accept the H1
Collaboration & EE	0.67*	0.000	C is positively related to EE	Accept the H1
Reward & Recognition & EE	0.53*	0.000	R&R is positively related to EE	Accept the H1
Support -Org & Superv & EE	0.59*	0.000	S is positively related to EE	Accept the H1
Compens. fairness & EE	0.51*	0.000	CF is positively related to EE	Accept the H1
Job Security & EE	0.48*	0.000	JS is positively related to EE	Accept the H1
Development & EE	0.63*	0.000	D is positively related to EE	Accept the H1

Hypothesis 1 (H1) was formulated as: *there would be a positive relationship between the engagement antecedents and employee engagement*. The correlation analysis showed all the nine engagement antecedents were highly positively correlated with engagement hence the acceptance of all the alternative hypotheses formulated for each of the antecedents. That means employees who scored highly on each of the engagement antecedents were also more likely to report higher levels of total engagement. In other words, employees who scored highly on employee engagement also reported high levels of each of the antecedents - role clarity, material resource adequacy, team work, rewards & recognition, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security, employee development and the desired job characteristics.

Hypothesis 2: Employee engagement and selected work outcomes

Hypothesis 2 (H2) stated that there would be a positive correlation between employee engagement and the selected work outcomes – (a) turnover intent, (b) Job satisfaction, (c) organizational commitment and (d) organizational citizenship behaviours. Zero-order correlation coefficients between the variables of interest were examined for meaningfulness according to effect size standards (Cohen, 1988). Following Cohen's (1988) effect size evaluation criterion, correlation coefficients < + .28 are small effects; medium effects range from + .28 - .49; and, large effects are greater than + .49.

Hypothesis 2 (a): Employee engagement and turnover intent

Hypothesis 2 (a) (H2a) stated that there would be a positive correlation between employee engagement and turnover intent. Before relating EE and turnover intent

presentation of descriptive statistics for level of employee engagement is made first. Table 4.7 shows that the mean levels of employee engagement in the selected firms are all high (within the range 2.65-2.97 – corresponding to “agree”) and are all significant at 1% level (t-values ranging from 3.47 to 3.67). This is likely to mean that the employees of the selected firms are more dedicated (emotionally engaged) and absorbed (cognitively engaged) in their work than vigorous (physically engaged).

Table 4.7: Mean Scores – Employee Engagement (3-factors – A, D, & V)

3-variable factor engagement	Mean	Interp.	SD	t-value	Rank
Dedication (D)	2.97	High	0.81	3.67	1
Absorption (A)	2.65	High	0.74	3.58	2
Vigour (V)	2.71	High	0.78	3.47	3
Overall Mean	2.78	High	0.78	3.56	

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Descriptive statistics for Level of Turnover Intent

Table 4.8 below provides summaries about the sample and the observations that have been made on the level of turnover intent in the considered firms:

Table 4.8: Mean Scores - Turnover intent

Item	Mean	Interp.	SD	t-value	Rank
It is possible to find a better job than this one	2.77	High	1.03	2.69	1
Given my own way, I would be working elsewhere	2.49	Low	1.02	2.44	2
I frequently think of quitting	2.25	Low	1.13	1.99	4
I am Planning to search for a new job	2.23	Low	1.05	2.12	3
Overall Mean	2.44	Low	1.06	2.30	

Source: Primary Data, 2012

The mean levels of turnover intent (table 4.8) in the selected firms are low (within the range 1.76-2.50 – corresponding to “Disagree”). This is probably so because turnover intent is a negative work outcome. The only mean score corresponding to “high” is “*It is possible to find a better job than this one*” (mean 2.77 – corresponding to “agree”). This is likely to be so because about 50% of the respondents (table 4.1) belong to the lower level employee category and are probably thinking of a better job other than what they currently have. But in general employees are rarely thinking of quitting probably because of the high unemployment rates in the country or because they are well treated and valued by their employers.

Table 4.9: Correlation between EE and turnover intent

	EE	vigour	ABS	DED	TOI
EE	0.840				
Vigor	.860**	0.690			
ABS	.849**	.624**	0.56		
DED	.843**	.570**	.561**	0.80	
TOI	-.305**	-.302**	-.198**	-.275**	0.70

Source: Primary Data, 2012,

** Significant at 1% Level of significance.

Table 4.9 shows that employee engagement was found to be significantly negatively correlated with turnover intent ($r = -.305$, $p=.000$). Of this vigour contributes the highest ($r= -.302$, $p=.000$), followed by dedication ($r = -.275$, $p=.000$) and absorption ($r= -.198$, $p=.000$). These findings provide empirical support for H1. The more engaged the employees are the less willing they are to leave their employment. Given the negative relationship between engagement and turnover intent, the results of the three component engagement model is consistent with the earlier finding suggesting that the sampled employees are more engaged emotionally or cognitively than physically.

Hypothesis 2 (b): Employee engagement and Job satisfaction

Hypothesis 2 (b) states that there is a positive correlation between the level of employee engagement and level of job satisfaction:

Table 4.10: Mean Scores - Job satisfaction

item	Mean	Interpr.	SD	t-value	Rank
All in All I am satisfied with my current job	2.83	High	1.03	2.75	1
In general, I do not like my job	1.96	Low	1.04	1.88	3
In general, I like working here	2.77	High	1.02	2.72	2
Overall Mean	2.52	High	1.03	2.45	

The mean levels of employee job satisfaction in the selected firms are high (within the range 2.51-3.25 – corresponding to “agree” – table 4.10). The lowest mean score was in the reversed item “*In general, I do not like my job*” – which is consistent with the positively phrased items.

Table 4.11: Correlation - Engagement (V, A, & D) and Job Satisfaction

	Engagement	Vigor	Absorption	Dedication	Job Satisfaction
Engagement	1.00				
Vigor	0.85*	1.00			
Absorption	0.84*	0.64*	1.00		
Dedication	0.86*	0.57*	0.59*	1.00	
Job Satisfaction	0.61*	0.56*	0.54*	0.46*	1.00

Table 4.11 shows that engagement has been found to be significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction ($r=0.61$, $p=0.00$), and the three factor measure of engagement – vigor ($r=0.56$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.54$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.46$, $p=0.00$) are also significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction.

This study found engagement to be significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction ($r=0.61$, $p=0.00$). The three factor measure of engagement – vigor ($r=0.56$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.54$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.46$, $p=0.00$) are also significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction, hence providing empirical support for H2.

Hypothesis 2 (c): engagement and Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 2(c) states that there is a positive correlation between level of employee engagement and level of organizational commitment.

The mean levels of organization commitment (table 4.12) in the selected firms are high (within the range 2.51-3.25 – corresponding to “agree”). The lowest mean score was item “*I’m happy to work here till retirement*” which bordered on the “disagree” scale. This is probably expected since 30% were only between 1-2 years in the current employment and could not imagine working for the current employer till retirement.

Table 4.12: Mean Scores - Organizational Commitment

item	Mean	Interp.	SD	t-value	Rank
I'm proud to tell others of my organization	3.04	High	1.01	3.01	1
I feel personally attached to my organization	2.80	High	1.06	2.64	2
I'm proud to tell others I work at my organization	2.77	High	1.06	2.61	3
I feel problems of my organization are really mine	2.71	High	1.07	2.53	5
Working here has great personal meaning to me	2.63	High	1.03	2.55	4
I'm happy to work here till retirement	2.50	Low	1.10	2.27	6
Overall Mean	2.74	High	1.06		

Table 4.13: Correlation - Engagement (V, A & D) and OC

	Engage	Vigor	Absorption	Dedication	Organizational Commitment
Engagement	1.00				
Vigor	0.85*	1.00			
Absorption	0.84*	0.64*	1.00		
Dedication	0.86*	0.57*	0.59*	1.00	
Organiz. Commitment	0.67*	0.63*	0.58*	0.52*	1.00

Table 4.13 shows that the correlation coefficient of engagement and organizational commitment is found to be high ($r=0.67$, $p=0.00$). The three factor measure of engagement – vigor ($r=0.63$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.58$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.52$, $p=0.00$) are also found to be significantly positively correlated with organizational commitment, hence providing empirical support for H2. This means the higher the engagement scores the higher the employee is committed to the organization.

This study found the correlation coefficient of engagement and organizational commitment to be high ($r=0.67$, $p=0.00$). The three factor measure of engagement – vigor ($r=0.63$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.58$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.52$, $p=0.00$) were also found to be significantly positively correlated with organizational commitment. This means the higher the engagement the higher the employee is committed to the organization.

Hypothesis 2 (d): employee engagement and OCB

Hypothesis 2 (d) states that there a positive correlation between the level of employee engagement and level organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB):

Table 4.14 shows that the mean levels of OCB in the selected firms are high (within the range 2.51-3.25 – corresponding to “agree”).

Table 4.14: Mean score – Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

item	Mean	Interp.	SD	t-values	Rank
I willingly give my time to help others in this organization	3.00	High	0.93	3.23	1
I adjust my work schedules to accommodate other employees	2.69	High	0.96	2.80	6
I give time to co-workers with work or non-work problems	2.75	High	0.97	2.84	5
I attend functions that help the organization's image	2.42	Low	1.02	2.37	7
I offer ideas to improve the organization functioning	2.88	High	0.97	2.97	3
I take action to protect the organization from potential problems	2.98	High	0.95	3.14	2
I defend the organization from critics	2.88	High	1.01	2.85	4
Overall Mean	2.80	High	0.97	2.89	

Table 4.15: Correlation – Engagement (Vigor, Abs., Ded.) and OCB

	Engagement	Vigor	Absorption	Dedication	OCB
Engagement	1.00				
Vigor	0.85*	1.00			
Absorption	0.84*	0.64*	1.00		
Dedication	0.86*	0.57*	0.59*	1.00	
OCB	0.61*	0.49*	0.58*	0.50*	1.00

Table 4.15 shows that engagement are shown to be significantly positively correlated with OCB ($r=0.61$, $p=0.00$), hence providing empirical support for H2. The three factor measure of engagement – vigor ($r=0.49$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.58$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.50$, $p=0.00$) are also significantly positively correlated with OCB.

This study shows that engagement is significantly positively correlated with OCB ($r=0.61$, $p=0.00$). The subcategories of engagement – vigor ($r=0.49$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.58$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.50$, $p=0.00$) are also significantly positively correlated with OCB.

Hypothesis 3: Engagement antecedents, engagement and work outcomes

Hypothesis 3 (*H3*) stated that after controlling for the antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in (a) turnover intent, (b) Job satisfaction, (c) organizational commitment and (d) organizational citizenship behaviours.

Stepwise Regression Analysis

Stepwise regression is step-by-step iterative construction of a regression model that involves automatic selection of independent variables. It can be achieved either by trying out one independent variable at a time and including it in the regression model if it is statistically significant, or by including all potential independent variables in the model and eliminating those that are not statistically significant, or by a combination of both methods.

After data was collected, stepwise regression analysis was performed to test whether each of the four complete models was good. The results are as follows:

(1) Stepwise Regression analysis for the turnover intent model

The best model from stepwise regression analysis reduced the variables to four:

Model Summary

No. of observations = 208, $F(4, 203) = 23$, Prob >F = 0.000, $R^2 = 0.312$, Adj $R^2 = 0.298$, Root MSE = 0.708

Table 4.16 Stepwise Regression analysis for the turnover intent model

Turnover intent	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t
Compensation Fairness	-0.188	0.084	-2.24	0.026
Development	-0.345	0.086	-4.01	0.000
Reward & Recognition	0.339	0.0856	3.96	0.000
Support - PSS	-0.248	0.087	-2.84	0.005
Constant	-0.0011	0.049	-0.02	0.981

Reduced TOI model using stepwise regression:

$$TOI = -.0011 + -.248PSS + .339Rew + -.345Dev + -.188CompF$$

Table 4.16 shows that the stepwise regression analysis reduced the antecedent variables of the TOI model to four significant variables – together contributing 29.8% (Adj. $R^2 = 0.298$, $p=0.000$) of the variation in turnover intent, and employee development (34.5%) and reward/recognition (33.9%) being the two highest contributors, although reward/recognition shown an unexpected positive sign. This means that to reduce turnover intent, employee development must be prioritized.

(2) Stepwise Regression analysis for the Job satisfaction model

The best model from stepwise regression analysis reduced the variables to four:

Model Summary

No. of observations = 208, $F(4, 203) = 63.24$, Prob >F = 0.000, $R^2 = 0.555$, Adj $R^2 = 0.546$, Root MSE = 0.517

Table 4.17 Stepwise Regression analysis for Job Satisfaction model

Job Satisfaction	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t
Compensation fairness	0.241	0.056	4.29	0.000
Role Clarity	0.121	0.050	2.42	0.016
Absorption	0.205	0.060	3.39	0.001
Development	0.252	0.059	4.26	0.000
Constant	0.0057	0.036	0.16	0.875

Reduced model from the Stepwise regression Model:

$$JobSat = .0057 + .252Dev + .121RoleC + .241CompF + .205ABS$$

Table 4.17 shows that the stepwise regression analysis reduced the nine antecedent variables of the job satisfaction model to four significant variables – together contributing 54.6% (Adj. $R^2 = 0.546$, $p=0.000$) of the variation in job satisfaction, and employee development and compensation fairness being the highest single contributors

with 25.2% and 24.1% respectively. To accelerate job satisfaction managers should target these two antecedent variables. Besides, absorption (cognitive engagement), contributing 20.5% of the variation in job satisfaction should also be targeted.

(3) Stepwise regression analysis for the Organizational commitment model

The best model from stepwise regression analysis reduced the antecedent variables to five but two engagement components (vigour and absorption) were also found significant:

Model Summary

No. of observations = 208, $F(7, 200) = 47.43$, Prob >F = 0.000, $R^2 = 0.624$, Adj $R^2 = 0.611$, Root MSE = 0.586

Table 4.18 Stepwise Regression analysis for OC model

Organizational Commitment	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t
Job Characteristics	-0.163	0.073	-2.25	0.026
Role Clarity	0.172	0.065	2.63	0.009
Job Security	0.191	0.061	3.14	0.002
Vigor	0.161	0.076	2.1	0.037
Development	0.270	0.072	3.76	0.000
Support - perceived	0.180	0.073	2.47	0.014
Absorption	0.240	0.076	3.16	0.002
_cons	0.0029	0.041	0.07	0.942

Reduced OC model from Stepwise regression:

$$OC = 0.0029 + 0.180PSS + 0.270DEV + 0.191JobSe + 0.172RoleC + -0.163JobCh + 0.240ABS + 0.161VIG$$

Table 4.18 shows that the stepwise regression analysis reduced the nine antecedent variables of the OC model to five significant variables, but included one engagement component (absorption) – together contributing 61.1% (Adj. $R^2 = 0.611$, $p=0.000$) of the variation in OC, and employee development (27.0%) and absorption (24.0%), an element of engagement, being the highest single contributors. To accelerate OC managers should target these two antecedent variables. Vigour (16.1%), a component of engagement, was also found to be a significant contributor to OC.

(4) Stepwise regression analysis for the OCB model

The best model from stepwise regression analysis reduced the variables to six:

Model Summary

No. of observations = 208, $F(6, 201) = 34.81$, Prob >F = 0.000, $R^2 = 0.510$, Adj $R^2 = 0.595$, Root MSE = 0.655.

Table 4.19 Stepwise Regression analysis for the OCB model

OCB	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t
Compensation Fairness	-0.213	0.074	-2.88	0.004
Role Clarity	0.234	0.070	3.35	0.001
Job Security	0.138	0.068	2.03	0.043
Collaboration	0.190	0.078	2.42	0.016
Development	0.270	0.081	3.32	0.001
Absorption	0.346	0.077	4.46	0.000
Constant	-0.0034	0.045	-0.07	0.94

$$\text{OCB} = -0.0034 + 0.269 \text{ DEV} + 0.190 \text{ Coll} + 0.138 \text{ JobSe} + 0.234 \text{ RoleC} + -0.213 \text{ CompF} + 0.346 \text{ ABS}$$

Table 4.19 shows that the stepwise regression analysis reduced the nine antecedent variables of the OCB model to five significant variables, but included one engagement component (absorption) – together contributing 59.5% (Adj $R^2 = 0.595$, $p=0.000$) of the variation in OCB. Absorption (34.6%), an element of engagement, and employee development (26.9%) are the highest single contributors. To accelerate OCB, managers should target these two antecedent variables.

Hierarchical Regression Analyses for H3 (a)

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test *H3* (a) that stated - after controlling for engagement antecedents employee engagement will predict unique variance in turnover intent.

The first outcome variable examined was turnover intent. Engagement antecedents - job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward/recognition, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development were entered as the first variables in the model.

Engagements, including the three engagement subscales were loaded into the second model. Results of hierarchical regression analysis on turnover intent can be found in Table 4.20 below.

Table 4.20: Summary HRA with the antecedents, EE (V, A, D) predicting TOI

		Turnover Intent Model			
Variable		β	R^2	Adj. R^2	p
Step 1					
Job Characteristics		.10			
Role Clarity		.08			
Material resources		.14			
Collaboration		-.19*			.03
Reward & recognition		.31**			.00
Perceived Organiz. Support		-.31**			.00
Compensation fairness		-.19*			.03
Job security		-.04			
Development		-.29*			.00
BLOCK	1		.348	.318	.00
Step 2					
Engagement		-.11			
Vigour		-.02			
Absorption		.03			
Dedication		-.12			
BLOCK	2		.354	.321	.00
R² Change			.006	.003	.17

Note ** p< .01, * p< .05

Reduced model using Stepwise regression:

$$TOI = -.0011 + -.0248PSS + .0339Rew + -.0345Dev + -.0188CompF$$

Testing the first regression model, in the first block, five of the engagement antecedents, collaboration ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .03$), reward/recognition ($\beta = .31$, $p = .00$), perceived organizational support ($\beta = -.31$, $p = .00$), compensation fairness, ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .03$) and development ($\beta = -.29$, $p = .00$) contributed unique variance to the prediction of turnover intent (adj. $R^2 = .32$, $p = .00$) in the regression equation. These findings show that turnover intent can be predicted by employee collaboration (although it is eventually removed in the stepwise regression), reward & recognition, perceived organizational support, compensation fairness, and development together predict 32% of the variations in the turnover intent model.

In the second block, after controlling for engagement antecedents - employee engagement did not contribute unique variance to turnover intent ($\Delta R^2 = .003$, $p = .17$); thus, *H3 (a)* was not supported in this model - instead the null hypothesis has been supported.

Accordingly, employees who reported higher scores in employee collaboration, perceived organizational support, compensation fairness, and development, were less likely to leave their current workplace. These findings suggest that turnover intent can be predicted by the employee collaboration, perceived organizational support, compensation fairness, and development. Overall, the regression model explained 32% of the variance in turnover intent (large effect size; Cohen, 1988).

When stepwise regression analysis is used only four variables remain - perceived social support (PSS) reward & recognition (Rew), development (Dev) and compensation fairness (CompF) and the reduced model becomes:

$TOI = -.0011 + -.0248PSS + 0.339Rew + -.0345Dev + -.0188CompF$. The positive coefficient for *reward and recognition* is perplexing. This means the higher the *reward and recognition* the employee receives the higher the turnover intent. This is contrary to expectations. The highest contributor to turnover event is employee *development*. The variables that never reached significance levels are job characteristics, role clarity, material resources and job security and also *collaboration* which was significant under hierarchical analysis ($\beta = .19$, $p = .03$) became insignificant under stepwise regression.

Key informants interview with managers and supervisors revealed that on average 80% of the antecedents were rated positively and only 30% of the managers evaluated the turnover intent as high. This confirms the negative relationship between engagement antecedents and turnover intent. The two antecedents which received over 90% positive rating are *job characteristics* and *role clarity*, while the lowest rating was *collaboration* (59%) and *Compensation fairness* (65%). This means managers rated these four antecedents quite differently from the rest of the employees. Five of the antecedents were given 70-80% positive ratings by the managers (appendix 13).

On *job characteristics* the managers had these to say:

The work is interesting though challenging due to competition (Interviewee 2); *the work is meaningful because I value the profession and it is what I have always wanted to do* (Interviewee 8); *my work is meaningful because I enjoy dealing with human beings – a challenging job but I think I have learned how to interact with people* (Interviewee 14);

Interview data, like quantitative data did not rank the antecedents *collaboration* and *compensation fairness* high as evidenced by the following excerpts beginning with collaboration:

... people are occasionally not willing to share information (Interviewee 1); *collaboration is not very high, sometimes you ask for information from other departments (you) end up begging and begging* (Interviewee 3); *collaboration is not always guaranteed. Information may be denied* (Interviewee 7); *conducive environment for teamwork is lost when you are barked at by expatriate bosses* (Interviewee 10); *We try to work in collaboration but in audit department colleagues tend to perceive us as unwanted and disliked* (Interviewee 16).

On compensation fairness, excerpts from managers are as follows:

compensation is insufficient; the salary issue is the reason for (high) labour turnover. It is not very competitive (Interviewee 10); *...In other companies a holder of my position is given a car to carry out duties* (Interviewee 11); *Our compensation is lower than our sister companies* (Interviewee 12); *I would describe my compensation as not fair* (Interviewee 15);

The positive coefficient of the *reward and recognition* in the turnover model is confusing but descriptive statistics (table 4.2, based on t-values) ranked *reward and recognition* 6th out of 9 antecedents suggesting that despite the low rating on this antecedent, turnover intent remained low. This is expected in a situation of unemployment where alternative jobs with better rewards and recognition are very scarce. Surprisingly interviews with the managers also categorized *rewards and recognition* lower than most antecedents.

Probably due to differences in statistical analysis used or due to differences in the context, our results differ from those of Saks (2006) and Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) who used multiple regression analysis as opposed to hierarchical regression and found that work engagement had a negative relationship with turnover intention. Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) actually used hierarchical regression analysis and found engagement to contribute unique variance to turnover intent. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) also demonstrated that work engagement influences turnover intention by mediating the relationship with job resources (the antecedents).

Hierarchical Regression Analyses for H3 (b)

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test *H3 (b)* that stated - after controlling for engagement antecedents employee engagement will predict unique variance in Job satisfaction. Engagement antecedents - job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development were entered as the first variables in the model. Engagements, including the three engagement subscales were loaded into the second model. Results of hierarchical regression analysis on job satisfaction can be found in Table 4.21 below.

Table 4.21: Summary HRA with the antecedents, EE (V, A, & D) predicting Job Satisfaction
Job Satisfaction Model

Variable	β	R^2	Adj. R^2	p
Step 1				
Job Characteristics	-.09			
Role Clarity	.14*			.03
Material resources	.08			
Collaboration	-.00			
Reward & recognition	.02			
Perceived Organiz. Support	.10			
Compensation fairness	.18**			.00
Job security	.08			
Development	.24**			.00
BLOCK 1		.548	.528	.00
Step 2				
Engagement	.20*			.00
Vigour	.02			
Absorption	.17*			.02
Dedication	.06			
BLOCK 2		.573	.551	.00
R ² Change		.025*	.023	.01

Note ** p< .01, * p< .05

Reduced model using Stepwise regression: $\text{JobSat} = .0057 + 0.252\text{Dev} + 0.121\text{RoleC} + 0.241\text{CompF} + 0.205\text{ABS}$

Testing the first regression model, in the first block, only three of the nine engagement antecedents, role clarity ($\beta = .14, p = .03$), compensation fairness ($\beta = .18, p = .00$), and development ($\beta = .24, p = .00$) contributed unique variance to the prediction of job satisfaction ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = .53, p = .00$) in the regression equation.

In the second block, after controlling for engagement antecedents - job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development, employee engagement contributed unique variance in job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .023, p = .00$); thus, *H3 (b)* was supported in this model. In particular the standardized coefficient of employee engagement was .20 ($\beta = .20, p = .00$), .17 of it contributed by the subscale absorption ($\beta = .17, p = .02$). In other words employee engagement contributed 20% to the variance in job satisfaction, 17% of which was contributed by the absorption factor.

These findings suggest that job satisfaction can be predicted by the employee role clarity, compensation fairness, and employee development and engagement. Overall, the regression model explained 55% ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = .551, p = .00$) of the variance in job satisfaction (large effect size; Cohen, 1988).

When stepwise regression analysis is used the same variables which are significant under the hierarchical regression analysis remain, namely role clarity (RoleC), development (Dev) and compensation fairness (CompF) and the model and its coefficients becomes:

$$\text{JobSat} = .0057 + 0.252\text{Dev} + 0.121\text{RoleC} + 0.241\text{CompF} + 0.205\text{ABS}$$

Key informants interview with managers and supervisors revealed that on average 80% of the antecedents were rated positively and 88% of the managers evaluated the job satisfaction as high. This confirms the positive relationship between engagement antecedents and job satisfaction. The two antecedents which received over 90% positive rating are *job characteristics* and *role clarity*, while the lowest two rating was *collaboration* (59%) and *Compensation fairness* (65%). Five of the antecedents had high of 70 - 80% ratings by the managers. The ratings for all the antecedents are above average in line with quantitative data (table 4.2).

The job satisfaction model had the expected positive relations with the three antecedents - employee development, role clarity and compensation fairness and one of

the three factors of engagement – absorption. This is in line with the results of the interviews with the managers. Although in the job satisfaction regression model, the coefficient for role clarity was lowest (0.121), interviews with managers revealed that role clarity was rated highest at 94% with several managers/supervisors saying:

We are given role profiles - so the roles are clear ..., (Interviewee 2); *we have roles specified for each position, so we know our roles and areas within our control - there are clear demarcations* (Interviewee 6). *Role profiles are clear* (Interviewee 7); *my roles are clear, where I need help, I consult my supervisor* (Interviewee 11); *my roles are clear because I have a job description and I know what to do. Role ambiguity may be there but not to a great extent* (Interviewee 14).

This probably suggests that managers have a better understanding of their roles than lower level employees who made up 50 percent of employees in the quantitative data.

Hierarchical Regression Analyses for H3 (c)

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test *H3 (c)* that stated - after controlling for engagement antecedents employee engagement will predict unique variance in organizational commitment. Engagement antecedents - job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development were entered as the first variables in the model.

Engagements, including the three engagement subscales were loaded into the second model. Results of hierarchical regression analysis on job satisfaction can be found in Table 4.22 below.

Table 4.22: Summary HRA with the antecedents, EE (V, A, & D) predicting OC
Organizational Commitment Model

Variable	β	R^2	Adj. R^2	p
Step 1				
Job Characteristics	-.14			
Role Clarity	.18*			.01
Material resources	.08			
Collaboration	.10			
Reward & recognition	.08			
Perceived Organiz. Support	.14			
Compensation fairness	.00			
Job security	.21**			.00
Development	.30**			.00
BLOCK 1		.591	.572	.00
Step 2				
Engagement	.31**			.00
Vigour	.12			
Absorption	.21*			.01
Dedication	.09			
BLOCK 2		.629	.610	.00
R ² Change		.038	.038	.00

Note ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Reduced Model using Stepwise regression: $OC = 0.0029 + 0.180PSS + 0.270DEV + 0.191JobSe + 0.172RoleC + -0.163JobCh + 0.240ABS + 0.161VIG$

Testing the first regression model, in the first block, only three of the nine engagement antecedents, role clarity ($\beta = .18$, $p = .01$), job security ($\beta = .21$, $p = .00$), and development ($\beta = .30$, $p = .00$) contributed unique variance to the prediction of organizational commitment (Adj. $R^2 = .57$, $p = .00$) in the regression equation. Thus 57 per cent of the variation in organizational commitment was contributed by three antecedents – role clarity, job security and employee development.

In the second block, after controlling for engagement antecedents - job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development, employee engagement

contributed unique variance in organizational commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .038$, $p = .00$); thus, $H3$ (c) was supported in this model. The null hypothesis has been rejected.

In particular the standardized coefficient of employee engagement was .31 ($\beta = .31$, $p = .00$), .21 of it contributed by the subscale absorption ($\beta = .21$, $p = .01$). In other words employee engagement contributed 31% to the variance in organizational commitment, 21% of which was contributed by the subscale absorption. This also means employee engagement is a partial mediator between engagement antecedents and organizational commitment, and particularly intellectual engagement is the most important predictor of organizational commitment.

These findings suggest that organizational commitment can be predicted by the employee role clarity, job security, and development and employee engagement. Overall, the regression model explained 61% (Adj. $R^2 = .610$, $p = .00$) of the variance in organizational commitment (large effect size; Cohen, 1988).

When stepwise regression analysis is performed, besides the three variables - role clarity, job security, and development - which were significant under the hierarchical regression analysis, two more are added - PSS and job characteristics, and the model and its coefficients becomes:

$$OC = 0.0029 + 0.180PSS + 0.270DEV + 0.191JobSe + 0.172RoleC + -0.163JobCh + 0.240ABS + 0.161VIG$$

The negative coefficient of the antecedent *job characteristics* (- 0.163) is surprising. That means the higher the rating of *job characteristics* the lower the organizational commitment, which is contrary to expectation. Moreover this variable scored a 94% rating by managers interviewed. This is probably because the interview guide emphasized *job meaningfulness* and almost all managers said their jobs were meaningful. This is what the managers had to say:

Yes, my job is very meaningful. It is a new job - I was doing Finance for eleven years and now Coordination Management which I have done for the last 8 months. It is very challenging because it is more people-related (interviewee 5). Another manager said: Yes, my work is meaningful. As a trained teacher, I find great satisfaction in organizing, coordination and facilitating training (interviewee 17).

Possible explanation for the negative coefficient of *job characteristics* in relation to organizational commitment in the Ugandan context is that the respondents did not appreciate the contents of *job characteristics*, especially *job meaningfulness*, as measured by the tools developed in the western context. Their perception of job

meaningfulness probably varies from what the western world perceives as job meaningfulness.

Employee *development* and *job security* were also highly rated by managers. Out of the 17 managers interviewed only 5 on development and 4 on job security expressed negative tones:

Development is still weak area ... though it is coming up. Training budgets are made but when there is a shake up, the money for training is diverted (interviewee 2); training is still lacking although we budget for it - implementation is not that good (interviewee 8); ... the nature of my work makes it difficult for me to study. I work on weekends so I cannot enroll even for weekend programs (interviewee 11).

On job security the managers expressed a few negative tones as follows:

Job security in our department is problematic. We have lost a number of people because of shortage. The level of labour turnover is very high (interviewee 9); Job security is not very good especially where I am (interviewee 11); job security is low because of the problem of expatriates who do not work for more than two years. They are always clashing with locals because of cultural gaps (interviewee 16).

The three highest predictors of organizational commitment are employee development ($\beta = 0.270$), job security ($\beta=0.191$) and employee engagement factor - absorption ($\beta =0.240$). Thus a strategy to increase organizational commitment must target these three antecedents.

Hierarchical Regression Analyses for H3 (d)

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test *H3 (d)* that stated - after controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement will predict unique variance in (d) organizational citizenship behaviour. Engagement antecedents - job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development were entered as the first variables in the model.

Engagements, including the three engagement subscales were loaded into the second model. Results of hierarchical regression analysis on organizational citizenship behaviour can be found in Table 4.23 below.

Table 4.23: Summary HRA with the antecedents, EE (V, A & D) predicting OCB**Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Model**

Variable	β	R^2	Adj. R^2	p
Step 1				
Job Characteristics	.14			
Role Clarity	.21*			.01
Material resources	.10			
Collaboration	.21*			.01
Reward & recognition	.11			
Perceived Organiz. Support	-.06			
Compensation fairness	-.26**			.00
Job security	-.15*			.03
Development	-.31**			.00
BLOCK 1		.481	.457	.00
Step 2				
Engagement	.21*			.01
Vigour	-.11			
Absorption	.33**			.00
Dedication	.06			
BLOCK 2		.523	.494	.00
R ² Change		.042	.037	.00

Note ** p< .01, * p< .05

Reduced model from stepwise regression: $OCB = -0.0034 + 0.269 DEV + 0.190 Coll + 0.138 JobSe + 0.234 RoleC + -0.213 CompF + 0.346 ABS$

Testing the first regression model, in the first block, five of the nine engagement antecedents, role clarity ($\beta = .21$, $p = .01$), collaboration ($\beta = .21$, $p = .01$), compensation fairness ($\beta = -.26$, $p = .00$), job security ($\beta = -.15$, $p = .03$), and development ($\beta = -.31$, $p = .00$) contributed unique variance to the prediction of organizational citizenship behaviour (adj. $R^2 = .46$, $p = .00$) in the regression equation.

In the second block, after controlling for engagement antecedents - job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development, employee engagement

contributed unique variance in organizational citizenship behaviour ($\Delta R^2 = .037$, $p = .00$); thus, $H3$ (d) was supported in this model. The null hypothesis has been rejected.

In particular the standardized coefficient of employee engagement was .21 ($\beta = .21$, $p = .01$), and the subscale absorption .33 ($\beta = .33$, $p = .00$). In other words employee engagement contributed 21% (33% of which was contributed by the subscale absorption) to the variance in organizational citizenship behaviour.

These findings suggest that organizational citizenship behaviour can be predicted by the employee role clarity, collaboration, compensation fairness, job security and development and employee engagement. Overall, the regression model explained 49% (adj. $R^2 = .494$, $p = .00$) of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviour (large effect size; Cohen, 1988).

When stepwise regression analysis is used the same five variables which are significant under the hierarchical regression analysis remain, namely role clarity, collaboration, compensation fairness, job security and development and the model and its coefficients becomes:

$$OCB = -0.0034 + 0.269 DEV + 0.190 Coll + 0.138 JobSe + 0.234 RoleC + -0.213 CompF + 0.346 ABS$$

The negative coefficient of compensation fairness (-0.213) in the OCB model is surprising. It means the higher the *compensation fairness*, the lower the OCB, which is far from expectation. Interviews with managers showed that *compensation fairness* was rated above average at 65% while OCB was rated very highly. The managers had these to say in interviews:

My compensation package is sufficient enough to keep me going (interviewee 1); we are able to survive, it is fair (interviewee 2); our compensation is fair in comparison because we go to the market and compare and try to align it to the position you hold (interviewee 3); on compensation fairness, I would say we are competitive enough. Our Compensation is good but I don't think there is anybody who will say he is happy with pay package (interviewee 13).

On OCB, this is what the managers had to say:

OCB is what we do most of the time. We do quite a lot of work beyond our job description. We normally do that without asking for overtime allowance (interviewee 7); People do it including me, spending 12 hours at work and coming around on Sunday. That is going many miles than am supposed to go (interviewee 9).

It is possible that managers have a higher rating of OCB compared to the lower level employees. This could suggest the negative relation between *Compensation fairness* and OCB.

Interviews with managers were in line with quantitative data which scored *role clarity* as the highest antecedent. All agreed that their jobs are *clear*. Excerpts of the managers' responses are as follows:

We are given role profiles so the roles are clear ..., (Interviewee 2); *we have roles specified for each position, so we know our roles - there are clear demarcations* (Interviewee 6); *my roles are clear, where in doubt, I consult my supervisor* (Interviewee 11); *my roles are clear because I have a job description. Role ambiguity may be there but not to a great extent* (Interviewee 14).

The only difference seen in the hierarchical regression model for OCB is that job characteristics (job meaningfulness) which was ranked by managers as high as *role clarity* was replaced by collaboration which was at the lower end of the scale for quantitative data (table 4.2) These are some of the excerpts for collaboration:

...frustration occasionally happens when people are not willing to give information delaying our work (Interviewee 1); *collaboration is not very high* (Interviewee 3); *collaboration is not always guaranteed. There is some friction. Performance reviews are constrained* (Interviewee 7); *conducive environment for teamwork is lost when you are barked at by expatriate bosses* (Interviewee 10); *We try to work in collaboration* (Interviewee 16).

The emergence of collaboration as a predictor for OCB at the same footing as job clarity could be explained by the fact that collaboration is very central to OCB. Without collaboration OCB cannot be realized. The negative relationship between compensation fairness and OCB could be arising from the Uganda context where the majority of the employees look at their jobs not in terms of compensation fairness but in terms of survival, given the high unemployment rate. OCB may also be performed just to keep your employer happy and maintain your job. The two variables may be negatively related.

In summary, *H1* and *H2* were both supported as the antecedents showed evidence of statistically significant correlations with employee engagement (*H1*) and the mediator(s) showed evidence of statistically significant correlations with the outcomes (*H2a-d*). *H3* (a) was not supported because no measure of engagement predicted unique variance in turnover intent. However the hypotheses were supported in *H3* (b) where

engagement (*absorption*) predicted the 2.3% variance in Job satisfaction; supported in H3 (c) where engagement (*absorption*) predicting the 4% variance in organizational commitment (OC), and supported in H3 (d) where engagement (*absorption*) predicting the 4% variance in OCB.

H3 therefore shows that engagement is a partial mediator between the antecedents and the outcomes in three of the models – job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB but not in the turnover intent model. This is a surprising finding for the turnover intent model because research in other contexts found engagement to mediate the relationship between the antecedents and turnover intent (Saks, 2006, Schaufeli, et al., 2008). Our study found the following to be significant predictors of the outcomes:

- Turnover intent – collaboration, reward/recognition, PSS, compensation fairness, employee development (adj. $R^2=0.32$, $p=0.00$). The combined factors predicted only 32 per cent of the variation in turnover intent meaning that there are other important factors omitted in the formulation of the turnover intent model. Follow up studies should look for these but the most significant in the Uganda context should be the widespread unemployment factor which makes turnover intent irresponsive to what should have been predictors in the western context;
- Job satisfaction – role clarity, compensation fairness, employee development, engagement (*absorption*) (adj. $R^2 = 0.55$, $p=0.00$). Follow up studies should find which other factors could increase the predictive power of the job satisfaction model. Probably jobs in Ugandan context is just a routine which brings very little satisfaction with it;
- Organizational commitment – role clarity, job security, employee development, engagement (*absorption*) (adj. $R^2 = 0.61$). These factors explain three-fifths of the variation in the model;
- OCB – role clarity, collaboration, compensation fairness, job security, employee development, engagement (*absorption*) (adj. $R^2 = 0.49$, $p=0.00$). These five factors explain about half of the variation in OCB. OCB could be one of those dependent variables that are not responsive to variations in the independent variables due to context specific factors which have not been captured in the model.

This study is unique in that it found that *absorption* (intellectual or cognitive engagement) is a very central engagement factor predicting job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB in the Uganda context and it mediates the relationship between the antecedents and the three outcomes but not turnover intent.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONTRIBUTIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a discussion of results, contributions made to knowledge, conclusions drawn, recommendations, limitations of the study and ends with suggestions for future research.

Discussion of Results

The purpose of the study is to establish the relationship between employee engagement, its antecedents and outcomes (turnover intent, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours) in the soft drink industry in Uganda based on the existing engagement models and social exchange theory (SET).

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 (H1) which stated that there would be a positive correlation between the engagement antecedents and employee engagement was supported by the Pearson's correlation analysis which showed that employee engagement is significantly positively related with each of the nine engagement antecedents – the coefficients ranging from $r = .50$ to $r = .67$ at 1% level of significance.

The three sub categories of engagement (vigor, absorption and dedication) are also found to be significantly positively related to engagement with the correlation coefficient ranging from $r = .34$ to $r = .65$. The engagement antecedent with the highest correlation coefficient is *collaboration*, followed by *development*, while the dimensions of engagement with the highest correlation coefficient are *collaboration - vigor*, $r = .63$, and *development - vigor*, $r = .60$). All the engagement antecedents showed large effects correlation coefficients (Cohen, 1988).

The correlation analysis showed that employees who scored highly on each of the engagement antecedents were also more likely to report higher levels of total engagement and engagement categories (i.e., vigour, dedication and absorption). In other words, employees who scored highly on employee engagement also reported high levels of role clarity, material resource adequacy, team work, rewards & recognition,

perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security, employee development and the desired job characteristics.

The following sections discuss the results of each antecedent variable and its relation to employee engagement in the order in which it was presented in the model starting with job characteristics.

Job characteristics

Employees who experienced high degree *job characteristics* in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r=0.52$, $p=0.00$). These findings are in agreement with other studies on *job characteristics* in relation to employee engagement. Demerouti & Bakker (2011)'s definition of *job resources* corresponds with Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model which looks at *skill variety*, *task identity*, *task significance*, *autonomy*, and performance *feedback* which this study defined as *Job characteristics*.

Previous studies have found a relation between job autonomy and engagement. Xanthopoulou *et al* (2009) found that job resources, including job autonomy, have a positive effect on daily rates of engagement among fast-food employees ($n=42$). In a study by de Lange, Witte and Notelaers (2008), job *autonomy*, *decision making* and *job design* has been found among the job characteristics with potential engagement effects and indeed related to levels of engagement over time. Appraising and giving constructive feedback to employees for good performance helps maintain their motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) and consequently engagement as this signals to them that the employer recognizes and has interest in them and the principle of reciprocity is invoked (Cropanzano and Mitchel, 2005). Once the employee is engaged both attitudinal and behavioral outcomes are elicited. This findings support the Schaufeli *et al* (2002) model and the mediation mechanisms between the antecedents and the outcome is best understood through the social exchange theory.

Role Clarity (Expectations)

Employees who experienced high degree of role clarity in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r=0.55$, $p=0.00$). These findings are in agreement with other studies on role clarity in relation to development of employee engagement. Role clarity (clear expectations) is an important employee engagement driver. It has been studied by Seigts and Crim (2006) under the idea of "convey" (communicate) where leaders clarify

work-related expectations for employees. Similar research appears in Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey and House et al. (1983) measure of Role Conflict and Ambiguity. The findings of this study is consistent with previous studies that found role clarity (expectations) to be positively related to engagement (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999) and Harter et al., (2002). When employees receive particular services like clear role profiles from their organization they feel obliged to respond in kind and "repay" the organization in terms of engagement, and engagement leads to several outcomes both attitudinal and behavioural hence validating the social exchange theory.

Materials adequacy

Employees who experienced high degree of material adequacy in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r= 0.62$, $p=0.00$). These findings are consistent with other studies on materials adequacy in relation to development of employee engagement. The engagement driver *Materials* refers to the availability of materials, equipment, and technology that workers need in order to accomplish their jobs (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; Towers Perrin Talent Report, 2003). According to Seigts and Crim (2006) it is unethical and de-motivating if employees are not given the tools and knowledge to be successful. He emphasizes that inadequate resources is likely to lead to stress, frustration, and, ultimately, lack of engagement. *Materials* have been found to be positively related to engagement by both Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002). When employees receive adequate resources to work with from their organization they feel obliged to respond in kind and "repay" the organization in form of higher engagement – hence supporting the mediating role of engagement within the context of social exchange theory.

Collaboration/Team Work

Employees who experienced high degree of collaboration in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r=0.67$, $p=0.00$). These findings are in agreement with other studies on collaboration in relation to development of employee engagement. One of the important drivers to engagement is the opportunity for employees to give their opinions in matters that affect their work. *Opinions Count* as considered by Gallup Organization researchers refers to whether or not an employee's opinions were taken into consideration such as in a collaborative work environment (Tower Perrins, 2003). These

collaborative work environments are often characterized by trust and cooperation and may outperform groups which were lacking in positive relationships (Seigts & Crim, 2003). *Employee Opinions* as cited by Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002) are positively related to engagement. If an employee's opinion is considered, the employee will feel valued and important and will therefore be willing to emotionally, cognitively and physically engage the self. This finding is in line with the Schaufeli (2002) and Kahn (1990) model and in the spirit of reciprocity expounded by the social exchange theory.

Recognition and Rewards

Employees who experienced high degree of recognition/rewards in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r=0.53$, $p=0.00$). These findings are consistent with other studies on recognition in relation to development of employee engagement. *Recognition* as documented by the Gallup Organization researchers involves recognition or praise used as a reward for doing good work in an effort to encourage future efforts. Seigts and Crim (2006) emphasize that good leaders frequently recognize their employees by congratulating and by coaching them. *Recognition* has been found to have a weaker but positive relationship to engagement by Harter et al. (2002). This study found a strong positive relation ($r=0.53$, $p=0.00$) - (large effect size; Cohen, 1988). Recognition/reward given by the employer is interpreted as a gesture that has to be reciprocated in terms of higher engagement (Cropanzano and Mitchel, 2005). Once high engagement has been achieved the outcomes are positive changes both attitudinal and behavioural within the context of the social exchange theory.

Perceived Social Support (Supervisory/Organizational)

Employees who experienced high degree of perceived social support (PSS) in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r=0.59$, $p=0.00$). The findings of this study are consistent with other studies on PSS in relation to development of employee engagement. An important aspect of psychological safety (Kahn, 1992) stems from the amount of care and support employees perceive to be provided by their organization as well as their direct supervisor. Supportive work environments allow members to experiment and to try new things and even fail without fear of the consequences (Kahn, 1990). In their empirical test of Kahn's model, May et al. (2004) also found that

supportive supervisor relations was positively related to psychological safety and engagement.

Social support is also one of the conditions in the Maslach et al. (2001) model and a study by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that a measure of job resources that includes support from colleagues predicted engagement. Basing on the Social exchange theory, Saks (2006) posits that PSS creates an obligation on the part of employees to care about the organization's welfare and to help the organization reach its objectives (Rhoades et al., 2001). Furthermore, Saks (2006) argues that when employees believe that their organization (including their supervisors, Frank et al., 2004) is concerned about them and cares about their well-being, they are likely to reciprocate by attempting to fulfil their obligations to the organization by becoming more engaged (Rhoades et al., 2001). These findings validate the Schaufeli/Kahn model and the social exchange theory.

Compensation Fairness

Employees who experienced high degree of compensation fairness in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r=0.51$, $p=0.00$). These findings are consistent with other studies on compensation fairness in relation to development of employee engagement. For the employer, compensation and benefits are important as they are one of the most visible rewards (Milkovich & Newman, 2005); they are a means to retain the best employees (Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008); and are used to motivate employees in the development of skills (Milkovich & Newman, 2005). Compensation fairness refers to the perceptions that employees have regarding equity in company practices concerning internal compensation, external compensation, and benefits. Researchers have suggested that when pay is reasonable, especially in comparison with other's pay, a worker is more likely to be engaged. This findings ($r = .51$, $p<.01$) show large effect size (Cohen, 1988) and suggests that when employees perceive that their organizations compensate them fairly in comparison to others, they will engage physically, mentally and emotionally. The perceived fairness will compel them to seek to pay back their employer by engagement and engagement leads to other positive consequences in line with the social exchange theory.

Job security

Employees who experienced high degree of job security in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r=0.48$, $p=0.00$). The findings of this study are consistent with other studies on job security in relation to the enhancement of employee engagement. Herzberg (1968) defines job security as the extent to which an organization provides stable employment for employees. This definition clearly shows that it is the role of the employer to create job security for employees. The employer must put in place provisions to show employees that their jobs are secure even in events of major organisational changes. Once security is assured employees are more likely to be engaged. This study shows that the relation between job security and engagement is relatively low compared to all the other variables considered here - showing medium effect size (Cohen, 1988). This is not surprising as job security is a major concern of many employees in Uganda. Assurance of job security given by the employer is interpreted as a benevolence that has to be reciprocated in terms of higher engagement which triggers other outcomes (Cropanzano and Mitchel, 2005) in the context of the social exchange theory.

Employee Development

Employees who experienced high degree of employee development in their jobs were more likely to be engaged ($r=0.63$, $p=0.00$). The findings of this study are consistent with other studies on employee development in relation to employee engagement. Development may include supervisor endorsement of the training and development (Baldwin & Ford, 1988) as well as coaching (Deal, 2007). The Gallup Organization researchers claim that development includes support offered by other workers through challenging and meaningful work (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; Towers Perrin Report, 2003).

Work settings in which employees have opportunities for development provide opportunities for growth and employee motivation and engagement (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Bakker et al (2007) prefer to look at it in terms of increased vigour, absorption and dedication to the job. This study found employee development - engagement relation ($r=0.63$, $p=0.00$) to be one of large effect size (Cohen, 1988), and second only to collaboration. Opportunities for employee development given by the employer are interpreted as a goodwill that has to be reciprocated in terms of higher engagement (Cropanzano and Mitchel, 2005) and hence drawing out other outcomes both attitudinal and behavioural within the framework the social exchange theory.

In brief, this study is the first known research to empirically investigate such a large number of engagement antecedents (nine of them, including three engagement dimensions) in relation to the employee engagement as mediator and several outcomes within the context of social exchange theory and African context.

Hypothesis 2

The following sections discuss the results of each outcome variable and its relation to employee engagement starting with turnover intent followed by job satisfaction, organizational commitment and finally organizational citizenship behaviour.

Employee engagement and Turnover Intent

Hypothesis 2(a) stated that there would be a negative correlation between employee engagement and turnover intent. This study found that employee engagement was significantly negatively correlated with turnover intent ($r = -.305$, $p=.000$). Of this vigour contributes the highest ($r = -.302$, $p=.000$), followed by dedication ($r = -.275$, $p=.000$) and absorption ($r = -.198$, $p=.000$). These findings provide empirical support for *H2* (a). The more engaged the employees are the less willing they are to leave their employment. Employees who reported higher levels of employee engagement were less likely to turnover. Intention to turnover is more predictive of actual turnover than measures of job satisfaction or organizational commitment (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Extensive research (Allen, 2008; Gubman, 2004; Harter et al., 2002; Lockwood, 2007; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006) links an employee's intention to turnover with organizational performance constructs such as employee engagement.

A study by Park & Gursoy (2011) done on the US hospitality industry found that all the three dimensions of work engagement were negatively associated with turnover intention ($r = -.41$, $-.47$, and $-.24$, $p<.01$). Harter et al. (2002) found that engaged employees were less likely to turnover ($r = -.36$) as did Towers Perrin (2003; 2007) who reported that 66% of highly engaged employees had no intention to leave their current organization, compared with only 12% of disengaged employees (Towers Perrin, 2003). A study by Nowack (2011) also revealed that employees who experience lower engagement with their job reported significantly higher intentions to leave the organization within 12 months. An empirical model tested by Saks (2006) provided

evidence suggesting that employee engagement was negatively related to intention to turnover ($r = -.44$ and $r = -.41$). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that engagement was negatively related to intentions to leave. Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) in a study of employees ($n=587$) from a wide variety of industries, found that engagement explained unique variance in intention to leave.

Intention to turnover represents one of the most strategic outcome variables for human resource practitioners (Allen, 2008). Human resource professionals often utilize data about employees' intention to turnover as a yardstick for the success of their programs (Lockwood, 2007). Results from this study provide support for and parallel other research (Gubman, 2004; Harter et al., 2002; Saks, 2006) suggesting that the higher the degree an employer develops the levels of engagement the lower turnover intention.

Employee Engagement and Job Satisfaction

H2 (b) stated that there would be a relation between employee engagement and job satisfaction. This study found that employee engagement was significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction ($r=0.61$, $p=0.00$), and the three factor measure of engagement – vigor ($r=0.56$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.54$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.46$, $p=0.00$) are also significantly positively correlated with job satisfaction.

This is in line with a study by Nowack (2011) which also found that employees who experience lower engagement reported significantly lower overall job satisfaction. This study provides support for the hypothesis that employee engagement can have a significant impact on overall job satisfaction. Employees who were most engaged were more satisfied with work and reported significantly less stress compared to those who were less engaged (Nowack, 2011).

Saks (2006) also found that work engagement had a positive relationship with employees' job satisfaction; Alarcon et al., (2008) using structural equation modelling demonstrated that job satisfaction is an outcome of work engagement, and that work engagement fully mediates the relationship between variables such as role clarity and job satisfaction. Research done on the US hospitality industry by Park & Gursoy (2011) also found that the three dimensions of employee engagement were positively related to job satisfaction ($r = .42$, $.50$, and $.37$, $p < .01$), respectively.

This study has shown that employee engagement has significant effects on work-related attitudes and behavioural outcomes such as job satisfaction and

performance through its mediating role between several antecedents and outcomes. Any manager who wants to increase the job satisfaction of his/her employees must endeavour to increase employee engagement.

Employee engagement and Organizational commitment

H2 (c) stated that there would be a positive correlation between employee engagement and organizational commitment. This study found the correlation coefficient of engagement and organizational commitment to be high ($r=0.67$, $p=0.00$). The three factor measure of engagement – vigor ($r=0.63$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.58$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.52$, $p=0.00$) are also found to be significantly positively correlated with organizational commitment, hence providing empirical support for *H2 (c)*. This means the higher the engagement scores the higher the employee is committed to the organization.

Previous researchers have investigated the relationship between engagement and organisational commitment and found that those who are highly engaged in their work also tend to be committed to their organisations (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006). In addition, the literature shows that engagement is an antecedent of organisational commitment because people who are deeply engaged in their work tend to be more committed to their organisations (Jackson, Rothmann & Van de Vijver, 2006; Saks, 2006).

A study by Field and Buitendach (2011) in a South African educational institution found that engagement was positively correlated to organizational commitment ($r=.60$, $p \leq 0.01$) and that of the three independent variables studied, engagement had the most statistically significant predictive value for affective organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.55$ and $p \leq 0.01$) when the researchers controlled for the variance that all other variables in the model explain.

A study by Jackson *et al.* (2006) and (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009; Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006) also found that employee engagement is an antecedent of organisational commitment because people who engage deeply with their work are more committed to their organisations. A study among Finnish health workers by Kanste (2011) using Structural Equation Modelling showed that work engagement was positively related to dimensions of work commitment. Moderate correlation was found between work engagement and identification with organization. The findings of this

study are in line with a study by Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006) which found that work engagement was moderately related to organizational commitment.

This study added to the empirical support for the fact that employee engagement and organizational commitment are distinctive, yet partly related constructs (Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006).

Employee engagement and Organizational citizenship behaviour

H2 (d) stated that there would be a positive correlation between employee engagement and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The results of this study show that engagement was significantly positively correlated with OCB ($r=0.61$, $p=0.00$), hence providing empirical support for *H2*. The three factor dimensions of engagement – vigor ($r=0.49$, $p=0.00$), absorption ($r=0.58$, $p=0.00$) and dedication ($r=0.50$, $p=0.00$) are also significantly positively correlated with OCB. This means the higher the engagement scores the higher the employee OCB.

Other studies have also found positive relationships between employee engagement and OCB (Rurkkhum (2010). Avey et al. (2008) for example, found that employees with psychological capital and positive emotion were likely to have an employee engagement attitude and performed more OCB. In addition, the result of this study is similar to the finding of Wang (2009) in which a positive and strong relationship between organizational support and OCB was found.

Research by Ensher et al. (2001) reported that when employees perceived sincere organization support in terms of their well-being and their development opportunities, they experience engagement and are more likely to reciprocate by willingly participating in their organization's non-mandatory activities. This is an obvious way to show their appreciation toward their organization. The organization as well as supportive colleagues might influence employees to reciprocate the way they are treated leading to more helping behaviours from employees.

Hypothesis 3

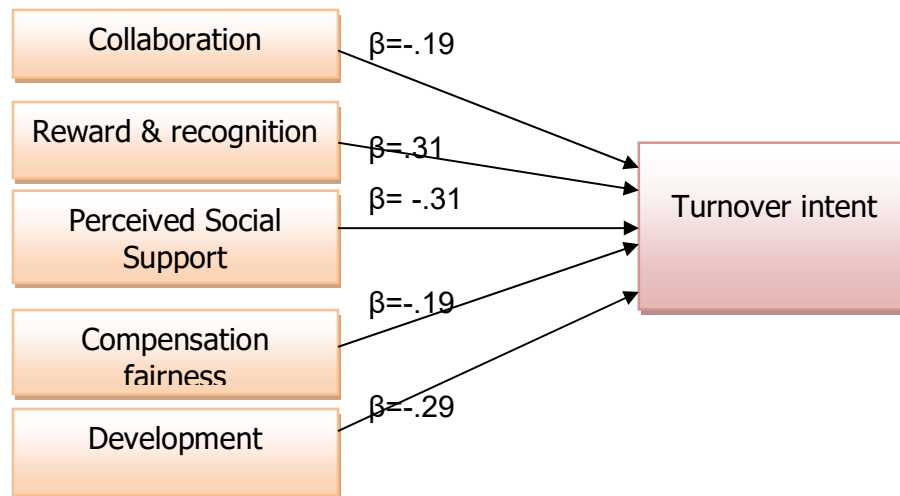
H3 (a) stated that - after controlling for antecedents of engagement, employee engagement will predict unique variance in turnover intent. Results from the hierarchical regression analysis presented evidence that some of the variables were antecedents to turnover intent, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB.

The following sections discuss the results from each hierarchical regression analysis starting with turnover intent followed by job satisfaction, then organizational commitment and finally OCB.

Predictors of turnover intent

The hierarchical regression analysis performed showed that five of the engagement antecedents, collaboration ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .03$), reward & recognition ($\beta = .31$, $p = .00$), perceived organizational support ($\beta = -.31$, $p = .00$), compensation fairness, ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .03$) and development ($\beta = -.29$, $p = .00$) contributed unique variance to the prediction of turnover intent (adj. $R^2 = .32$, $p = .00$) in the regression equation.

Fig. 5.1 Predictors of turnover intent



Source: Research data

Each of the five antecedent variables demonstrated a significant relation with turnover intent, suggesting that employees who experienced a high degree of employee collaboration, perceived high levels of social support, received high reward and recognition, perceived high levels of compensation fairness and regularly have opportunities for development, also reported being less likely to leave their current place of employment.

These findings show that turnover intent can be predicted by employee collaboration, reward & recognition, perceived organizational support, compensation fairness, and development together predicting 32% of the variations in the turnover intent model. This is a little low, meaning 68% of variation in turnover intent is explained by other factors outside this model. It is probable in the Uganda context that the widespread

unemployment factor makes turnover intent irresponsive to what should have been predictors in the western context, as shown by the scales used.

The most perplexing finding is *reward and recognition* which was found to be positively related to turnover intent against prediction of theory which predicts a negative relationship. The positive coefficient of the *reward and recognition* in the turnover model may be explained by descriptive statistics (table 4.2, based on t-values) which ranked *reward and recognition* 6th out of 9 antecedents suggesting that despite the low rating on this antecedent, turnover intent remained low. This is expected in a situation of unemployment where alternative jobs with better rewards and recognition are very scarce. Indeed interviews with the managers also place *rewards and recognition* lower in the ranking (appendix 11).

In the second regression block, after controlling for antecedents of engagement, employee engagement did not contribute unique variance to turnover intent ($\Delta R^2 = .003$, $p = .17$) because the contribution did not reach significant level at 5%; thus, *H3 (a)* was not supported in this model - instead the null hypothesis has been supported. Employee engagement was surprisingly not found to be a significant predictor of turnover intent, and in this model not a mediator between the antecedents of turnover intent. This is a surprising finding because research in other contexts found engagement to mediate the relationship between the antecedents and turnover intent (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker., 2004; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Schaufeli, et al., 2008; Halbesleben and Wheeler; 2008). This is probably due to type of regression analysis used or due to differences in the context. Follow up studies should try to capture other factors not captured by this model.

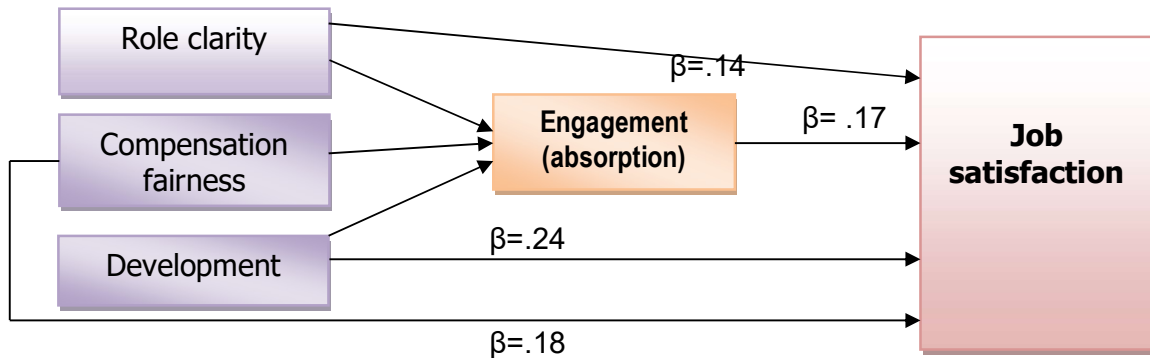
Even if engagement was not found to be a significant predictor of turnover intent, this research has validated and extended the engagement and social exchange theory by establishing that collaboration ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .03$), reward & recognition ($\beta = .31$, $p = .00$), perceived organizational support ($\beta = -.31$, $p = .00$), compensation fairness, ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .03$) and development ($\beta = -.29$, $p = .00$) are significant predictors of turnover intent.

Predictors of Job satisfaction

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test *H3* (b) that stated that after controlling for engagement antecedents employee engagement will predict unique variance in Job satisfaction.

Testing the first regression model, in the first block, only three of the nine engagement antecedents, role clarity ($\beta = .14$, $p = .03$), compensation fairness ($\beta = .18$, $p = .00$), and development ($\beta = .24$, $p = .00$) contributed unique variance to the prediction of job satisfaction (adj. $R^2 = .53$, $p = .00$) in the regression equation.

Fig 5.2 Predictors of Job Satisfaction



Source: Research data

Each of the three antecedent variables demonstrated a significant relation with job satisfaction, suggesting that employees who experienced a high degree of role clarity, perceived high degree of compensation fairness, and regularly have opportunities for development, also reported being more likely to be satisfied with their current place of employment.

In the second block, after controlling for all the engagement antecedents, employee engagement contributed unique variance in job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .023$, $p = .00$); thus, *H3* (b) was supported in this model. In particular the standardized coefficient of employee engagement was .20 ($\beta = .20$, $p = .00$), .17 of it contributed by the engagement dimension absorption ($\beta = .17$, $p = .02$). In other words employee engagement contributed 20% to the variance in job satisfaction, 17% of which was contributed by the absorption factor.

This study found that if employees feel that the managers have gone a long way to clarify employee roles, to ensure compensation fairness and higher opportunities for development, they will engage fully hence leading to job satisfaction and the resultant benefits to the employer. This reciprocal exchange is the hallmark of the social exchange theory. This research has therefore validated and extended the engagement and social

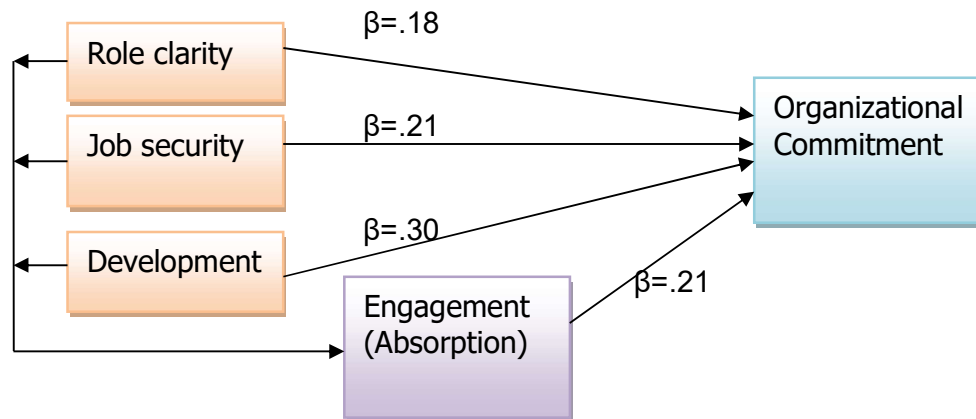
exchange theory and established that role clarity ($\beta = .14$, $p = .03$), compensation fairness ($\beta = .18$, $p = .00$), and development ($\beta = .24$, $p = .00$) are significant predictors of job satisfaction.

Predictors of organizational commitment

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test *H3* (c) that stated that after controlling for selected engagement antecedents - employee engagement will predict unique variance in organizational commitment.

Testing the first regression model, in the first block, only three of the nine engagement antecedents, role clarity ($\beta = .18$, $p = .01$), job security ($\beta = .21$, $p = .00$), and development ($\beta = .30$, $p = .00$) contributed unique variance to the prediction of organizational commitment (adj. $R^2 = .57$, $p = .00$) in the regression equation.

Fig 5.3 Predictors of organizational commitment



Source: Research data

Each of the three antecedent variables demonstrated a significant relation with organizational commitment, suggesting that employees who experienced a high degree of role clarity, perceived high degree of job security, and regularly have opportunities for development, also reported being more likely to be committed to their current organization.

In the second block, after controlling for all the engagement antecedents, employee engagement contributed unique variance in organizational commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .038$, $p = .00$); thus, *H3* (c) was supported in this model. The null hypothesis has been rejected.

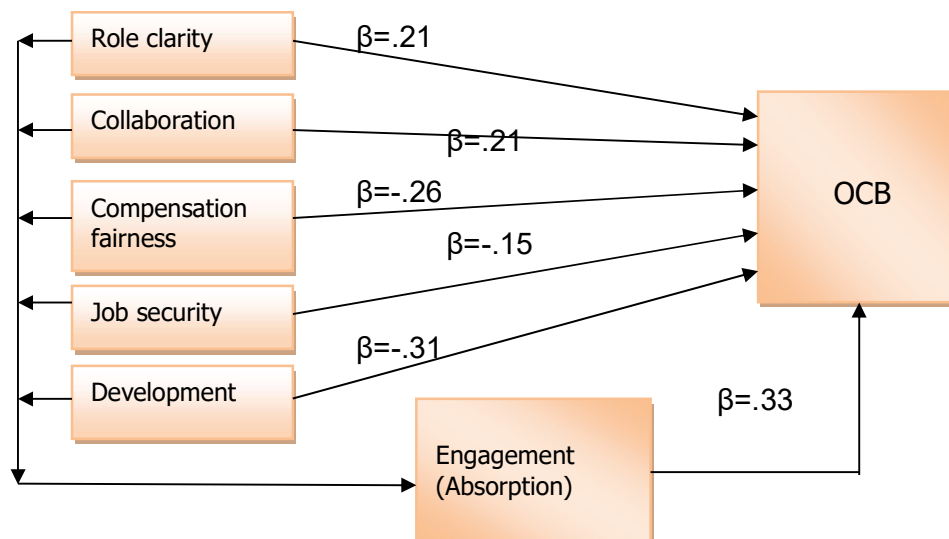
This study found that if employees feel that the managers have gone a long way to clarify their roles, to ensure job security and higher opportunities for development, they will engage fully hence leading to organizational commitment and the resultant benefits to the employer. This happens in the context the social exchange theory where the reciprocal exchange of “tit for tat” is generated each party fulfills its obligation, starting with the employer. This research has validated and extended the engagement model and social exchange theory and established that role clarity ($\beta = .18, p = .01$), job security ($\beta = .21, p = .00$), employee development ($\beta = .30, p = .00$) and engagement (absorption, $\beta = .30, p = .01$) are significant predictors of organizational commitment.

Predictors of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test *H3* (d) that stated that after controlling for selected engagement antecedents - employee engagement will predict unique variance in organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

Testing the first regression model, in the first block, five of the nine engagement antecedents, role clarity ($\beta = .21, p = .01$), collaboration ($\beta = .21, p = .01$), compensation fairness ($\beta = -.26, p = .00$), job security ($\beta = -.15, p = .03$), and development ($\beta = -.31, p = .00$) contributed unique variance to the prediction of organizational citizenship behaviour (adj. $R^2 = .46, p = .00$) in the regression equation.

Fig 5.4 Predictors of organizational Citizenship behaviour (OCB)



Source: Research data

Each of the five antecedent variables demonstrated a significant relation with OCB, suggesting that employees who experienced a high degree of role clarity and collaboration, perceived high degree of job security and compensation fairness, and regularly have opportunities for development, also reported being more likely to be involved in the extra role behaviour (OCB) in their current organization.

Three of the antecedent variables compensation fairness ($\beta = -.26, p = .00$), job security ($\beta = -.15, p = .03$), and development ($\beta = -.31, p = .00$) showed negative coefficients indicating negative relations with OCB which is contrary to theoretical prediction.

The negative coefficient of compensation fairness ($\beta = -.26, p = .00$) in the OCB model is surprising. It means the higher the *compensation fairness*, the lower the OCB, which is far from expectation. The same applies to job security ($\beta = -.15, p = .03$) – the higher the job security the lower the OCB and, development ($\beta = -.31, p = .00$) – the higher the development opportunities the lower the OCB. Possible explanation is that employee exaggerated their rating of OCB (mean = 2.8) as opposed to antecedent variables - compensation fairness (mean = 2.61), job security (mean =2.59) and development (mean =2.63). On Interviews managers on OCB, this is what they had to say:

OCB is what we do most of the time. We do quite a lot of work beyond our job description. We normally do that without asking for overtime allowance (interviewee 7); People do it including me, spending 12 hours at work and coming around on Sunday. That is going many miles than am supposed to go (interviewee 9).

In the second block, after controlling for engagement antecedents, employee engagement contributed unique variance in organizational citizenship behaviour ($\Delta R^2 = .037, p = .00$); thus, *H3 (d)* was supported in this model. The null hypothesis has been rejected.

This study found that if employees perceive that the employers have gone all the way to clarify their roles, to ensure compensation fairness, job security, collaboration and higher opportunities for development, they will fully engage hence leading to OCB and the resultant benefits to the employer. The reciprocal exchange of “give and take” is the hallmark of the social exchange theory. This research has validated and extended the engagement model and social exchange theory and established that role clarity ($\beta = .21$,

$p = .01$), collaboration ($\beta = .21, p = .01$), compensation fairness ($\beta = -.26, p = .00$), job security ($\beta = -.15, p = .03$), and development ($\beta = -.31, p = .00$) are significant predictor of OCB. Any policy to increase OCB should therefore address those antecedents. The unexpected negative relations shown by the coefficients of *compensation fairness*, *job security*, and *development* are probably due to both managers and lower level employees giving a higher rating for OCB versus the antecedents in question. It is also probable that OCB could be one of those dependent variables that are not responsive to variations in the independent variables due to context specific factors which have not been captured in the model.

The results of this study further confirm that employee engagement can be understood in terms of social exchange theory. That is, employees who perceive higher support from their employer in terms of resources, teamwork, development and compensation fairness are more likely to reciprocate with greater levels of engagement. Employees whose job environment provides adequate resources, collaboration, compensation fairness, employee development and their jobs are high on the job characteristics are more likely to reciprocate with greater engagement. Similarly employees who have higher supervisory and organization support are more likely to reciprocate with greater engagement. Engaged employees are also more likely to have a high-quality relationship with their employer leading them to have more positive attitudes, and behaviours like turnover intent, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB.

Summary of the findings

All the nine antecedent variables studied were significantly related to employee engagement and employee engagement was significantly related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB but did not reach significant levels with turnover intention which contradicts findings in other contexts.

For the job satisfaction model, the hierarchical regression analysis results suggested that employees who experienced a high degree of *role clarity*, *compensation fairness*, and high opportunities for *employee development*, are engaged (*absorbed* in their work) and also reported being more likely to be satisfied with their job. The surprising findings for Job satisfaction model is that *job security*, perceived *social support*, *reward & recognition*, *teamwork*, *material resources* and *job characteristics*

(meaningful work) do not significantly influence job satisfaction which contradicts findings in other contexts.

Four significant factors contributed unique variance to Job satisfaction are *role clarity, compensation fairness, employee development, engagement (absorption)* (adj. $R^2 = 0.55$, $p=0.00$). These four factors combined contributed 55% to the variance in job satisfaction. Follow up studies should find which other factors could increase the predictive power of the job satisfaction model. Probably one of the unexplained factors is the routine nature of jobs in the Ugandan context which brings very little satisfaction with it.

For the organizational commitment model, the hierarchical regression analysis results shows that *three* antecedents demonstrated a significant relation with organizational commitment, suggesting that employees who experienced a high degree of *role clarity*, high degree of *job security*, and high opportunities for *employee development*, were engaged (*absorbed* in their work) also reported being more likely to be committed to their organization. The surprising findings for Organization commitment model is that *compensation fairness, perceived social support, reward & recognition, teamwork, work material resources* and *job characteristics* (meaningful work) does not significantly influence Organization commitment. This contradicts the expectations of the model and findings in other contexts.

Four significant factors which contributed unique variance to organizational commitment are *role clarity, job security, employee development, engagement (absorption)* (adj. $R^2 = 0.61$, $p=0.00$). These four factors combined contributed 61% to the variance in organizational commitment. Follow up studies should find which other factors could increase the predictive power of the organizational commitment model, although this on average is a very high predictive power.

For the OCB model, the hierarchical regression analysis results shows that *five* antecedent variables demonstrated a significant relationship with OCB, suggesting that employees who experienced a high degree of *role clarity, collaboration, job security, compensation fairness*, and *employee development* were engaged (*absorbed* in their work) and also reported being more likely to have high OCB. The surprising findings for OCB model is that *perceived social support, reward & recognition, work material resources* and *job characteristics* (meaningful work) do not significantly influence OCB, which contradicted expectations and findings in other contexts.

Six significant factors which contributed unique variance in OCB are *role clarity*, *collaboration*, compensation fairness, job security, *employee development*, *engagement (absorption)* (adj. $R^2 = 0.494$, $p=0.00$). These six factors combined contributed about 50% to the variance in OCB. Follow up studies should find which other factors could increase the predictive power of the OCB model. Probably one of the unexplained factors is the unfamiliar nature of the OCB in the Uganda work context.

For the turnover intent model, the hierarchical regression analysis found *five* antecedents significantly negatively related to turnover intent, suggesting that employees who experienced a high degree of *collaboration*, *social support*, *reward/recognition*, *compensation fairness* and *development* were less likely to experience turnover intent. The surprising findings for turnover intent model is that perceived *job security*, work *material resources* and *job characteristics* (meaningful work) did not significantly influence turnover intent. This was contrary to expectations and contradicts findings in other contexts and therefore warrants further research. Another surprising finding is that employee engagement did not contribute unique variance to turnover intent and therefore did not mediate the relationship between the antecedents and turnover intent probably due to differences in statistical analysis used or due to differences in the context, also demonstrated by several scholars (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008).

In the turnover intent model five antecedents – *collaboration*, *reward/recognition*, *PSS*, *compensation fairness*, *employee development* contributed unique variance to the prediction of turnover intent (adj. $R^2=0.32$, $p=0.00$). The five significant factors predicted only 32 per cent of the variation in turnover intent meaning that there are other important factors omitted in the formulation of the turnover intent model. Follow up studies should look for these but the most probable factor in the Uganda context should be the widespread unemployment which makes turnover intent irresponsive to what should have been predictors in the western context.

Hypotheses, *H1* and *H2* were both supported as the antecedents showed evidence of statistically significant correlations with employee engagement (*H1*) and the mediator(s) showed evidence of statistically significant correlations with the outcomes (*H2a-d*). *H3 (a)* was not supported because no measure of engagement predicted unique variance in turnover intent. However the hypotheses were supported in *H3 (b)* where engagement (*absorption*) predicted the 17% variance in Job satisfaction; supported in *H3 (c)* where engagement (*absorption*) predicting the 21% variance in

organizational commitment (OC), and supported in H3 (d) where engagement (*absorption*) predicting the 33% variance in OCB. H3 therefore shows that engagement is a partial mediator between the antecedents and the outcomes in three of the models – job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB but not in the turnover intent model.

Contributions to knowledge

The study contributed to prevailing debate about whether there was a direct link between HR practices (antecedents) and organizational performance, or that the relationship is mediated by a range of attitudinal and behavioral variables at the individual level. This study filled that gap by proposing that the connection to performance is through job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee engagement. In this research two behavioural outcomes - OCB and turnover intent were found to be partially mediated by employee engagement as anticipated by several scholars (Guest, Conway, & Dewe, 2004; Kuvaas, 2008; Snape & Redman, 2010).

In addition, this study focused at individual employees (microeconomic level) to investigate the antecedents-engagement-outcome relationship in human resource management and organizational studies by adopting a social exchange theory framework and mainly quantitative paradigm and demonstrated that the relationship is mediated by both attitudinal variables (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee engagement) and behavioral variable (OCB and turnover intent).

In line with the latest development in the understanding of the mechanism through which HR (antecedent) practices leads to Performance this study included employee engagement in the debate and bringing the two together in the study suggests that employee engagement constitutes the mechanism through which HRM practices (the antecedents) impact individual and organizational performance within the framework of social exchange theory.

This study also contributed to the debate that aggregate outcome variables used in the existing management literature, such as competitiveness, firm financial performance and organizational effectiveness, are too distal from the micro-level HRM interventions, and that more proximal outcome indicators at the individual level would provide a better and more reliable measure of individual HRM outcomes. This study focused on individual attitudinal (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee engagement) and individual behavioral outcomes (OCB and turnover intent)

at the microeconomic level, where the link between experiences of HRM practices (antecedents) and a range of outcomes is more proximal than competitiveness and overall organizational performance (Wright & Haggerty, 2005; Purcell & Kinnie, 2007; Paauwe, 2004).

This study combined the formal HR practices (antecedents) and employee engagement using a sequential mixed methods paradigm (Creswell, 2009) to understand individual employee outcomes within the context of social exchange theory. The finding is that as long as managers provide a favourable work environment, employees will engage their minds, emotions and energies with positive impact on various HR outcomes. As an alternative to studying the impact of HR practices on the usual individual task performance, this study contributed knowledge on the interim outcomes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB and turnover intent.

Besides, most of the studies that have been conducted on the predictors of employee engagement and their outcomes in recent years were mostly centered on the Western world such as the United States (Britt, 2003; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004), Netherlands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007), Spain (Salanova, et al., 2005), Finland (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007), Greece (Xanthopoulou, et al., 2009), Norway (Martinussen, Richardsen, & Burke, 2007). This study filled that research gap in the Ugandan context among soft drink industry employees.

The results of this study confirm that the relationship between antecedents, employee engagement and outcomes can be understood in terms of social exchange theory. That is, employees who perceive higher support from their employer in terms of role clarity, teamwork, compensation fairness, job security and development and are more likely to reciprocate with greater levels of engagement. Engaged employees are also more likely to have a high-quality relationship with their employer leading them to have more positive attitudes, and behaviours like job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB and are likely to not to turnover.

This study drew on social exchange theory (Homans, 1961, Blau, 1964; Ekeh, 1974; Gouldner, 1960) in the context of the employment relationship to validate and extend its application to the Ugandan context where employees of soft drink industry were found to experience engagement with their work when antecedents (HR practices) were in place that signaled to them that they are valued and trusted (Eisenberger et al. 2001; Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006) and once engaged they were

found to invest themselves fully in their roles (Rothbard, 2001), which lead to both attitudinal (job satisfaction, commitment) and behavioral outcomes (OCB and reduced turnover intent). The theory was found applicable where exchange begins with the employer providing certain antecedents, for example, good policies and practices (pay, benefits, job security, training, meaningful work) and the employee reciprocates with certain contributions (e.g., effort, commitment, productivity). In order for the employees to generate commitment, loyalty and enthusiasm for their organization and its goals, and to obtain job satisfaction, there should be a match between what employees expect from the organization and what they offer the organization. This reciprocal interdependence brings about good working atmosphere. The employees get engaged physically, emotionally and psychologically leading to desirable attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. The validity of the social exchange theory was replicated in the Ugandan context, where the theory was found to better explain the process through which the antecedents are translated into employee engagement and employee engagement into outcomes.

Conclusions

This study provides one of the empirical tests of the mediating role of employee engagement in the relationship between the antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement in Ugandan context and makes a number of contributions to this new and emerging area. In particular, the study is unique in that it found that *absorption* (intellectual or cognitive engagement) as opposed to vigour and dedication is a very central engagement dimension predicting job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB in the Uganda context and it mediates the relationship between the antecedents and the three outcomes but not turnover intent.

Even if engagement was not found to be a significant predictor of turnover intent, this research established that *collaboration*, *perceived organizational support*, *compensation fairness*, *development* are significant predictors of turnover intent, except *reward/recognition* whose beta had positive instead of the negative sign ($\beta = .31$, $p = .00$). Surprising findings for job satisfaction model is that *job security*, *social support*, *reward/recognition*, *teamwork*, *material resources* and *job characteristics* (meaningful work) did not significantly influence job satisfaction. Similar surprises were found with the

organizational commitment and OCB model, which contradicts findings in other contexts and warrants further research.

The social exchange theory was found to provide a meaningful theoretical basis for understanding the relationship between the antecedents, employee engagement and outcomes, and particularly the process through which employee engagement mediates the relationship between the antecedents and outcomes, except in the turnover intent model. This study contributed to the validation of the social exchange theory and expanded engagement model by investigating a wider range of possible predictors of employee engagement and selected outcomes.

Two of the antecedents - *job design characteristics* and *material resources* - were not found significant in any of the four outcome models. This merits further research. The antecedent which was found significant in all the four outcome models is *employee development*. The study created knowledge in the area by testing a new employee engagement model within the antecedent-engagement-outcome relationship. This new information could serve as a structure for implementing focused and effective employee engagement interventions within the soft drink industry and beyond, as well theory building related to employee engagement, antecedents and outcomes. This research tested a unique combination of variables untested simultaneously and findings illuminate new understandings of how each variable impacted employee engagement and consequently how each variable impacted one another.

Recommendations

Arising from the findings of this research, the following recommendations are made, hypothesis by hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 (*H1*) was tested using correlation analysis of the antecedents and employee engagement and showed all the nine antecedents to be highly positively correlated with engagement. This means that employees who scored highly on each of the engagement antecedents were also more likely to report higher levels of total engagement. Therefore it is recommended that to enhance employee engagement, practitioners should ensure that each of the nine antecedents in their businesses are nurtured - job characteristics, role clarity, material resources, collaboration, reward &

recognition, perceived social support, compensation fairness, job security and development.

Hypothesis 2

To reap the benefits of employee engagement and improve employee outcomes it is recommended that business should use the finding of this study to develop interventions and strategies for improvement of employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB and reduction of turnover intent among employees.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3a: Turnover intent model

The recommendation is that for management professionals to promote retention and prevent turnover of highly productive employees, the work environment especially in the areas of collaboration, reward & recognition, perceived organizational support, compensation fairness, and development as supported by this research must be conducive and deliberately nurtured.

Hypothesis 3b: Job satisfaction model

The recommendation is that to enhance job satisfaction and the consequent benefits, role clarity, compensation fairness and employee development must be targeted by managers because they explain 53% of the variations in employee job satisfaction. It is also recommended that managers need to understand the importance of social exchange for employee engagement as providing role clarity, compensation fairness and employee development will oblige them to reciprocate in kind with higher levels of engagement and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c: Organizational commitment model

The recommendation is that to enhance organizational commitment and the resultant benefits, role clarity, job security and employee development must be targeted by managers because they explain 57% of the variations in employee job satisfaction. It is also recommended that managers need to understand the importance of social exchange for employee engagement as providing role clarity, job security and employee development will oblige them to reciprocate in kind with higher levels of engagement and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3d: OCB Model

The recommendation is that if managers are to achieve high OCB and sustainable performance, they have to do something to increase employee engagement

levels and OCB through enhanced role clarity, collaboration, compensation fairness, job security and employee development because overall these factors explain about 50% of the variation in OCB. Management professionals need to recognise that engagement is a strategic issue that cannot simply be left to manage itself.

Limitations of the study

This study used a cross-sectional research design as opposed to a longitudinal research design. With respect to causality, we cannot be sure that the antecedents cause engagement or that engagement causes the outcomes. While these linkages are consistent with the literature on engagement and social exchange theory it is possible that engaged employees have more positive perceptions of their work experiences or that some of the outcomes cause engagement. Longitudinal and experimental studies are required to provide more definitive conclusions about the causal effects of employee engagement and the extent to which social exchange explains these relationships.

Secondly, the study overwhelmingly used the Likert scale, and particularly the even-scales without the neutral choice for its quantitative data collection. Behavioural variables have questions which may be perceived as neutral by respondents. The even scales were prescribed for all candidates by the Graduate School administration as requirement at the proposal stage and by the time of collecting data no repeal had been made. The argument was to discourage respondents choosing the easier neutral position, since the odd Likert scales was claimed to have an inherent central tendency, acquiescence and social group biases embedded in its nature.

A lot of emphasis was put on the quantitative methodology and the proposal did not make provisions for mixed methods (such as use of interviews or secondary data) as the Graduate School Administration at the time was biased in favour of quantitative strategy. Later on the researcher was advised to triangulate methods when data had already been collected and analysed and final draft report prepared. Even when key informants interviews were conducted with managers, it was not planned at the proposal stage and made it very difficult to integrate the findings with those of the quantitative data. This is a weakness of this study.

This study appears as though it has adopted a clearly planned mixed method approach to social inquiry as the number of scholars embracing it continues to expand (Creswell, 2009). And indeed it has been established that our ontological and

epistemological positions, whether implicit or explicit, generally influence the ways in which we approach and craft our research. At the outset, this research adopted a purely quantitative paradigm but the researcher was later asked to supplement the quantitative data with qualitative interviews. This last minute attempt at mixing methods without prior plan is responsible for the ad hoc nature of the data integration and the advantage of a clearly planned mixed methods approach was lost (Green, 2006). This is responsible for absence of strong claims to philosophy in the discussion.

In addition, much of the data came from a self-reported questionnaire. This could affect the reliability and validity of the data because respondents may have answered the questions to reflect more socially acceptable responses rather than ones that reflect their real opinions. The overall response rate of 66% was rather low. A higher response rate should have improved the reliability and the validity of the results. Although the results of this study might have been affected by method bias, there are several reasons to place confidence in the results. First, the results indicated that participants' employee engagement scores were significantly different from each other. Second, the relationships between each measure of engagement and the antecedents and outcomes differed in a number of meaningful ways.

Suggestions for future Research

The present study demonstrates evidence of a correlation between employee engagement and turnover intent, but this relation becomes non significant when entered into the hierarchical regression model. This is not the case with all the other three models – job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB. These contrasting findings warrant future research.

Future research on engagement should not be limited to a quantitative paradigm. Qualitative studies might assist in better understanding the phenomenon of employee engagement. For example, where possible, researchers could conduct structured interviews with employees voluntarily leaving an organization and interpret findings through an employee engagement perspective. Such studies might provide more direct insights into the use of employee engagement as an organizational performance variable. The convergence of several research methods is necessary to increase the external validity of this research.

To replicate this study, structural equation modelling (SEM) could be used as methods to decrease variance inflation factor (VIF) and examine the overall model's goodness of fit. Longitudinal employee engagement research would also be of benefit as a way to better understand how engagement levels change over periods of time. It would be interesting, for example, to follow new employees for a specific length of time to examine how employee engagement changes over the course of an employee's work cycle.

Experimental studies of employee engagement could also be utilized to assess the ability of management interventions to enhance employee engagement. Such studies could focus on the antecedent variables examined in this study, or use an expanded literature base to guide the selection of control variables. If researchers were to test the utility of an intervention in the development of employee engagement through a series of workshops, using organizational performance data, or customer feedback, pre- and post intervention data could be examined for significant differences.

As suggested by Saks (2006) there is need to explore the evidence that individuals with a strong exchange ideology are more likely to feel obliged to reciprocate a benefit (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Thus, the relationship between various antecedents and engagement might be stronger for individuals with a strong exchange ideology. Future research is recommended to test the moderating effects of exchange ideology for the relationship between antecedents and engagement.

Future research should examine distant antecedents such as personality variables as well as demographic and culture variables that might influence the development of employee engagement, as well as outcomes like productivity, profitability, and competitiveness. As organizations become increasingly diverse (Reio & Ghosh, 2009), exploring how demographic and cultural variables influence the development of employee engagement could be of benefit to organizations in the globalized world.

Future researchers should expand the sample to include the entire food and beverage industry. A comparative study could also be done with the service industry. A study could also concentrate of the three antecedents which emerged most common in the four outcome models – employee development, compensation fairness and role clarity.

Instead of the intermediate outcomes like turnover intent, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB, future research should consider final business outcomes like productivity, profitability, customer satisfaction, competitiveness.

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APPENDIX 1 A: TRANSMITTAL LETTER FROM CHDR

**OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL
COLLEGE OF HIGHER DEGREES AND RESEARCH (CHDR)**

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: INTRODUCTION LETTER FOR Mr. Joseph Jakisa Owor (REG. NO. PhD.PBM/42761/92/DU), TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR INSTITUTION

The above mentioned candidate is a bonafide student of Kampala International University pursuing a Ph.D. in Business Management

He is currently conducting a field research for his dissertation entitled, **“Antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement in selected Soft Drink firms in Central Uganda”**.

Your institution has been identified as a valuable source of information pertaining to his research project. The purpose of this letter then is to request you to avail him with the pertinent information he may need.

Any data shared with him will be used for academic purposes only and shall be kept with utmost confidentiality.

Any assistance rendered to him will be highly appreciated.

Yours truly,

MAICIBI NOK ALHAS, Ph.D. (PRINCIPAL, CHDR)

APPENDIX 1B: TRANSMITTAL LETTER FOR THE RESPONDENTS

Dear Sir/ Madam,

Greetings!

I am a Ph.D. in Business Management candidate of Kampala International University. Part of the requirements for the award is a dissertation. My study is entitled, “**Antecedents and outcomes of Employee Engagement in Soft Drink firms in Central Uganda**”. Within this context, may I request you to participate in this study by answering the questionnaires. Kindly do not leave any option unanswered. Any data you will provide shall be for academic purposes only and no information of such kind shall be disclosed to others.

May I retrieve the questionnaire within five days (5)?

Thank you very much in advance.

Yours faithfully,

Joseph Jakisa Owor

APPENDIX 2: INFORMED CONSENT

I am giving my consent to be part of the research study of Mr. Joseph Jakisa Owor that focuses on “Antecedents of Employee Engagement and their relation to Work Outcomes in selected Beverage firms in Central Uganda”.

I shall be assured of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality and that I will be given the option to refuse participation and right to withdraw my participation anytime.

I have been informed that the research is voluntary and that the results will be given to me if I ask for it.

Initials: _____

Date _____

APPENDIX 3 - QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

PROFILE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Gender (Please Tick):__ (1) Male __ (2) Female

Age (Please Tick): (1) 20 - 39 _____
(2) 40 – 59 _____
(3) 60 – above _____

Qualifications - (Please Tick)

(1) Certificate _____
(2) Diploma _____
(3) Bachelors _____
(4) Masters _____
(5) Ph.D. _____

Other qualifications (Please specify)

Length of service - current (Please Tick):

____ (1) Less than/Below one year
____ (2) 1- 2yrs
____ (3) 3-4yrs
____ (4) 5-6yrs
____ (5) 7 years and above

SECTION B

QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE LEVEL OF ANTECEDENTS OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Direction: For each of the sections B, C, D, please indicate your extent of agreement with how well each statement below describes how you feel in your organization. Please write your rating on the space before each option using the scoring system below:

Response Mode	Rating	Description	Interpretation
Strongly Agree	(4)	You agree with no doubt at all	High
Agree	(3)	You agree with some doubt	Satisfactory
Disagree	(2)	You disagree with some doubt	Low
Strongly disagree	(1)	You disagree with no doubt at all	Very low

Rating	S/N	Statement to be rated
		(1) Job Characteristics
---	1	My job permits me to decide on my own how to go about doing my work (autonomy)
---	2	My job is a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end (task identity)
---	3	My job requires me to do many different things at work, using a variety of my skills and talents (skill variety)
---	4	The results of my work is likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people (task significant)
---	5	My managers or co-workers let me know how well I am doing on my job (feedback from others)
---	6	My work itself provides clues about how well I am doing apart from any "feedback" from co-workers or supervisors (feedback from Job)
		(2) Role Clarity
---	7	I know what is expected of me
---	8	My responsibilities are clearly defined
---	9	I know what my responsibilities are
---	10	I have clear planned goals and objectives for my job
---	11	The planned goals and objectives are not clear
---	12	Explanations are clear of what has to be done
		(3) Materials resources
---	13	My work materials & equipment are available
---	14	My work materials & equipment are accessible
---	15	My work materials & equipment are adequate
---	16	My work materials & equipment are relevant
---	17	My work materials & equipment are of high quality
		(4) Collaboration

---	18	My organizational encourages sharing, collaboration and team spirit
---	19	My co-workers and leaders express appreciation for each other's ideas and support each other on projects and tasks freely
---	20	My work environment supports and encourages cooperative relationships with others in the organization
---	21	It is easy for any member of our group to ask for information from any member of the group
---	22	My group members feel free to discuss almost any issue in their group
		(5) Reward & Recognition
---	23	I received a pay raise in the recent past for performing my Job well
---	24	I received a promotion in the recent past for performing my Job well
---	25	I received respect from the people I work with for performing my Job well
---	26	I often receive praise from my supervisor for performing my Job well
---	27	I have ever received training and development opportunities for performing my Job well
---	28	I received more challenging work assignments in the recent past for performing my Job well
---	29	I have ever received a reward or token of appreciation for performing my Job well
		(6) Perceived Supervisor & Organization Support
---	30	My supervisor cares about my opinions
---	31	My work supervisor really cares about my well-being
---	32	My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values
---	33	My supervisor shows very little concern for me (R)
---	34	My organization really cares about my well-being
---	35	My organization strongly considers my goals and values
---	36	My organization shows little concern for me (R)
---	37	My organization cares about my opinions
---	38	My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favour
---	39	Help is available from my organization when I have a problem
---	40	My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part
---	41	If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me (R)
		(7) Compensation Fairness
---	42	Compensation in this organization is based on performance and industry averages
---	43	At this organization my performance on the job is evaluated fairly
---	44	Compared to other people doing similar work at this organization, I think I am paid fairly
---	45	Compared to other people doing similar work outside this organization, I think I am paid fairly
---	46	The organization's benefit programs meet my needs
---	47	There is consistent application of decisions, policies, and procedures in this organization
		(8) Job Security
---	48	This job offers me continued long term security

---	49	I feel that with the opportunities given with this job, I have a sound future
---	50	Most people doing this job within this organization have long term security
		(9) Development
---	51	My manager assists me with future career planning
---	52	I have opportunities to learn from co-workers to enhance my current job
---	53	I have opportunities to grow and improve my current job
---	54	I have opportunities to discuss future development needs and interests with my leader
---	55	I have opportunities to chart my future career path in this organization
---	56	Besides formal training and development, my managers help me to develop my skills by providing me with challenging job assignments
---	57	My managers or co-workers let you know how well I am doing on my job
---	58	I have few opportunities to grow and learn new knowledge and skills in my job

SECTION C

QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE LEVEL OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Rating	S/N	Statement to be rated
		(10) EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT
---	59	At my work, I feel bursting with energy (V)
---	60	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (V)
---	61	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (V)
---	62	I feel happy when I am working intensely (A)
---	63	I am immersed in my work (A)
---	64	I get carried away when I am working (A)
---	65	I am enthusiastic about my job (D)
---	66	My job inspires me (D)
---	67	I am proud of the work that I do (D)

SECTION D

QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE LEVEL OF WORK OUTCOMES

Rating	S/N	Statement to be rated
		(1) TURNOVER INTENT
---	1	I frequently think of quitting my job
---	2	I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months
---	3	If I have my own way, I will be working for my organization one year from now
---	4	It is possible to find a better job than the one I have now
		(2) JOB SATISFACTION
---	5	All in all, I am satisfied with my job
---	6	In general, I do not like my job (R)
---	7	In general, I like working here
		(3) ORGANIZATION COMMITTMENT
---	8	I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire
---	9	Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me
---	10	I really feel that problems faced by my organization are also my problems
---	11	I feel personally attached to my work organization
---	12	I am proud to tell others I work at my organization
---	13	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization
		(4) ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZEN BEHAVIOUR (OCB)
---	14	I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems
---	15	I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off
---	16	I give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems. I assist others with their duties
---	17	I attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image
---	18	I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization
---	19	I take action to protect the organization from potential problems
---	20	I defend the organization when other employees criticize it

APPENDIX 4: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Informed consent

I am giving my consent to be part of the research study of Mr. Joseph Jakisa Owor focusing on *Antecedents and Outcomes of Employee Engagement in selected Soft drink firms in Central Uganda*

I agree to the interview being tape recorded but should be assured of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality and that I will be given the option to refuse participation and right to withdraw my participation anytime.

I have been informed that the research is voluntary and that the results will be given to me if I ask for it.

Name

Signature

Date

Research Topic: “Antecedents and Outcomes of Employee Engagement in selected Soft Drink firms in Central Uganda”.

PART A: Antecedents of employee engagement

Scholarly literature reports the link between several antecedents of employee engagement and their relation to employee outcomes at the firm level elsewhere and we want to study the relationship in our context:

- Meaningful work (as characterized, say by - autonomy, performance feedback, and task significance) has been known to relate with employee engagement and work outcomes. Would you describe your work as meaningful? Elaborate.
- Are your roles clear (Role clarity)? Elaborate.
- Are the material resources needed for your work readily available & adequate? Elaborate

- Would you describe your work environment as collaborative (team work oriented)? Elaborate.
- Would you describe your reward & recognition for the work you do as good? Elaborate.
- Would you describe the support you receive from your supervisors and from the organization (Social Support) as good? Elaborate.
- Would you describe the compensation (payment package) you receive for your work as fair? Elaborate
- Would you describe your job security as good? Elaborate.
- Would you describe your opportunities for employee training & development as good? Elaborate.

PART B: relation between antecedents, employee engagement and work outcomes

Given the conditions described in part A above, how would describe your perception of the following?

- Job satisfaction
- Organizational commitment
- Organizational Citizenship behaviour (voluntary contributions at work that include altruistic helping behaviours)
- Turnover intent (voluntary)

APPENDIX 5: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ALL THE VARIABLES IN THE MODEL

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Job Char	2.9638	.51110	207
Role Clarity	2.9896	.51476	209
Material Resources	2.9990	.68182	210
Collaboration	2.9610	.73971	210
Reward & Recognition	2.6890	.67170	209
Perceiv Superv & Org Support	2.5730	.46314	209
Compensation Fairness	2.6119	.75882	210
Job Security	2.5889	.86689	210
Development	2.6322	.61123	209
Engagement	2.7767	.66034	210
Vigor	2.7111	.77859	210
Absorption	2.6524	.74093	210
Dedication	2.9667	.81025	210
Turnover Intent	2.4366	.76459	209
Job Satisfaction	2.5190	.64635	210
Organizational Commitment	2.7389	.83656	210
Organizational Citizen Behaviour	2.7993	.69528	210
Engagement antecedents	2.7729	.49569	203

APPENDIX 6: REVIEW OF INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL AND ORGANIZATIONAL-LEVEL ANTECEDENTS OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Individual Antecedents to Employee Engagement	Organizational Antecedents to Employee Engagement
Absorption ^a	Authentic corporate culture ^a
Available to engage	Clear expectations ^a
Coping style	Corporate social responsibility ^a
Curiosity	Encouragement
Dedication ^a	Feedback
Emotional fit	Hygiene factors
Employee motivation	Job characteristics ^a
Employee/work/family status	Job control
Feelings of choice & control	Job fit ^a
Higher levels of corporate citizenship ^a	Leadership
Involvement in meaningful work ^a	Level of task challenge ^a
Link individual and organizational goals ^a	Manager expectations ^a
Optimism	Manager self-efficacy ^a
Perceived organizational support ^a	Mission and vision
Self-esteem, self efficacy	Opportunities for learning
Vigor ^a	Perception of workplace safety ^a
Willingness to direct personal energies	Positive workplace climate ^a
Work/life balance ^a	Rewards ^a
Core self evaluation ^a	Supportive organizational culture ^a
Value Congruence ^a	Talent management
Perceived Organizational Support ^a	Use of strengths ^a

^a Denotes antecedent with empirical evidence.

Source: Wollard, K.K., and Shuck, B. (2013). Antecedents to Employee Engagement: A Structured Review of the literature. *Advances in Developing Human Resources* 2011 13: 429 originally published online 16 December 2011. DOI: 10.1177/1523422311431220.

APPENDIX 7: TABLE FOR DETERMINING SAMPLE SIZE FROM A GIVEN POPULATION

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	
384					

Note.—*N* is population size.
S is sample size.

Source: Krejcie, R. V. and Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607 – 610.

APPENDIX 8: RESEARCHER'S CURRICULUM VITAE

To document the details of the researcher, his competency in writing a research and to recognize his efforts and qualifications, this part of the research report is thus meant.

Personal Profile

Name: Joseph Jakisa Owor
Gender: Male
Nationality: Ugandan
Date of birth: 15 March 1963

Educational Background

Master of Business Administration (Marburg, Germany)	(1996)
Bachelor of Arts in Economics (Univ of Dar)	(1991)
UACE (St. Peter's College, Tororo)	(1986)
UCE (St. Peter's College, Tororo)	(1983)

Work Experiences

Eighteen years as Lecturer, (beginning 2011, Senior Teaching Fellow) at Uganda Christian University, Mukono. Previously at Uganda Martyrs University, Nkozi, 1997-2000.

Teaching Assistant, Department of Economics, Makerere University, 1991-1992.

So far handled the following area: Economics (Micro and Macro), Project Planning & Management, Human Resource Management, Organizational Behaviour, Strategic Management, Industrial Relations, Business Ethics, Research Methods, Financial Management, Development Economics, International Economics, Agricultural Economics, and Regional Economic Integration.

APPENDIX 9: MEANS, SD & CORRELATIONS - ALL VARIABLES- ED, EE, VIG, ABS, DED, TOI, JoS, OC, OCB, ED

	JC	RC	MAT	Coll	REW	POS	Comp	JS	DEV	EE	Vigor	ABS	DED	TOI	JoS	OC	OCB	ED
JC	0.55																	
RC	.557**	0.70																
MAT	.524**	.508**	0.78															
Coll	.475**	.627**	.592**	0.82														
REW	.472**	.575**	.506**	.552**	0.75													
POS	.522**	.520**	.500**	.544**	.658**	0.82												
Comp	.406**	.506**	.587**	.596**	.680**	.588**	0.82											
JS	.228**	.340**	.381**	.480**	.438**	.461**	.550**	0.77										
DEV	.449**	.491**	.506**	.636**	.633**	.635**	.672**	.542**	0.81									
EE	.526**	.567**	.633**	.673**	.534**	.560**	.539**	.464**	.622**	0.84								
Vigor	.460**	.528**	.553**	.632**	.542**	.518**	.554**	.460**	.565**	.860**	0.69							
ABS	.475**	.524**	.556**	.516**	.470**	.487**	.447**	.329**	.538**	.849**	.624**	0.56						
DED	.414**	.399**	.507**	.565**	.356**	.425**	.376**	.392**	.486**	.843**	.570**	.561**	0.80					
TOI	0.117	-0.126	-.218**	-.374**	-.175*	-.217**	-.402**	-.327**	-.375**	-.305**	-.302**	-.198**	-.275**	0.70				
JoS	.301**	.310**	.416**	.387**	.450**	.431**	.493**	.385**	.526**	.456**	.443**	.433**	.292**	-.285**	0.56			
OC	.361**	.478**	.530**	.608**	.575**	.515**	.591**	.550**	.618**	.652**	.603**	.546**	.514**	-.395**	.601**	0.88		
OCB	.460**	.543**	.483**	.599**	.477**	.468**	.409**	.426**	.561**	.610**	.496**	.561**	.501**	-.143*	.417**	.628**	0.84	
ED	.642**	.727**	.750**	.814**	.804**	.777**	.830**	.684**	.814**	.748**	.723**	.621**	.569**	-.364**	.558**	.718**	.639**	0.91
Mean	2.964	2.99	2.999	2.961	2.689	2.573	2.612	2.589	2.632	2.777	2.711	2.652	2.967	2.437	2.519	2.739	2.799	2.773
SD	0.511	0.515	0.682	0.74	0.671	0.463	0.759	0.867	0.6112	0.66	0.779	0.741	0.81	0.765	0.646	0.837	0.695	0.496

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

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

NB: The figures along the diagonal are the reliability alpha coefficients

APPENDIX 10: SUMMARY OF THEMES & PATTERNS THAT EMERGED FROM INTERVIEWS WITH KEY INFORMANTS

Resp o.	Profile	JobCh (meaningful)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaboratio n	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Developme nt	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
1	Male, Revenue Accountant since 1991 (23 years). Joined as Senior Audit Assistant.	My work is meaningful - as Revenue Accountant; I link the Marketing, Ware House and distributors and translate them in financial terms. responsible for the stock that goes out and the revenue that comes in.	We work 24 hours and online even if I am at home, the workers here do inquire from me at night and I am spot on.	In the 21 century we have to do work very fast and efficiently. The office is computerized work must be prompt. we link production and finance. We do our work using ERP software. We have printers, scanners, box files & almost everything here.	We mediate between Marketing, Ware house & Customers. Frustration occasionally happens, when people are not willing to give information - delaying our work.	Recently we got a mail thanking us for the job well done. If the money we have collected is very big we get a thank you.	The social support is adequate enough to make us do our job efficiently.	My compensat ion package is sufficient enough to keep me going.	The job security is good considering that I have worked here for 25 years. People who create their own insecurity feel like they will be fired any time.	It is slow though we have workshops & short courses by HRM but initiated by one's head of dept or personally. Evening and weekend courses are allowed, CPA/ACCA is allowed.	Considerin g what is happening in Kampala job satisfaction is 70 - 80%.	My commitm ent is not 100% but it is high – 80-90%, I even work on Sundays. It is a commitm ent very few have.	OCB does happen here, but when you see that nobody recognize s it you shed it off and do the bare minimum	The intent to leave is not very high, may be 5 - 10%. It is low because of good atmospher e created by manageme nt10 years ago it was very bad
2	Male, Joined June 1988 (26 yrs). Production controller in the labs up to 2006. Process Plant Manager for the last four years	All the work that I have been doing has been my work of interest. It has been a challenging job due to competition.	We are given role profiles so the roles are clear but there is also a part that says "Any other assignment."	You cannot get an absolute condition. I would say they are adequate enough otherwise we would not survive the competition.	I have not gotten an environment that is so harsh that I have not been able to achieve my objectives. When problems arise we sit and discuss.	We do recognize general achievemen ts, we have appraisals and any time of the year or month when a group has achieved a target, they are given appreciation	If I come up with a project & the company approves it they finance and support it. The company, supports those with problems.	We are able to survive, it is fair.	The fact that I have been here for more than 25 years, it says it all.	It is still weak area - needs to be improved. Training budget are made but when there is a shake up, the money for training is diverted.	I think everyone is satisfied even though the work is tiresome, we sometimes work on Saturdays.	Absolute condition s are not there in nature	Our slogan used to be, "Whenever you drink water remembe r the source". It is our thing	I think TOI is low. Even the person who earns the lowest does not really complain.

Resp.	Profile	JobCh (meaningful)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaboration	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Development	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
3	Female, Human Capital Officer joined five years ago (2009).	very meaningful, dealing with employees, their payments and the rest of the payments	My role is familiar. The roles are clear	- Tools, computers, software, are ready whenever I need them and if there is a problem with it, I call computer experts. Internet, power, printer, toner, files & folders - not a problem.	It is not very high, Sometimes you ask for information from other departments ; you end up begging and begging.	That one is not there, only salary and the bonus at the end of the year – which is general – everybody get the same bonus.	Support to do my work? – Yes. Are private issues included? – Yes, I get support, a lot of it, excluding support with executing my work – no time for another one's work.	Our compensation is fair in comparison because we go to the market and compare and try to align it to the position you hold.	The security is there, if you are doing your work well and have no problems with the supervisor, there is no problem	If you open up to your supervisor and tell him where you are weak and that you need training, you will be granted. If you need upgrading, you pay for yourself	My job satisfaction is fair because I have let other opportunities pass me by.	I am committed - 80%. I cannot go somewhere where I will get the same salary, I would rather stay here.	Would you do work which is not on your job description?: Yes, I would. We normally do that. I would not claim for extra time at work.	Only marketers experience high turnover. Among others it is very rare. It is not pronounced.
4	Male - <i>Currently Manager Cost Control (19 years). started as maintenance engineer then Production Manager, Project engineer, and then Process Control Manager.</i>	Yes, that is what I would say, especially when it relates to tasks. Currently I handle programming, which is key to efficiency and yields.	Yes, as for now my roles are very clear	For the program, I have whatever I need. Only constraint is glass. <i>Other materials like concentrates are predictable. We have re-order levels. Although we sometimes get demand shifts in certain brands</i>	I can say 50-50, it is hard to work alone. We have people monitoring glass, syrup. Warehouse & transport. Without team work, I cannot do my work efficiently.	Recent press release of our salaries revealed that some people, who seem to do less, were getting four times what others were getting. Compared to similar industry our package is fairly okay.	<i>I would think support from supervisor is not very good. If we have gotten a yield of 97% instead of targeted yield of 99.5% I would say so and yet my boss would want me to say otherwise. Organization support is there and it is helpful.</i>	<i>The best workers of the year in every department are chosen and given gifts (recognized)</i> . Personally I have ever received gifts.	<i>I think job security is fairly okay despite the previous reservations that was a case of an individual character.</i>	<i>Training & development is not good because of the time element. Sometimes opportunities come up and people say no. There is no time for that</i>	<i>I am satisfied. I dispelled the belief that concentrates can only come by air. I did research, talked to the CEO & we resorted to using water, & saved a lot of money.</i>	<i>Before I joined Pepsi, I was with Sugar Corporation of Uganda. Pepsi is better in a number of areas, including rewards</i>	I have done a lot in the area of OCB and it has cost me social life	I have thought of quitting. Some factors have contributed to it over time but the work has been really keeping me busy and since am aging, I want to retire early & catch up on social life.

Resp .	Profile	JobCh (meaningful)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaboration	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Development	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
5	Male, coordinator - Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP). Engaged for 18 years (since 1996) but working mostly in Finance.	Yes, very meaningful. It is a new job - I was doing Finance for the eleven years and now Coordination Management which I have done for the last 8 months. It is very challenging because it is more people-related.	Yes, my roles are clear but the person I replaced was an IT person, so people come to me for IT issues and I refer them.	Laptop and the software systems are my main material resources. My kind of work is to request people to help out with work on daily basis. I need someone from production to receive and sign for the glass and someone from the warehouse to count the glass.	Yes, my work is collaborative. I work through others so I have to be on their toes telling them to do this and the other. I have also been frustrated because some people are new and they have resistance to change.	Recognition in this current job, it has not been much. We set goals at the beginning, half way the year we review the goals & at the end we evaluate ourselves out of 10. Depending on the score, you are given bonus.	Organization/ Supervisory support is very good though sometimes when I am cruising at 90 km/h and then I realize someone is at 50 km/h & I have to deal with it.	Compensation is more than fair - it is good. The market is very open and if someone knows how you work, they would lure you.	Job security is stable but since it is business if something happens, you cannot stop it. To me job security is not an issue, and to many here I believe.	Training is there but depends on what the company wants you to do. When making objectives, supervisor needs to know what areas need improvement. If training is needed, it is given.	Job satisfaction depends on an individual and position. At my level, I overcomin g challenges satisfy me. When I achieve something people thought I wouldn't, I get satisfied.	OC is about 80% that is why we are receiving good yields.	For OCB, Accountants are called to work beyond the normal time and that is my profession, so to me, it is normal.	Turnover intent is less than 5%. This is a family, my door is closed but if you walked to the Chief Executive Officer, the door is wide open and anyone at any level can walk in.
6	Male. Entered 1 st January 2010. - Quality control shift head.	my work is meaningful - I ensure the quality of the work right from the preparation to dispatch to the market.	We have roles specified for each position so we know our roles. There are clear demarcations.	We have various tools for testing quality, computers for entering data, phones for communication, documentation paper work. we also monitor the stock levels, and we have minimum re-orders levels.	Yes, the work is collaborative. We support production staffs. Most of the work by production.	reward & recognition is based on performance. The company recognizes the department & members.	Support is there and they listen. The company gives you whatever you ask for as long it is in your budget and it is for the company's good.	There has been yearly salary increase based on inflation & personal performance. Compared to Britannia, we are better.	We have job security. with clear terms. If you want to resign there are steps to follow.	Development opportunities are good. The company can identify the training needs and organizes them	You can never be fully satisfied but you can meet most of your needs I would rank my satisfaction at 90%.	I would rate my commitment at 98%. The working environment is good	If I see people misusing company property, I alert them though I am not paid for it.	Intent to leave It is very minimal - 5%. People appreciate the company.

Resp.	Profile	JobCh (meaningful)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaborati on	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Developme nt	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
7	Female, Human Capital manager since October 2008 (five years).	As to whether my job is meaningful, I would say Yes, very much so.	Yes, my roles are very clear. They were reviewed in 2010, role profiles are clear.	Resources are not always there. Money for training and bench marking surveys are not readily available. Materials for operations, e.g. Laptops are available for Marketers. Spare parts may delay due to systems failure at URA. URA Clearance takes time.	Collaboratio n is not always guaranteed. There is some friction. Some departments think they make the money. Information may be denied. Performanc e reviews are constrained.	Reward & recognition is Yes/NO. Performanc e is rewarded annually, reviews are quarterly. Top performers get 15% bonus. followed by 9%, 6%, 3%. Unsatisfacto ry performance may attract only 1% bonus.	The organization gives a range of support – Medical insurance for four dependants, free lunch, and even super for night shifts. Salary is paid twice a month. Short term interest free loans are given (3 months). Burial is taken care of by Company	Compensati on is fair in comparison others in the industry, Lowest employee gets 350,000. Unionized employee with Ordinary Level Certificate gets 800,000	Job security is ok. Good performers are retained. . We have lost a few workers to Breweries.	Developmen t opportunitie s are good. The head of departments identify the needs and forwards them to the HR department for action.	I think majority are satisfied even though the workload may be more and tiresome. Some sometimes work on week ends	OC is between 80% - 90%. That is why we are able to compete in the changing industry	OCB is what we do most of the time. We do quite a lot of work beyond our job descriptio n. We normally do that without asking for overtime allowanc e.	Intent to leave is very minimal, about 5 – 8%. People have identified with the company.
8	Male, Maintenanc e manager, 6 years with the company.	My work is meaningful because I value the profession and it is what I wanted to do so I find my work interesting.	My roles are clear because we are given job profiles so sometimes refer to the profile	Concerning materials adequacy - basically, our role is to plan for the spares we need for the maintenance and other preventive measures	We have a strong team building and team work.	Reward & recognition is usually in form of words; the tangible form of appreciation is very rare, though at annual party recognition is made.	Social support is there. My supervisor always follows up what I do and where there is a problem he tells me and gives me room for improvement	Our compensati on is okay. I am not complaining. money is never enough. My package is within or better than other companies.	Job security is okay. We have people who have worked for 25 years and are still around.	Training is still lacking although we budgeted for it but implementat ion is not that good.	Job satisfaction is above average. I am about 60%. If something more was done, I would go to 80%.	My OC is 80%	My OCB is about 70%	General intent to leave for the whole environme nt is about 30%

Res p.	Profile	JobCh (meaningful)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaboration	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Development	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
9	Male working with Warehouse, since 2004 (10 years). Started as checker, then supervisor currently Administrator, in charge of 32.	My work is somehow meaningful; I may not be fully content but it is something I can handle	We have a role profile and roles are very clear but some times in the process of working, you may be diverted to do other roles	The company does its best to make sure that our material resources are readily available.	Team spirit is good but when working with people there are always individuals who need to be dragged	Reward & recognition is there. I have seen my team achieve several times, our loading targets and whenever the targets are achieved, we get a bonus at the end of the month	Support is there. Currently we have a problem with the machines (forklifts) but you can see the willingness to help.	Compensation is fair but I am not aware to what extent it is comparable to similar position elsewhere	Job security in warehouse is problematic. We have lost a number of people because of shortage. The level of labour turn over in warehouse is high.	We do not receive support to do masters but we get training of 2 days which does not add much to your profile. If you are to take on training, it is personal	Satisfaction is not high especially in the area I work.	Workers are very committed much as there is dissatisfaction.	People do it including me, spending 12 hours at work and coming around on Sunday. That is going many miles than am supposed to go.	The rate of exit is not very high but they happen sometimes. We have not had cases where people leave and they do not have where they are going.
10	Male, 15 years with the firm. Currently Deputy Manager Sales	I joined this company in 1998. Since then I have not looked for a job elsewhere showing there is job security here and job satisfaction.	My roles are clear. In a project like assignment, I get guidance from my superiors.	All the tools including the laptop, access to internet, phone, this table, chair for my visitors are provided by management	Team work is strained when you are barked at by your expatriate bosses.	At retirement - at 55 years, you are given a token of appreciation besides gratuity. Sons/daughter of employees are given priority in recruitment	There is great support. Yes, My new plant is still under project so it has no accounting code yet my requisition is honoured by management	Compensation is insufficient; honestly speaking the salary issue is the reason for labour turn over which is high. It is not very competitive	There is good job security	My Masters is one of the benefits I acquired here. I was studying and working at the same time. Development is encouraged here. The opportunities are so many	In an organization like this, in one year, you may have job satisfaction and the following year it is the reverse depending on the bosses we have.	Our commitment is reflected in output. You can see I kept my appointment with you!	I am chairman Board of a school on our network. That is not the scope of my job but I ensure that learning goes on	It is a general behavior now, if you talk to companies that advertise jobs, you will find that many people apply even employees of that very company.

Res p.	Profile	JobCh (meaningful)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaboration	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Development	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
11	Female, 7 years (since 2007) with the firm. Currently Senior Sales Officer of Alcohol.	I would consider my job as meaningful but I don't like the way I am treated as a means to an end. My title is fine but the salary is devastating	Yes, my role is clear. Where I need help I consult my supervisor	The materials we use are laptop and ERP software beside phone which has airtime from the company to call customers	There is team work in that there are customers who cannot talk to my bosses because of language barrier. They are referred to me.	I expect reward & recognition when I do a good job, e.g. salary increment or bonus but in most cases, I am only thanked. When I save a lot, I only get a thank you.	Support is poor. If my daughter is sick, I expect to tell my boss about it and he allows me to take her to hospital and then I come back and finish work, but that is not possible here.	Regarding compensation fairness I don't get the benefits of holding that big title. In other companies a person holding this position even owns a car to carry out duties.	Job security is not very good especially where I am. I thank God I finished today without a resignation letter.	Regarding training opportunity, the nature of work makes it difficult for me study because I work on the weekends so I cannot enroll even for weekend programs.	According to what I studied and what am doing, am satisfied with what I am doing but my problem is my pay	I am committed to my work despite my dissatisfaction	<i>I have to have OCB because without it I cannot be excellent in my work</i>	People are willing to go (turnover).
12	Male, Manager Administration. 13 th year with the firm. started in marketing until 2008 - Senior Deputy Manager Marketing.	I consider my work meaningful because this is a field I am not very well trained in. I did Bcom marketing.	My roles are clear. I hardly get role ambiguity	I have paper, pens, intercom and pre-paid phone. I don't have computer on my desk but share with neighbouring office.	On collaboration I get my most challenges in insurance where prompt information is needed from other departments	On reward & recognition there is a general increment at the end of the year. If your boss is happy, he can say thank you.	Support is satisfactory. I get some frustration in the area information sharing for insurance claims.	Our compensation is lower than our sister companies.	Job security is there If you perform the job well. No one can fire you when you have done nothing wrong	We have training opportunities; we have a fully fledged training manager. The training program is prepared every year. The training is external and internal	job satisfaction is about 50-60%. For some people it can be 70%.	OC is about 80-85%	OCB is there to a reasonable degree. In every society there are people who don't care about their OCB.	<i>TOI is about 30% because many of the graduates coming out these days are not patient.</i>

Res p.	Profile	JobCh (meaningful)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaboration	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Development	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
13	Male expatriate, General Manager Materials. Has been with the firm for 9 years (since 2005). Started as Procurement Manager.	On whether my job is meaningful, I give a resounding YES. I am autonomous to a very great extent and I report directly to the CEO.	My role is clear - everything is clear.	Our materials are mainly computers, software, telephones, internet and some stationery	I would say we are team oriented, because the procurement department is like the sales department so we need to be a team.	On reward & recognition our CEO has left and the management formed a four member team to take care of the CEO's role and I am part	Support is there. The attitude is there. We have a philosophy that we use here at the company, "We put your best foot forward - do our best and if we are stuck, we take it to higher levels."	On Compensation fairness, I would say we are competitive enough. Our Compensation is good but I don't think there is anybody who will say he is happy with pay package.	Job security is there as long as you meet your key job performance parameters and if you don't we would not keep you.	Training opportunity, yes of statutory issues which keep changing. Recently the EAC single entry customs Union started. URA conducted a training I attended.	job satisfaction, I would rate it as high	I would rate organizational commitment as high	On OCB, recently we put up a sizeable gas plant and I volunteered to run it on OCB basis	On TOI, generally, people who voluntarily leave are very few – it is not worrying
14	Male, Deputy General Manager HR. Joined as Senior Manager Personnel in 2001 (13 years ago)	My work is meaningful because I enjoy dealing with human beings - a challenging job but I think I have learnt how to interact with people	My roles are clear because we have a job description and I know what to do. Role ambiguity may be there but not to a great extent.	The materials we use are Computers and for training we have charts, projector and for communication we have intercom. We also have mobile phones, files, printer and internet too. These are readily available and adequate	There is team work in order to get results although sometimes regular change in management can affect our team work	Reward & recognition is handled through set targets. Supervisors monitor performance at end of year we give annual increment.	Support is average not adequate. Activities we plan are sometimes affected by financial constraints. HR is not given priority	On compensation fairness, we compare favourably with our competitors in the same industry	Job security is there if competent & committed unless you involve yourself in malpractices. There are people who have worked here for 40 years	<i>I think the training is okay because we have both external and internal training.</i>	<i>Job satisfaction is there otherwise people would not have worked here for 30 or 40 years.</i>	Most of our employees are committed –they know if you stay in employment, you stand to benefit	OCB is good as people are sensitized to develop a strong connection to their company – that this company belongs to them.	The percentage for turnover is minimal; it is about 10%.The youth can quit even for a difference of 30,000 in pay elsewhere.

Res p.	Profile	JobCh (meaningful)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaboration	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Development	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
15	Male, Personal Officer in the downstream department. Been here since 2010 (4 years)	My work is meaningful because I enjoy it - it is within my area of interest but not without hardships because I deal with people from diverse backgrounds	My roles are very clear of course I do not do everything singly but coordinate with various officers	The materials I need to do my work are mainly Computer and CUG lines (Closed User Group telephone) that I use to communicate to section heads and nurses.	We are team work oriented; many of my duties cannot happen if I am not working in collaboration with my colleagues.	Recognition is there not to expectation. Appreciation is there though not outstanding.	Support is there because If I get any problems, I refer to my supervisors and they do take it on.	I would describe my compensation as not fair.	My job security is guaranteed as long as I do my work to the letter. The company cannot randomly fire me.	We have training section under HR department but for the last two years there haven't been comprehensive in my department.	I would rate job satisfaction at 70%	I would rate OC at 75%	I would rate OCB at above 50%	TOI is not very high but I am looking forward to improving my skills and if I get an opportunity for further studies where am catered for, I would go for it.
16	Male, Deputy Manager Audit. Been with the firm for 10 years.	I would consider my work as meaningful. Basing on experience, I now enjoy my work because what initially I consider problems are now understood as challenges.	On role clarity, My roles tend to alter, sometimes they are audit related sometimes administrative due to diversity of the company.	On materials we have desktops & laptops. We use Enterprise Resource Program which has all modules like - finance, inventory, purchase, sales, fleet management, transport, agriculture, etc.	We try to work in collaboration but in audit department, Colleagues tend to perceive us as "unwanted and disliked"	<i>Reward & recognition is there. I started as an Audit Assistant but I am now Deputy Manager Audit. It is not by mistake that I got here, it is through recognition.</i>	Support is there but sometimes there are also frustrations arising from financial constraints	Compensation fairness is an issue. As developing country, what they give us is standard but we see them differently. One would prefer money to a house	Job security is low because we have a problem of expatriates who do not work for more than 2 years. They are always clashing with locals because of cultural gaps.	Opportunities for Development are good. This is company is very wide and so we learn a lot from exposure - advantage of sister companies	Job satisfaction is an issue. If someone is not sure of job security, support recognition, job satisfaction will automatically go down.	<i>OC is not very high. expatriates mentoring of workers and commitment is low</i>	On OCB, People do not bother to go an extra mile because of the take home	<i>Turnover intent is high because people are not satisfied. If you came here at lunch time you will find people reading newspapers and mainly looking for job adverts.</i>

Res po- nden t	Profile	JobCh (meaningfu l)	Role clarity	Material Adequacy (Mat)	Collaborati on	Reward & recognition	PSS	CompF	Job security	Developme nt	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
17	Male, Superintend ent of training. Has been with the firm for 3 years	Whether my work is meaningful, I would say yes. As a trained teacher, I find great satisfaction in organizing, coordination and facilitating training.	I would see my roles as very clear. <i>I make a training plan every year and I coordinate with other training officers in other departmen ts. I also conduct internal & external trainings where we outsource where we don't have the competenc e.</i>	Concerning materials, Our office has a computer, a printer, furniture and stationery.	I would describe my work as collaborative because there is no way I can sit in this office and stand alone since we offer a support function to all the other departments .	Reward & recognition is there but it is not enough.	Support is there. The work we do here depends on other departments and without their support I would not achieve my objectives. We are supported with phones and the company pays the airtime. I get enough Support	On compensati on fairness, What we get is not enough however looking at our benefits, it supplement s that. I have housing which can be valued at 500,000 per month plus free electricity, water and furniture.	Job security is assured because we run a service almost like public service. All workers are permanent .	Opportunitie s for training are open - the challenge is money. We have both internally and externally facilitated trainings. We also have local and international trainings.	I get job satisfaction because I like what I do and it is related to what I have always wanted to do. For others, satisfaction is not very okay because humans are never satisfied – they are always looking for more.	In terms of OC most of our workers are committed because of job security.	OCB is high. Take an example of say, our drivers. They drive the whole night - 8.00pm to 6am - without OCB that work is very challengin g. Even as Managers, we end up working even on weekends without extra pay.	The turnover intent is there. We have competition in terms of workers . <i>When we need technical workers we go and fish from our competitor and vice versa This kind of fishing creates some turnover intent.</i>

APPENDIX 11: MANAGERS' PROFILES & DEVELOPMENT OF THEMES LINKING ANTECEDENTS, EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND OUTCOMES

Res.	Profile	JobC	RoleC	Mater	Collabo r	Reward	PSS	CompF	Job Sec	Devel	Job Sat	OC	OCB	TOI
1	Accountant (23 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW (5-10%)
2	Production Controller (26 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW
3	Human Capital Officer (5 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES (80%)	YES	HIGH in Sales
4	Manager Cost Control (19 yrs)	YES	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	LOW
5	Coordinator ERP (18 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES (80%)	YES	LOW (5%)
6	Quality Control Shift Head (4yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES (90%)	YES (98%)	YES	LOW (< 5%)
7	Human Capital Manager (5yrs)	YES	YES	NO	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW (5-8%)
8	Maintenance Manager (6yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES (60%)	YES (80%)	YES (70%)	HIGH (30%)
9	Administrator Warehouse (10 yrs)	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO	YES	YES	NOT HIGH
10	Deputy G. Manager sales (15 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	HIGH
11	Senior Sales Officer (7 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	YES	YES	HIGH
12	Manager Administration (13 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES (above 50%)	YES (80-85%)	YES	HIGH (30%)
13	General Manager Materials (9 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES (high)	YES (high)	YES (high)	LOW
14	D. General Manager HR (13yrs)	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW (10%)
15	Personnel Officer - Agric (4 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES (70%)	YES (75%)	YES (50%)	NOT HIGH
16	D. Manager Audit (10yrs)	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO	HIGH
17	Superintendent Training (3 yrs)	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	HIGH	LOW
	SUMMARY - HIGH	94%	94%	88%	59%	76%	88%	65%	78%	71%	88%	94%	94%	29%
	SUMMARY - LOW	6%	6%	12%	41%	24%	12%	35%	18%	29%	12%	6%	6%	71%