

School of Management



*Examining the Antecedents and Consequences of Employee
Engagement on Temporary Agency Workers in a Partner-led
Environment*

A thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Swansea University

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December 2022

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ABSTRACT

The recent Covid-19 pandemic highlighted the increasing reliance of organisations on temporary agency workers (TAWs) to survive in business environments that are characterised as being temporal, unpredictable, and cyclical. Temporary workforces are growing in popularity as it offers flexibility and independence for both employees and the employer (i.e., The Client). At the same time, the recruitment industry has witnessed significant growth and heightened competition to source reliable, high-quality TAWs as this niche cohort of the workforce underpin the successful performance and outcomes of both agency and client.

Despite the increasing number of TAWs and their significant contributions to sustaining competitive advantage and economic growth, extant literature on employee engagement of TAWs to date is rather limited. Also, what research does exist is rather limited as seminal research focused on employee engagement of full time employees, rather than any rigorous examination of engagement with TAWs who operate in turbulent and constantly changing ‘real world’ business environments.


This study addresses this gap in knowledge by “*examining employee engagement from the perspective of the TAWs to identify the influence and implications of job and organisation engagement*”. This study draws on an exemplar case study of a well-known large UK retailer (i.e., The Client) that operates a distribution warehouse and employs TAWs who are sourced through three recruitment agencies.

A review of seminal literature provides the theoretical base for the antecedents and proposed outcomes of employee engagement to inform the proposed research model to capture the perceptions of TAW engagement at The Client organisation. A self-completion questionnaire was completed by 277 TAWs and the research model was tested using partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) and SmartPLS v.4.

The findings challenge two long-held assumptions about employee engagements. First, job engagement and organisation engagement are two significantly distinct constructs that have implications for The Client organisation. Second, experiences of employee engagement for TAWs differ from that of traditional employees as they are heavily reliant on The Client organisation’s ability to support, value and embed them into the workforce and wider mission of the organisation.

DECLARATION

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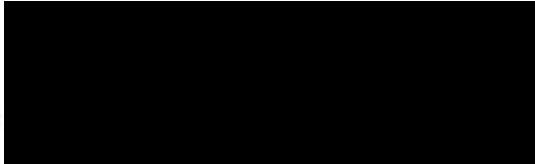
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STATEMENT 1

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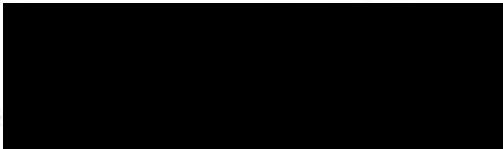
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Acknowledgements

My warmest thanks go to my supervisors Dr. Denis Dennehy, Professor Gareth Davies and Professor Mike Williams for their enduring support and guidance. Their expertise and advice have shaped each stage of this project. This PhD would not have been possible without Marc Clement who provided me with this incredible opportunity, I will be forever grateful (diolch yn fawr iawn). I wish to thank the Viva panel Professor Duncan Lewis and Dr. Constantine Manolchev for their valuable comments and suggestions.

I would like to thank Luciana Rousseau who was a wonderful collaborator and provided valuable insights from the recruitment industry. I wish to thank the company in this study for allowing me access to their staff and the chance to experience of their world. I'm extremely grateful to every person who took part in this study.

The process of earning a doctorate is a team sport and not done in isolation, to this end I would like to thank the staff affiliated with the Counselling and Psychology programme at UWTSD. Their hard work and passion gave me the inspiration to chart a course in academia. I am extremely grateful to Swansea University for enabling me to do a PhD alongside my role. It not lost on me how fortunate I am to be surrounded by dedicated and insightful colleagues, many of whom have offered sound advice and words of encouragement throughout this experience. In particular, Professor Paul Jones, Dr. Simon Brooks (for the 'pep' talks), Sarah Warren for keeping me on the straight and narrow, Dr. Charlie Brilliant for helping to unravel the mysteries of advanced SPSS and to Dr. Ransome Bawack (Audencia Business School) for his valuable feedback and advice.

I give special thanks to my Mam and Dad who have always been my hero's and inspiration. I know I worried you there for a while, but it all turned out alright in the end. Sorry you didn't get to see me graduate Dad, but I hope I made you proud along the way. Thank you to Mr. B for always being by my side and dealing with so much in my absence, you have been my rock (we can finally go on holiday). Finally, thank you to the rest of my wonderful family and dear friends who were a constant source of support, reassurance and understanding. You can stop asking me "how's the PhD going?" now.

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1. INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter begins with the social-economic context (1.2) followed by a background to the research topic (section 1.3) and outlines the motivation for the study (section 1.4), and the subsequent research questions, aim and objectives (section 1.5). Following on from this, the research approach is stated (section 1.6) along with the assumptions of the study (section 1.7). The unique context of the study is set out in section 1.8 and the contribution to knowledge is presented in section 1.9. The final section (section 1.10) outlines the structure of the thesis and section 1.11 provides a summary of this chapter.

1.2 The Socio-Economic Climate of the UK Labour Force

In the last decade there have been significant changes to the UK labour market, this included a rise in self-employment as the country emerged out of a recession from 3.8m in 2008 to 4.8m in 2017. However, there has been a sharp fall attributed to the pandemic from 5m in 2019 to 4.2m in 2022 (ONS, 2022). The construction industry appears to be the largest casualty with the lowest number of men self-employed for just over a decade (ONS, 2022).

The rise of the ‘gig economy’ which refers to short-term contracts based on a zero-hour basis has been driven by digital platforms that connect individuals and employers such as Deliveroo, TaskRabbit and Uber allowing for greater flexibility in working patterns against the juxtaposition of job insecurity and low wages (Manyika et al. 2016). Others argue that such work is exploitative compared to traditional work (Snider, 2018). In response to this the UK Government introduced new legislation in 2020 to give gig economy workers greater employment rights including a written statement of employment terms and conditions. However, critics would argue this response does not sufficiently protect this workforce (Montgomery & Baglioni, 2022). Moreover, the gig economy continues to see growth in the UK with 4.7% of all employment associated with the gig economy in 2019, this is a significant rise from 3.3% in 2016 (ONS, 2020). The total value of the UK gig economy was estimated to be £8.75bn in 2018, an increase in 2016’s figure of £7.43bn (RSA, 2018).

Seeking to address income inequality, the introduction of the ‘National Living Wage’ in 2016 (National Living Wage Act, 2016) by the UK Government, set a minimum hourly wage for employees aged 25 and over. This has been particularly welcomed by low earners in the hospitality sector, arts and recreation, retail and agriculture sectors (ONS, 2022).

The UK Government have also made changes to employment rights since 2010, including changes to the rules around unfair dismissal, collective redundancy and removal of the default retirement age and whistleblowing (Department for Business Innovation & Skills, 2015; EAS, 2021).

Changes to pension provision in 2012 saw the UK Government introduce automatic enrolment onto workplace pensions. This aimed to increase pension provision and provide workers with adequate income upon retirement (GOV.UK, 2023). However, for seasonal or temporary staff pensions schemes are assessed individually, for example employees aged over 22 earning over £192 per week require their employer to contribute to a pension scheme (The Pensions Regulator, 2023).

Other significant influences in more recent times include, Brexit, the Covid-19 pandemic and the ‘Cost of Living Crisis’. Each of these are briefly discussed below.

Brexit: The UK’s decision to leave the European Union known as ‘Brexit’ came into effect in 2020 (Parnell, 2023). This has had significant implications for the labour market, including changes to immigration policy which has impacted the availability of workers in certain sectors. The end of free movement has placed restrictions on EU citizens who must now apply for a Visa under the new points-based immigration system. Seasonal workers from the EU can now apply for a six-month ‘Seasonal Workers Visa’ which is typically related to agricultural, horticultural and food processing work. All EU applicants are subject to a right to work check and under the settlement scheme, citizens living and working in the UK prior to December 2020 had to apply for a ‘settled status’ or ‘pre-settled status’ to allow them to continue living and working in the UK beyond June 2021. Between 2019-2020, prior to the Covid-19 pandemic, the ONS reported a decline of 5.7% in the number of EU nationals employed in the UK. However, it is unknown how many of these were temporary workers (ONS, 2022). Overall, these changes mean that EU citizens coming to the UK for work purposes face greater restrictions and bureaucracy since Brexit. This may account for a decline of 1.3m non-UK

workers between 2019 and 2020 (4.6%) (ONS, 2021). This latest figure may also be influenced by the recent Covid-19 pandemic.

Covid-19: A House of Commons report has tracked and highlighted the impact of Covid-19 on employment in the UK, released in April 2022 the Coronavirus report showed 825,000 of the work force was unemployed between January to March and October to December 2020. Unemployment rose by 400,000 and those ‘economically inactive’ increased by 327,000. Redundancies were at their highest and UK working hours plummeted to numbers not seen since 1994. Numbers of unemployed doubled between March to May 2020 (House of Commons Library, Coronavirus: Impact on the Labour market, 2022). Such numbers have been slow to recover and by 2022 since the start of the pandemic, job vacancies are at a record high and redundancies below pre-pandemic numbers. Furthermore, the report highlighted that not all sectors of the labour force were affected equally despite government schemes such as ‘The Coronavirus Job Retention Scheme’ (CJRS) (House of Commons Library, Coronavirus: Impact on the Labour market, 2022). The report highlights that the most economically disadvantaged groups have been shown to be ethnic minority groups, men, the youngest and the oldest workers with many older workers taking early retirement, disabled people, and low paid workers due to being classed as ‘non-essential’ and/or suitable for furlough.

Cost of Living Crisis: Despite reports of older workers taking early retirement due to the effects of the pandemic, the Institute for Fiscal Studies highlights that more recently the UK has been subjected to a ‘cost of living crisis’ which has caused increasing numbers of over 50s and 60s to delay retirement or return to the workplace from retirement as a significant impact on living standards takes hold (Sturrock & Xu, 2023). Although it is too soon to assess the number of citizens in this situation, the Institute for Fiscal Studies report further claims that the UK is at the start of an upward trend of ‘un-retirements’. In July 2022, The Guardian reported on the ‘great unretirement’ due to the cost of living crisis, with an increase in people aged 50 or above looking for work since the pandemic (“*British workers increasingly likely to work into their 70s, research suggests*” 2023. The Guardian). This is supported by ONS data, with 65% aged 54-59 stating they would return to work and 44% aged 60-65. Furthermore, 32% of individuals aged 50-69 years old could not afford £850 if it were to appear as an unexpected expense with 90% reporting they have experienced the cost of living crisis. Finally, 50% of adults reported they do not foresee having to work during their retirement. However, this still leaves 50% of the population unsure as to whether their retirement provisions will meet their needs in the

future (ONS, Reasons for workers aged over 50 years leaving employment since the start of the coronavirus pandemic: wave 2, Sept 2022).

To this end the implication of these macro events have significantly impacted temporary workforces in the UK. For example, according to the 'Business Insights and Conditions Survey (BICS) hospitality services reported the highest number of worker shortages (25%), this was followed by the manufacturing industry (18%) and health (15%) (BICS, 2023). Such shortages have been shown to affect business outputs in a variety of ways, for example 35% of organisations relying on employees working additional hours, this increased to 63% for SMEs and 43% reported being unable to meet demands. The findings also show that one in eight organisations failed to recruit adequately between March-December 2022, again this was highest for hospitality and manufacturing. The reasons given were low numbers of responses, inadequate skills or qualifications and inability to offer attractive packages to prospective candidates. However, 43% reported difficulties recruiting unskilled or semi-skilled workers particularly in manual and technical areas (ONS, Business insights and impact on the UK economy, January 2023).

1.3 Background to the Research

The emergence of temporary agencies can be situated in the transition from Fordist and post-Fordist production in the USA where manufacturing moved from mass platform production and job security to the layering of organisational structures and a paradigm shift towards global markets and the demands and uncertainties they bring (Lipietz, 1997). This brings with it changes in employment trends reflective of an advancing economy and organisations needing to meet growing and sometimes fluctuating demand, to be highly responsive and gain a competitive advantage (Green, 2003). The opening of global markets has also heralded in knowledge transfer, open innovation, and automation. Whilst this is considered positive for organisations and customers alike, the decline of permanent job security and the idea of a 'job for life' has succumbed to such advances and in line with social and economic trends (Office of National Statistics, 2019). Alternative work archetypes have become prevalent amongst traditional forms of employment from the growth of the UK gig economy seeing 4.4m individuals driving a rapidly expanding service industry to the job-sharing and temporary agency workers (TUC, 2021). Yet, along with cognitive categorisation, much of the empirical evidence examining themes such as leadership, organisational culture, management, strategy,

and human resource management stems from full-time permanent employment (Plomp et al. 2019).

The applicability of this evidence-base in the context of non-traditional employment remains largely unknown. However, in recent years a growing body of work is emerging which recognises the need to understand the unique experiences of alternative workforces and the implications for the individuals, teams and organisations involved (Grant & Parker, 2009). One of the most popular constructs to emerge in recent years is that of employee engagement (Katz & Krueger, 2019). Yet, despite a plethora of research, particularly since the 2000s, very little is known about alternative workforce engagement. For this purpose, the research sets out to examine both antecedent constructs and outcomes of employee engagement in the context of temporary agency workers (TAWs).

The rapid growth of temporary employment contracts and the use of recruitment agencies to service exponential growth in Western economic markets during the 1980s and 1990s has led to increased competition, specialisms, professional consultancy services and human resource expertise (Katz & Kreuger, 2019). Demand in recruitment agency services has seen steady growth in the UK, with the recruitment industry economic contribution increasing by 11% annually (pre-pandemic) with a total revenue of £35.9 billion in 2020/2021 (Recruitment & Employment Confederation, 2021), and as employers increasingly access the services of temporary workers, on any given day there are over 980,100 temporary agency workers (TAWs) in placements across the UK (Recruitment & Employment Confederation, 2021). To service such demand, there are currently 30,295 recruitment enterprises employing 110,300 staff in the UK (Recruitment & Employment Confederation, 2021).

The diffusion of temporary workforces provides beneficial flexibility and independence for both individuals and organisations (Virtanen et al., 2005). However, the rapid expansion of the recruitment industry continues to drive fierce competition for the sourcing and retention of reliable good quality temporary agency workers (TAWs) as this is important to the successful performance and outcomes of both agency and client (Connelly, Gallagher & Gilley, 2007). High attrition rates can have serious consequences for agencies and their client organisations, reputational damage, loss of orders and failure to deliver products and services on time are just a few issues experienced by both entities (Ward et al., 2001). Furthermore, organisations who use temporary workforces, known as the 'client organisation' may source their talent pool for

permanent placements from their temporary worker portfolios, again emphasising the importance of recruiting and retaining good quality TAWs (Antoni & Jahn, 2009).

Significant resources are invested in recruitment and training of TAWs (whether skilled or unskilled) to perform their roles to the expectations of The Client organisation (Pratt, 2019). Absence or leaving the assignment can be costly in terms of time, resources, and financial implications. The cost of replacing a single TAW starts at £2,697 and doubles if The Client organisation has over 500 employees (Pratt, 2019). Therefore, it is within the interest of the agency and client organisation to create and support the right conditions for the retention of TAWs. A growing body of research examining non-traditional workforces is emerging and several studies show the benefits of enhancing engagement in the workplace as a contribution to a creating a positive climate for temporary workers (Jiang & Wang, 2018; Liden et al, 2003; Slatter et al., 2010).

Employee engagement is one of the central constructs in organisational behaviour research and has been established as an important component of employee retention (Mackay, Allen & Landis, 2017). It has also been shown as a key contributor towards job performance, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours, job satisfaction and discretionary effort (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011; Rich, LePine & Crawford, 2010). From an organisational perspective, employee engagement is positively related to higher productivity, organisational performance, competitive advantage, growth, and profit (Sancha et al., 2020; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

1.4 Research Motivation

Despite the increasing number of TAWs and their significant contribution to organisations, and the wider economy, there is limited understanding of the key constructs that drive both positive and negative work perceptions (Plomp et al., 2019).

Employee engagement as a construct may include an examination of the psychological, cognitive and behavioural outcomes for an individual (Jiang & Wang, 2018). What studies exist largely focus on engagement with employees that have full-time or part-time, permanent positions. This is problematic due to the increasing reliance on temporary agency workers, as witnessed during the recent Covid-19 pandemic, as well as during seasonal events (e.g., Christmas, harvest picking) when there is increased demand for products.

Indeed, temporary agency work has been researched through different theoretical lenses and analytical models such as the effect of job insecurity. The key construct of employee engagement in the context of temporary agency worker remains empirically and theoretically underdeveloped (Kelliher et al., 2019). This leaves the field with limited knowledge of a growing workforce. The construct of employee engagement draws significant attention in the organisational literature; however, the data is largely predicated traditional workforces (Liden et al., 2003). Therefore, its relevance to TAWs warrants further investigation. While the Saks (2006) study has made an important contribution to our understanding of multidimensional employee engagement (Bailey et al., 2017) it is limited to the examination of traditional workforces and not in the context of TAWs. Furthermore, research into employee engagement has typically dealt with a single application of engagement (Bailey et al. 2017), however there is a growing body of evidence to support the notion of engagement as a multidimensional construct whereby employees can be engaged to a high degree with one form of engagement, but not the other (Saks, 2006). To this author's knowledge, the influence of multidimensional engagement is untested in TAW cohorts who may experience engagement with their job role and not The Client organisation or vice versa. There is little evidence examining how the nature of dual contracts may influence a TAWs perception of their time at The Client organisation (Slattery et al., 2010). This has implications for not only the field of research, but for agency management, temporary worker retention, client performance and human resource practitioners.

As well as the concept of employee engagement, there are several associated antecedent constructs claiming to positively or negatively influence employee engagement highlighted in the extant literature (Saks, 2019). These include the antecedents of job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice, and distributive justice (Akingbola & Van den Berg, 2019; Barik & Kochar, 2017; Crawford et al., 2013; Shuck, Reio & Rocco, 2011; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). The significance of these relationships varies; however, most studies use traditional workforces to examine antecedents (Hakanen et al., 2019). The research examining the influence of antecedents on TAWs remains sparse. Whether these same antecedents are applicable to TAWs and to what degree is largely unknown. The implications of significant antecedent drivers of employee engagement have been shown to positively influence greater commitment, reduce attrition rates and result in additional help behaviours (Ocampo et al., 2018). The benefits of which not only reflect in positive outcomes and performance, but may benefit the agency and

client in reputation, retention of quality TAWs and provide a talent pool for future recruitment (Menatta et al., 2020). Furthermore, there are several psychological and behavioural outcomes associated with positive work engagement, these include job satisfaction, organisational commitment, reduced intention to quit and positive behaviours that go above and beyond contractual obligations (Sun et al., 2019). As with antecedents, much of what we know about these outcomes stems from traditional cohorts (Baethge et al., 2018). Outcome attitudes and behaviours have been shown to contribute to the wider scope of organisational performance (Al-dalahmeh et al., 2018), co-worker support (Mekhum et al., 2019), higher standards of customer care (Setiyani et al., 2019) and wellbeing (Gupta, 2016). These outcomes and their wider implications are within the interests of the agency, client organisation and individuals. Our understanding of their applicability to TAWs is extremely limited and warrants further exploration.

Finally, much of the literature on employee engagement, antecedents and outcomes is analysed through multiple regression and more recently structural equation modelling using AMOS. However, an alternative method of structural equation modelling may offer a more suitable and statistically powerful form of analysis for results (Ghasemy et al., 2020; Hair et al., 2020). There is a lack of studies using partial least squares in employee engagement due to its more recent development (Hair et al., 2016). This research gap is worthy of further investigation to determine its suitability in TAW data analysis.

1.5 Research Aim and Objectives

A clear, unambiguous statement of the research is fundamental to the research process (Jenkins, 1985, p. 101). The aim of this study is therefore to “*examine employee engagement from the perspective of the temporary agency worker to identify the influence and implications of job and organisation engagement*”. To achieve this research aim, five research objectives were established and listed in Table 1 below. These research objectives are aligned with the chapters of this thesis.

Table 1: Research objectives of this study

Research Objective	Description	Elements of thesis
1	To examine the literature to establish the main constructs associated with employee engagement and temporary agency workers	Chapter 2
2	To identify a research model constructs and theoretical hypotheses to examine the antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement in temporary workers	Chapter 3
3	To identify the most suitable research methodology and data analysis techniques to test the hypotheses of the research model.	Chapter 4
4	To empirically examine the hypotheses through the collection and analysis of quantitative data and examine the findings to determine the antecedents and outcomes from a TAWs perspective.	Chapter 5
5	To extrapolate the contributions to knowledge and practical implications of the findings.	Chapter 6

Building on extant literature, this study examines the antecedent constructs identified in the literature and their proposed outcomes. The research utilises Saks (2006) validated employee engagement model to capture the perceptions of TAWs engagement with The Client organisation. An examination of the key antecedents of employee engagement includes job characteristics (JC); perceived organisational support (POS); perceived supervisor support (PSS), rewards and recognition (R&R); procedural justice (PJ) and distributive justice (DJ) and the mediated outcomes: job satisfaction (JS); organisational commitment (OC); intention to quit (ITQ) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The mediating lens of multi-dimensional engagement is applied, namely job engagement and organisation engagement as distinct forms of employee engagement.

This is the first study (to the author's knowledge) to apply Saks' (2006) model of multidimensional engagement in the context of temporary agency workers (TAWs) as well as to warehouse personnel in the UK. This area of inquiry is highly complex due to the transactional nature of the "dual roles" experienced by TAWs (Gallagher & McLean Parks, 2001; Menatta et al., 2022).

This study seeks to answer the following interrelated research questions (RQ) that are pertinent to research aim and objectives as previously stated.

RQ 1. Do the commonly held antecedents of multidimensional engagement influence the TAWs job engagement and organisation engagement in the context of The Client Organisation?

RQ 2. Does multidimensional employee engagement positively influence TAW outcomes within The Client organisation?

RQ 3. Does multidimensional engagement comprise of distinct forms of engagement and is this applicable to the context of TAWs.

1.6 The Research Approach

After consideration of the research questions, aim and objectives, attention is turned to the research approach (Saunders & Lewis, 2019). Examination of the extant literature in employee engagement and its associated antecedents and outcomes show the majority take a positivist position (Christian et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2014). This informs the research design to be deductive or in some cases abductive in nature, thus leading to the use of quantitative techniques (Bryman, 2021). The methodology of this study applies an existing model which uses quantitative measures of engagement previously used in traditional workforces and applies it in a new context – temporary agency workers. Therefore, it is appropriate to form a set of hypotheses to test and validate the applicability of the model in the new context. The aim is to compare results to the model’s original findings and thus examine differences between employee engagement in traditional and temporary agency workforces.

The research begins with an examination of the extant literature to determine an appropriate theory, model and set of hypotheses. Data originates from TAWs from three agencies based in a large UK retail distribution warehouse. Structural equation modelling (SEM) will be used for data analysis with the application of partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) via SmartPLS software and descriptive statistics through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The hypotheses will be tested, and the outcomes reported for statistical significance.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

Reflective of many previous studies in the field of temporary agencies, a hypotheses-driven methodology is used to examine the research questions presented in this thesis. Whilst realist approaches purport that the world operates independently from an individual’s concepts and

beliefs, constructivism would oppose this position, determining that human input influences the world (Holden & Lynch, 2004). However, positivism is based on observations that are quantifiable, typically leading to deductive reasoning. The focus for this research is reflected through an ontological lens that certain events and observable elements interact in a determined way. However, the aim of the study is to determine the strength of interactions between a range of constructs, the focus is less reliant on discovering certain phenomena or meaning which would be more suited to a constructivist approach (Saunders et al., 2015). Furthermore, whilst researcher bias needs to be addressed as part of best practice, the data collection in this study required minimal interaction between researcher and participants. The study was independent and allowed for researcher objectivity throughout.

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1.9 Summary of Contributions to Knowledge

By achieving the research aim and associated research objectives, this study makes several contributions to the knowledge base and to the practice of management.

1. *Theoretical:* In the main, there remains limited research examining the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement from a temporary agency worker perspective. This research utilised an established employee engagement model developed using permanent employees and test it within a new context to highlight constructs that may

influence employee engagement for temporary agency workers to a greater or lesser degree.

2. *Methodological:* Analysis of the data will use PLS-SEM techniques thus providing a powerful statistical examination of the data and model. The research findings offer insights and recommendations for the recruitment and retention of temporary agency workers.
3. *Practical:* Findings from the analysis of the data will highlight key difference between traditional and temporary agency workers, thus determining a unique set to characteristics that can inform managerial and organisational practice for positive outcomes.

Having provided a summary of the contributions of this study, the next section outlines the remaining chapters of the thesis.

1.10 Structure of the Thesis

The remaining chapters of the thesis are structured as follows.

Chapter two reviews and synthesis extant literature on employee engagement too first identify a gap in knowledge and its problematisation for research and practice. Further, the review of literature is used as the theoretical lens to examine this phenomenon of TAWs and as intellectual bins to analyse the data and advance understanding of its meaning for the purpose of this research study.

Chapter three outlines the development of the hypotheses for the research. It begins with an examination of seminal work and the most prevalent theories and models associated with the antecedents and moderators of employee engagement. It examines the suitability of a theoretical model used to examine employee engagement in temporary agency workers. It then outlines the development of the research hypotheses based on the established literature and the original findings from the research model.

Chapter four addresses the methodology for this study and begins with outlining the research design. It does this through due consideration of the philosophical position, available strategies,

and the approach. The chapter goes on to critically discuss the development of the data collection tool and process, sampling, and ethical considerations. This leads the focus onto pilot testing the tool and mitigating procedure errors. Analysis options are also discussed and the use of Structural Equation Modelling as an effective procedure is examined.

Chapter five presents the results of the research with structural confirmatory factor analysis determining the final measures. An examination of the key findings and interpretation of the results are presented in detail.

Chapter six is a discussion of how the finding of this study challenge long held assumptions of about TAWs and the research hypotheses presented in this initial chapter. Use of the model in the context of TAWs is scrutinised for validity against its original purpose. Limitations of the study are acknowledged and opportunities for future research outlined. The chapter concludes by highlighting the contribution to knowledge and opportunities for further research in this area. Concluding remarks complete this chapter and the thesis.

1.11 Chapter Summary

There is limited understanding of the key constructs that drive both positive and negative work perceptions. The construct of employee engagement draws significant attention in the organisational literature and is recognised as one of the central constructs in organisational behaviour research and has been established as an important component of employee retention. However, the data is largely predicated on the empirical foundations and continued examination of employee engagement from the experiences and perceptions of employees in full-time or part-time, permanent positions. This is problematic due to the increasing reliance on temporary agency workers and the cost of a temporary agency worker leaving the assignment, this can be costly in terms of time, resources, and financial implications. Therefore, it is within the interest of the agency and client organisation to create and support the right conditions for the retention of TAWs. The lack of empirical evidence leaves the field with limited knowledge of a growing workforce. Furthermore, positive employee engagement has been shown to contribute towards job performance, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours, job satisfaction and discretionary effort. From an organisational perspective, employee engagement is positively related to higher productivity, organisational

performance, competitive advantage, growth, and profit. Therefore, employee engagement and its relevance to TAWs warrants further investigation.

2 REVIEW OF TEMPORARY AGENCY LITERATURE

2.1 Chapter Introduction

In this chapter we draw upon the existing literature of employee engagement and highlight potential gaps in knowledge and problem spaces. The beginning of this chapter begins with an overview of topics explored by the researcher prior to the specific focus on employee engagement (2.2). Attention is then turned towards the concept of temporary agency workers and establishing a definition (section 2.3) followed by a discussion of why organisations may use temporary agency staff (section 2.4). The Chapter explores the actors involved in the arrangement (section 2.5) and then turns its focus to the construct of employee engagement (section 2.6) with a view to defining it in section 2.7 and 2.8. Employee engagement as psychological and behavioural state is discussed in section 2.9 and the key theories of engagement research are explored, the theoretical position of this thesis is then established (section 2.10-2.16). Key antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement will then be discussed (section 2.17-2.19). Measurement of employee engagement is discussed (section 2.21) and the methodological limitations from the existing literature acknowledged. An appropriate model to operationalise this study is identified (section 2.22).

2.2 Evolving From Belonging to Employee Engagement

The researcher was engaged in discussions with a leading recruitment agency supervisor who was responsible for a large account at a UK distribution warehouse. The supervisor suggested that the TAW experience was predicated on a sense of 'belonging' as she attributed its deficit to the increasing attrition rates at the warehouse. This suggestion formed the first stage of the literature review search. Initial research into the extant literature defined employee belonging as a sense of connection and acceptance that employees experience within the workplace (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). A number of studies have found that employee belonging is positively associated with job satisfaction, organisational commitment and negatively associated with intention to quit (Oyserman, Elmore & Smith, 2012; Kyei-Poku, 2014; Melhem, 2019). Furthermore, employees who experience high levels of belonging are more

like to contribute to organisational goals and exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours and employee engagement (Jalilian, 2017). Factors that support employee belonging include perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, clear communication of values and goals along with an inclusive organisational culture (Jaitli & Hua, 2013). More recently a focus on management's influence on employee belonging has generated studies into moral behaviour, reward and recognition, fairness, shared decision making and team relationships (Rayner, 2009; Randel et al., 2018; Korkmaz et al., 2022). In contrast isolation, stress and exclusion can be detrimental to belonging and outcomes of inequality (Jalilian, 2017).

The concept is largely defined as a 'feeling' and has been criticised for its vague and nebulous nature (Pratt & Dirks, 2014; Meyer, 2016). Furthermore, the term suggests exclusion of certain individuals or groups who may not fit the dominant culture of the organisation are diametrically opposed (O'Reilly & Robinson, 2009). This could suggest discrimination and inequality based on 'feelings' (Meyer, 2016). Pratt and Dirks (2014) expressed concern that if organisations were to focus on belonging it could be exploited to increase employee loyalty and commitment without addressing the underlying issues such as pay and working conditions. At the time of exploring the construct, there was limited empirical evidence, particularly in terms of TAWs. However, Barsade, Ramarajan and Burack (2008) suggest that temporary workers often feel less belonging than permanent workers. Hershcovis et al., (2017) reviewed the literature on the relationship between organisational culture and employee wellbeing, it went on to discuss implications for temporary workers who have less access to organisational culture, and as a consequence, employee belonging. This focus gave the researcher the first introduction to the theoretical work of Kahn (1990) and the notion of psychological safety, meaning, availability and employee engagement.

In parallel, the concept of loyalty shared an overlap with the construct of employee commitment which led the researcher to explore this is a focal point for the study. Employee commitment refers to an individual's loyalty dedication to their employer and the organisational goals (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). It is characterised by a sense of obligation to the organisation and a willingness to exert effort to help the organisation achieve its objectives (Riketta, 2002). Employee commitment has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction, organisation citizenship behaviours and negatively related to the intention to quit (Meyer et al., 2002). The literature at the time was extremely limited in terms of employee commitment and TAWs, however a related concept, that of 'organisational commitment' and

TAWs was more established (Biggs & Swailes, 2006; De Cuyper, Notelaers & De Witte, 2009; Galais & Moser, 2009; Giunchi & Chambel & Ghislieri, 2015). Whereas employee commitment refers to the individual's level of dedication, loyalty and attachment to the work, it is argued that the construct of organisational commitment refers to the degree to which an individual identifies with and is dedicated to an organisation as a whole. This involves a sense of belonging and loyalty to the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997). The emerging literature showed how organisational culture, leadership and communication can influence this construct (Rafiq Awan & Mahmood, 2010). In the case of TAWs, a study by Galais and Moser (2009) revealed organisational commitment was positively related to increased wellbeing at The Client organisation, but not with their agency. However, this had negative implications for reassignment suggesting that an attachment to The Client organisation held meaning for the TAWs. Therefore, organisational commitment over employee commitment became a new focus for the study and once again the role of Kahn's (1990) 'work engagement theory' resonated with 'meaning' for the TAW. Guinchi, Chambel and Ghislieri (2015) examined whether agency organisational commitment influenced client organisation commitment and found that perceived organisational support from The Client and agency enhanced organisational commitment respectively. Perceived organisational support became an interesting construct to include in the study as analysis of the TAW literature progressed.

Having started the research with employee belonging, it became evident that Kahn's theory of work engagement (Kahn, 1990) was the most suitable theoretical lens for this work due to its theoretical strength and analytical power. Elements of the theory touched upon the sentiment of 'employee commitment'. However, the limited literature related to TAWS inspired an expanded search strategy and revealed an emerging body of work between TAWs and 'organisational commitment'. A review of the literature highlighted that TAWs experience dual commitments and therefore, this would be central to a study involving the agency and client organisation (Biggs & Swailes, 2006; De Cuyper, Notelaers & De Witte, 2009; Morf, Arnold & Staffelbach, 2014; Wombacher & Felfe, 2017).

Further research showed the influence of perceived organisational support in terms of psychological safety and TAWs which brought the focus again, back to Kahn (1990) and employee engagement. Whilst employee belonging, employee commitment and employee engagement are related concepts, they each deal with different aspects of an employee's

relationship with their organisation. Due to the focus on employee engagement, the remainder of this chapter reviews the literature associated with temporary agency workers and employee engagement.

2.3 Defining Temporary Agency Workers

Alternative work archetypes are more prevalent and varied than ever before. The notion of traditional or permanent employment along with steady career-paths has changed in line with economic and social trends (Katz & Krueger, 2019). Yet much of the empirical evidence and cognitive categorisation of employment stems from the traditional model of full-time permanent employment (Milojević, Radicchi & Walsh, 2018). Indeed, much of the established literature addressing key organisational topics such as management, leadership, culture, performance, strategy, and human resources assume the position of the traditional permanent employment model (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). The applicability of the established literature in the context of non-traditional workforces remains largely unknown (Hakanen et al., 2019). However, there is a growing body of research emerging that recognises the need to understand such established constructs in this context and in line with changing labour forces (Grant & Parker, 2009). Furthermore, examination of this growing body of research highlights the issue of terminology which may cause concern of external validity.

The terms alternative, non-standard or non-traditional workers lack clear distinctions. The term contingent workers has also been criticised for being too vague as this may include non-agency working (Osnowitz, 2010). Temporary roles may also be housed under the banner of 'precarious work' whereby job insecurity, low-pay, limited career opportunities and low-skill requirements all contribute to the nature of poor levels of work protection (Manolchev, Saundry & Lewis, 2021). Whilst the meaning of work is experienced at an individual level, its structures and processes are determined by organisational and labour market climates (Findlay & Thompson, 2017). The range of terms for non-traditional work adds complexity to the field of temporary worker research (Duggan et al., 2020).

Having numerous definitions and classification of non-traditional workers can cause issue with external validity, whereby researchers may overlap constructs or house different forms of part-time or temporary work under a single umbrella term (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). Cappelli and Keller (2013) argue that, as a result, researchers have based much of their work on broad

distinctions between traditional and non-traditional workforces which are no longer appropriate for the new economy. Such ambiguity of terms has hindered the field in how it examines, measures, and develops a clear understanding of the practical and theoretical implications of alternative work. Much of what we know about employment and employees remains bound in traditional frameworks of full-time secure employment. The absence of consistency in defining temporary work has implications for key employment constructs such as citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, and commitment. Such constructs may be examined under a heterogeneous gathering of non-traditional work (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). This also has implications for how research informs the empirical field of knowledge as well as managerial and organisational understanding and practice (Grant & Parker, 2009). Cappelli & Keller (2013, p. 577) provide a distinct classification for temporary agency workers within non-traditional categories (see Figure 1).

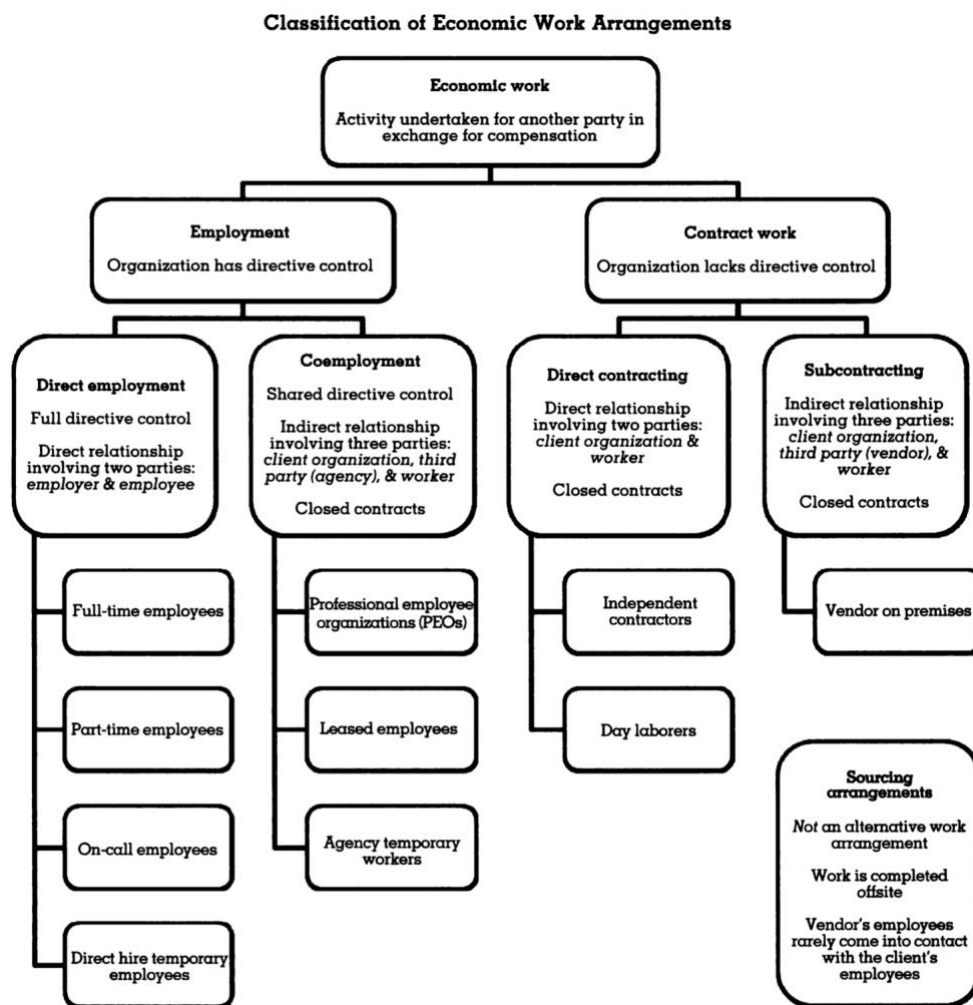


Figure 1: Classification of economic work arrangements

These nuances are important for understanding the differences between TAWs and traditional employees (see Table 2). Existing terms for temporary workers are nebulous and remain contested in the literature. This can include temporary employees directly hired by an organisation, onsite vendors, contingent workers, and independent contractors (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). Temporary agency work is often referred to as ‘contingent work’ in the literature, a term which emerged from the rapid growth of employment agencies during the 1980s. Contingent work encompassed the properties of short-term, insecure work (Barker & Christensen, 2019). However, it began to incorporate direct hire workers, agency temps, part-time work, and independent contractors (Bergström & Storrie, 2003). The notion of job security and control amongst each relationship can vary greatly. Some roles may have high security and long-term prospects such as part-time roles or highly specialised contracts. Therefore, the notion of security as a key factor in distinguishing between traditional work and contingent work become rather redundant (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). The construct of a temporary or contingent work remains contested without consensus.

To aid the distinctive nature of temporary agency working, Kalleberg et al. (2000) defined the term standard workers to mean roles usually performed fulltime under the employer’s control, to a fixed schedule at the employer’s organisation based on expected continuous employment (p. 257). However, since that definition was published, much has changed in the workplace with employees expecting flexible arrangements across schedules and where they work (Messenger, 2018). This term could be considered confusing because it assumes there is a known consistency in standard work. Therefore, this thesis uses the term ‘traditional’ workforces to mean employees in permanent roles, rather than ‘standard’ workforces.

Table 2: Differences between concepts of traditional workers and TAWS

Profile of traditional workers (Full-time and Part-time) (Cappelli and Keller, 2013)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employed by the organisation they work for • The organisation uses their skills, input, and services • The organisation controls the structures and processes to determine a work outcome • The organisation is legally and regulatorily responsible for the contract conditions e.g., recruitment, payroll, taxes, redundancy, and termination • Typically contracted to a particular role and place of work • Contracted length of service is not stated and has the potential to run long-term.
Profile of temporary agency workers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employed by a recruitment agency (UK term) also known as a ‘temp agency’ or temporary agency

-
- There is usually a tri-party relationship between TAW, agency and client with a dual contract involved.
 - The agency is legally and regulatorily responsible for employment conditions of recruitment, payroll, taxes, and termination
 - Agency recruits the individual; controls work allocation whereas The Client organisations have the right to direct and manage the TAW throughout the assignment to achieve the aims of the arrangement
 - The agency supplies the TAW to The Client organisation under the auspices of a contract for a short-term period
 - The TAW may carry out work at The Client's location, then returns to the agency for a new assignment once the contract ends with The Client organisation
-

Cappelli and Keller (2013) stipulate that their categorisation of non-standard or non-traditional employment stems from the notion of control as it often governs working relationships. This is often predicated on legal frameworks that tend to govern the nature of the relationship and subsequently, how workers are 'managed'. Legal frameworks contribute some clarity to defining alternative forms of employment, for example "individuals who are supplied by an employment agency to work for another employer (the 'end user' or 'principal')". In this case, the employment agency is a recruitment agency and once they have introduced the worker to an employer the relationship between the worker and the agency ends" (Health & Safety Executive, 2018). It's applicability to TAWs for this context remains vague and is therefore unsuitable. Claes (2005) defines temporary agency work as the tripartite involvement of the individual, agency, and client organisation. The TAW is legally obligated to the agency and hired out for the purposes of The Client organisation, therefore risk is the responsibility of the agency and managerial control is determined by The Client (Gallagher and McLean Parks, 2001; Camerman et al., 2007). The emphasis being on the contractual nature of the arrangement.

However, Cappelli and Keller (2013) describe temporary agency workers as those employed specifically by a temporary employment agency. The agency is responsible for the screening, recruitment, payroll, contract negotiation and termination of the temporary workers. The agency places the individual with a client organisation, typically for a short time. The Client organisation dictates the scope of the work under the guise of the agreed contract with the agency. The agency is ultimately responsible for ensuring that regulatory requirements are upheld and that financial obligations are met. The work is typically performed at The Client organisation's premises and after the placement is completed, the temporary agency worker returns to the agency for reassignment. This is very different to seasonal temps who are usually directly hired by an organisation during busy periods, such as retailers approaching Christmas (SIA, 2022).

A further notable difference is that of directive control. Temporary agencies typically negotiate the terms and scope of the placement such as the start dates, wage, the end of contract date, and job role. The agency retains the right to direct its workers, however this becomes more of a shared directive once the temporary agency worker is in situ (Pfeffer & Baron, 1988). Furthermore, the shared directive encompasses health and safety, fair treatment, anti-discrimination legislation and any other legal requirements (EAS, 2022). Temporary agency workers are entitled to bring both the agency and client organisation to court for violating employment law. Short term employment of this nature is usually reflected in the type of placements on offer, these tend to be moderately standardised (e.g., call centres, factories, warehouses) or highly skilled (e.g., IT support, healthcare, accountancy) (Hünefeld, Gerstenberg & Hüffmeier, 2020). Provision of the worker will be under the assumption that they have the requisite skills to undertake the job tasks without an intrusive training period. The working relationships can be distinguished as direct, between worker and organisation, or triangulated when a third party is involved in the transaction. In consideration of this, the thesis adopts Cappelli and Keller's (2013) definition of a temporary agency worker.

2.4 The Use of Temporary Agency Workers

The emergence and growth of TAWs can be examined from both positions of supply and demand. Demand stemming from client organisations wanting flexible and financial functionality and workers wanting greater autonomy over their work choices. This includes the opportunity of a 'foot in the door' to an organisation or flexible work period. Temporary agency work may also be undertaken due to a lack of alternative employment (Heinrich et al., 2009; Jahn & Bentzen, 2012). From a supply perspective, this can be examined from the Agency as a service provider and the temporary worker as a willing employee. Much of the literature has focused on the perspective of The Client organisation and its need for temporary workforces (De Graaf-Zijl- & Berkhout, 2007) or TAW and the implications for The Client organisation as we try to understand more about the attitudinal, behavioural, and cognitive functions of non-traditional workforces (De Groot & Franses, 2005; Machon, 2006). This has implications for practice and management in both agency and client organisation settings. In 2004, Connelly and Gallagher stated that research had only just begun to explore employee relationships and factors that affect temporary agency workers, therefore the research and its ability to inform contemporary practice and HRM has only emerged in the last 20 years.

2.5 The Actors Involved in Temporary Agency Work

2.4.1 The Client Organisation

The Client organisation is also referred to as the ‘end-user’, ‘third party employer’, or ‘user firm’ in the established literature (Breugal, Olffen & Olie, 2005). Whereas the contracted placement is typically referred to as ‘the assignment’ (Fudge & Strauss, 2016). Much of the early research into temporary workforces concentrated on The Client organisation and its reasons for utilising agency workers (De Graaf-Zijl & Berkhout, 2007). Key findings included mitigating against unpredictable changes in demand and the need for specialist knowledge to complete unique tasks, such as the use of IT and innovation (Holst, Nachtwey & Dörre, 2010). A seminal study examining temporary workforce growth in the USA by Abraham (1990) showed that increasing HRM costs and increased uncertainty in markets drove a need for temporary workforces. As well as the need to fulfil absent permanent employees (80% of participants gave this as their reason for using TAWs), organisations required TAWs for their new or unique skills to work on projects (77%), cover until a permanent employee could be recruited (60%) or support for seasonal demand (52%).

Jahn and Bentzen (2012) state that there are three factors that may affect TAW demand. Firstly, if the economy is healthy the probability of finding permanent work increases. Quality temporary agency workers may be offered permanent roles within The Client organisation. This may leave Agencies with very low-skilled workers and limited capacity. Secondly, some organisations may simply increase their capacity by offering overtime, flexible shift patterns, weekend work and incentives. Thirdly, legislation in the UK and many European Countries limits the length of the assignment or frequency of contract renewals with The Client organisation. Therefore, those TAWs approaching the upper limit of the contract cannot be relied on as a ‘buffer’ of labour by The Client organisation or Agency. Countries in an economic upturn may therefore refer to permanent employees instead or alternative contractors (Portugal & Varejao, 2009).

Rogers (2000) points out that from a client perspective, there is a desire to avoid the financial commitment of employing full-time workers as well as avoiding the involvement of Unions in

some cases. Therefore, TAWs are an attractive proposition for many organisations. Hamersma et al. (2014) echoes that view, whereby financial commitment can be reduced by paying lower wages, adjusting the size of the workforce, thus becoming more responsive to fluctuations in the business cycle. Furthermore, TAWs can quickly be returned to the Agency if demand falls, or they are not suitable for the selected task. If stability in production occurs, then it is more likely that permanent workers will be recruited. However, while the use of TAWs may boost the ability of an organisation to meet an order or respond to peak trading periods, it can be a costly process in some cases. This has been highlighted by Pratt (2019) in the previous chapter but prior to this Von Hippel et al (1997) highlighted the cost of resources involved in training a temporary worker is relatively high against recruiting an employee over a longer period. The short-term investment is governed by short-term goals; however, the cost could be spread by expending the same resource on a longer investment.

This notwithstanding, there are benefits in using TAWs such as knowledge transfer to The Client organisation, especially in terms of sourcing temporary workers who may bring their own experience and ideas into the organisation, this may include saving costs, best practice and better job fit for certain roles. Agencies themselves may demonstrate a highly efficient recruitment process thus, highlighting issues with the HR system of the organisation (Storrie, 2002; Torka & Schyns, 2007). Agencies use a range of messaging to attract temporary workers, this will typically centre around the benefits to the individual. As well as messaging, several websites will highlight individual stories (e.g., Hayes, Manpower and Michael Page). Some claim the ability to match skilled agency workers to the most suitable positions, however research suggests this is ineffective. In fact, organisations are shown to be more effective in this process than Agencies (Hall, 2006). This notwithstanding, client organisation supervisors have reported the value in using temporary agencies, especially when it comes to the Agency managing the recruitment process, reward and recognition, payroll, disciplinary issues, and the termination of contracts. As Biggs et al. (2006) highlight The Client organisation may also identify potential employees from the temporary cohort thus having direct access to a specific talent pool. Such services can therefore reduce costs and provide greater efficiencies. Moreover, it is unsurprising that Agencies often become an additional component of a Client Organisation's HR strategy (Foote & Folta, 2002; Purcell et al., 2004).

2.4.2 The Agency

Establishing the origins of temporary employment agencies is challenging given the numerous terms used in the literature to describe their services. In Europe, the notion of Agency workers has existed in various forms since the 1700s, however it only emerged as a formal service at the end of the 1940s (Bergstrom & Storrie, 2003; Michon, 2006). From a 19th century American context, Gonos (1997) mentions the role of ‘intermediaries’ who were paymasters to workers they procured and who offered commissary services to organisations. Similar cases may have existed in London as a subsidiary of firms offering permanent employment placements (Moore, 1965). However, there is a consensus that the temporary agency emerged in conjunction with innovation in calculating and business machines in the USA during the late 1920s and early 1930s (Neugart & Storrie, 2006). Increased demand for such skilled workers saw specific agencies set up to initially carry out the work on their own premises. This evolved and workers along with their equipment were hired on loan to client organisations (Fforde, 2001). By the late 1930s, many of these organisations had invested in their own business machines and yet still hired skilled workers via employment agencies to operate them. One such agency to emerge was Kelly in the 1940s, founded by a car salesman serving in the US army who acquired new skills to operate business machines and identified the gap in skilled workers (Hatton, 2011). It is acknowledged as one of the largest and most successful employment agencies in the world, with a stronghold over the USA recruitment and temporary agency market (Hatton, 2008) (see table 3).

Temporary employment agencies grew exponentially after World War II, with firms such as Manpower being established in 1948 to address the general labour shortage. The 1940s through to the 1960s saw most temporary employment agencies service the needs for skilled administrative work such as secretarial and clerical roles (Fudge & Strauss, 2016). Reflective of the time, these roles were typically fulfilled by females, some agencies emphasised this by adding ‘girls’ to their agency trademarks, for example Kelly Girl and Western Girl in the USA (Fu, 2019). However, the gender profile of agency staff began to change during the 1970s as 28% of agency work now focused on industrial roles and 2% on professional or legal roles, the remaining 70% administrative. In the USA, male temporary employees made up 21% of the workforce (Gannon, 1974; Fu, 2019). This contrasts with today’s gender profile in the UK where temporary workers make up 5.8% of the workforce. Of this, there are an estimated 919,000 female temporary workers female and 734,000 males (ONS, 2022). Stereotypical roles

have changed since the 1970s and many recruitment agencies are now specialists in the sector demand they manage. Furthermore, these recent numbers have been driven by the cost-of-living crisis and retirees being forces to return to the workforce (SIA, 2022).

In the UK around 300 agencies were operating in London by the 1960s (Economist, 1962), this rose to over 800 between 1964 and 1967 making temporary employment agencies one of the fastest growing sectors in both USA and UK economies (Hatton, 2011). A 2020 report by the Staffing Industrialists Agency lists the successful recruitment firms operating today and their specialisms (see Table 3).

Table 3: Recruitment firms operating today and their specialisms

Agency	Year Established	Country of Origin	Year Established in the UK	Specialisms
Adecco Group	1996	Switzerland	1996	Warehouse, Administration
Manpower	1948	USA	1963	Logistics, retail, technology
Reed plc	1973	UK	1973	Retail, hospitality, finance
Randstad	1960	Netherlands	1989	Education, finance, IT
Kelly Services	1946	USA	1973	Financial, administrative
Hays	1986	UK	1986	Finance, IT, construction, Healthcare
Blue Arrow	1959	UK	1959	Manufacturing, hospitality, Call centres, Administration
Michael Page	1976	UK	1976	Finance, administration, manufacturing

(Source: SIA, shorturl.at/ehL34)

A 2022 report by Staffing Industry Analysis shows the global success of recruitment provision as a billion-dollar sector (see Table 4) whilst showing a combined revenue of \$206bn, the global recruitment services market is down 45% from the previous year. This is thought to be due to the global pandemic. The number of recruitment services in the UK has almost doubled since 2008 with approximately 27,700 recruitment sites in operation, this includes websites, national offices, and independents (Venturi, 2022).

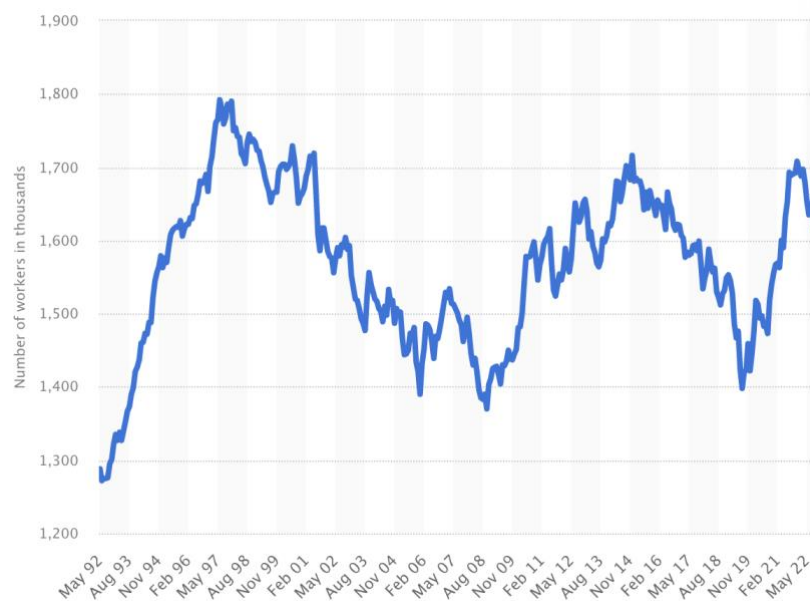
Table 4: The largest global staffing firms in 2021

Rank and name of Agency	Headquarters	2019 revenue (in billions)	Market share as of end 2021
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1. Randstad	Netherlands	\$21,842.6	4.5%
2. The Adecco Group	Switzerland	\$19,580.0	4.1%
3. Manpower Group	United States	\$16,391.0	3.4%
4. Recruit	Japan	\$11,287.7	2.3%
5. Allegis Group	United States	\$10,717.9	2.2%
6. Hays	United Kingdom	\$7,288.50	1.5%
7. Persol Holdings	Japan	\$6,659.80	1.4%
8. Kelly	United States	\$4,067.00	0.8%
9. Robert Half International	United States	\$3,847.40	0.8%
10. Outsourcing	Japan	\$3,436.10	0.7%

Figure 2 below illustrates the unpredictable fluctuations in demand for agency (Labour market trends) and the global 2008 recession (ONS, 2018). Another notable dip is 2019, this is due to a buoyant job market with a UK employment rate of 76.1%, the highest on record since 1971 meaning less demand for temporary agency workers (Source: Statistica, 2022). This reflects the three-factor theory of Jahn and Bentzen (2012).

Figure 2: Number of temporary agency workers in the UK from 1992-2022



In the UK, there are currently an estimated 1.65m temporary workers which is an increase of 63,000 on the previous year. This means that temporary workers represent 5.8% of the UK workforce. However, these figures include not only TAWs but fixed-term contracts, seasonal workers, and casual workers (SIA, 20 July 2022). As previously stated in chapter 1, TAWs accounted for 980,100 of the work force in 2021 (REC, 2021). Furthermore, 403,000 of all temporary workers were ‘temping’ whilst looking for a permanent job, 459,000 were not

looking for another role, 605,000 cited other reasons for temporary work and 186,000 had secured a contract with a period of training.

From the precarity perspective, and based on work of Standing (2016), individuals may turn to contractually inadequate temporary work or insecure job roles for three main reasons: Individual may be atavists – those who were working class and no longer have meaningful work; nostalgics – who are migrant workers or ethnically diverse having left home but unable to gain meaningful employment; or progressives – individuals who are educated and have no career trajectory. However, this perspective is problematic in its assumption of homogeneity (Manolchev, Saundry & Lewis, 2021). This notwithstanding, precarious work is popular, even with such reports as BMW Mini manufacturing in Oxford giving 80 temporary workers one hour's notice of the termination of their contracts and treating workers with contempt (BBC, 2009). This is just one example that highlights the precarity of temporary roles and the treatment workers receive.

2.4.3 The Role and Regulations of Agencies

The role of a temporary employment agency is essentially brokerage. The agency acts as an intermediary between a client organisation and an employee. However, the agency remains in the relationship unlike a permanent placement firm. Agencies in the UK were required to apply to the Department of Employment on an annual basis to acquire a 'licence to operate' up until 1995. As a result, data from this period shows over 9000 temporary employment agencies registered (Mintel, 1996). Despite such growth, the top 15 market leaders accounted for less than 10% of the market share. The market was negatively affected by the recession in the early 1990s and only began to recover after 1995 (Forde, 1998). In Italy and Spain, agency work has only been authorised since 1994 causing these services to operate covertly up until this date. The Netherlands, Germany, Belgium and France were far more established in comparison (SIA, July 2022).

In the UK the regulator is the Employment Agency Standards Inspectorate (EAS) and resides within the Department of Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy (BEIS). EAS is responsible for ensuring that agencies abide by a strict code of conduct laid down by the Employment Agencies Act (1973); The Conduct of Employment Agencies and Employment Business Regulations (2003) and more recently the Agency Workers Regulations (2010). Agency staff

are also included in IR13 of The Employment Relations Act (1999). An example of guidance by the EAS states that recruitment agencies cannot force prospective TAWs to pay for CV development or training, agencies cannot force TAWs to tell them if or where they are looking for work, prevent their TAWs working elsewhere or charge them for ‘work-finding’ services (EAS website, accessed Nov 2022).

The complexity of temporary agency work is heightened as the term ‘fixed-term contracts’ and ‘fixed-term workers’ are included under the category of temporary working in the UK. This is outlined in legislation (i.e., Employment Act, 2002) to prevent organisations exploiting workers through successively renewing fixed-term contracts. Instead, employers are expected to use ‘open-ended contracts’ which hold different employee rights. The legislation stipulated that open-ended contracts include agency workers. However, this remains complex as both Agency and client organisation are involved in the arrangement and the status of the contract and employee can become murky (Fudge & Strauss, 2016). Furthermore, many TAWs have reported issues asserting their employment rights as the law stipulates differences between ‘workers’ and ‘employees’ (Forde, 2001). By categorising temporary agency staff as ‘workers’ rather than ‘employees’, they do not share the same right of protection from redundancy procedures, unfair dismissal and even Trade Union support in some cases (Druker & Stanworth, 2001; Green, 2008).

In 2008, EU legislation brought in the Agency Workers Directive (2010) to increase the employee rights of agency workers. This was adopted in UK law in October 2011 and for temporary workers operating in a single assignment over a 12-week period, it provided them with comparable rights to permanent employees (Toms, 2014). The Directive is contentious as many organisations rely on the flexibility of temporary workforces as part of their organisational strategy. Felstead and Gallie (2004), for example state that some organisations create segmented workforces of permanent and temporary cohorts, ensuring that permanent employees are maintained often to the detriment of job security for temporary workers.

With such complexity aligned with rapid growth it is no wonder agencies need the translational arm of a governing body. In the UK, the dominant trade organisation in this sector is The Recruitment and Employment Confederation (REC). They represent and report on the recruitment industry as well as work with partners to strengthen recruitment standards. They provide business support, legal advice and a Code of Professional Practice (REC, 2022).

2.4.4 The Temporary Agency Worker

There are numerous reasons as to why an individual would choose temporary agency work, these include greater work flexibility, including not being tethered to one organisation, role or work pattern. This is particularly appealing to school leavers, Students, married and older individuals (UNISON, 17 August 2020). In a study of 42 temporary agency workers, reasons given for joining an Agency included work opportunities to school leavers, college students, the elderly, individuals going through a career transition, redundancy, retirement or relocating, and the long-term unemployed (Druker & Stanworth, 2004). Agency websites will typically promote the benefits to potential employees, which include the opportunity to gain experience, training and have greater control over work/life balance. In addition, the opportunity to gain a 'foot in the door' towards a desired career or organisation is also touted as an appealing proposition (Kirk & Belovics, 2008). However, Nollen (1996) found active selection of temporary agency work was only 10% and it is far more likely that individuals opt for temporary agency work as a source of income when other job opportunities are limited. This is somewhat supported by 2022 ONS data who found a third of TAWs found themselves 'temping' whilst looking for a permanent job role (ONS, 2022). A key feature of temporary agency work is the autonomy to refuse certain assignments, to take time off between assignments and have greater flexibility to accommodate changes in personal circumstances, for example caring responsibilities (Kelliher et al., 2019). Whilst 'head-hunter' activity is also part of many recruitment and agency services, this involves a one-off fee. However, placing a temporary agency worker into a client organisation is often an ongoing relationship, cyclical in nature due to administrative processes such as payroll and sourcing the successive assignments. There is also the option for The Client organisation to recruit the TAW to the organisation which will also command a contractual fee (Gonos, 1997, Fu, 2019).

The research remains rather limited as to whether temporary agency workers choose to work less hours than permanent workers or whether hours are limited by the Agency or client organisation? The nature of temporary work is largely unskilled labour or activity that resides within low-paid occupations (Burgess & Connell, 2006). Researchers know relatively little about the perceptions and behaviours of non-traditional workers. As previously stated, much of the emerging research in the 1980s and 90s focused on The Client organisation and their

reasons for using temporary workforces, rather than the perspective of the temporary agency worker (Liden et al., 2003).

2.4.5 Interrelationships of Temporary Agency Work

The contract between Agency and TAW is fundamental to the relationship. This dictates the conditions, protection and support a TAW will receive. Legislation in the UK dictates that the Agency must ensure their workers are not working more than 48 hours per week, this includes checking to verify if the worker is employed elsewhere. It is not usual for Agency workers to be on the books of more than one Agency (EAS, 2021). However, employment status and psychological contract can also become murky if a TAW remains at The Client organisation over an extended period (Schalk et al., 2010).

Competition between online and high street-based agencies is fierce, therefore it is vital for Agencies to forge strong relationships with potential clients (Fu, 2019). Recruitment Agents tend to be highly incentivised as a result. However, the Agent needs to secure the placement at a profit, therefore if the placement is for low-cost labour, the duration of the contract will be key (Rogers, 2000; Fudge & Strauss, 2016). In consideration of the tripartite arrangement, the relationship between the Agency and Client Organisation is of paramount importance. If the relationship were to break down, the Agency could be financially and reputationally compromised. Whereas the loss of a temporary agency worker is much less of a threat to the success of the Agency (Rogers, 2000; Forde et al., 2008). Paradoxically, Agencies are consistently keen to recruit quality workers onto their books to advertise to potential clients and/or reliably and efficiently service the contract with The Client Organisation (Pucell et al., 2014). Agency reputation and income are reliant on the quality of the workers supplied. According to Rogers (2000), from an Agency perspective servicing the contract often takes priority over the satisfaction and needs of the TAWs. However, legislation clearly outlines that the Agency and Client Organisation are legally obligated to ensure the health and safety of the temporary worker. The Agency is tasked with ensuring that The Client organisation has undertaken a health and safety assessment, the result of which must be shared with the Temporary Agency Worker. If this is ignored, the Agency may visit the site to conduct their own assessment (EAS, 2022).

In summation, given the current economic climate and heightened competition within the recruitment and Agency sector, the need to attract and source high quality temporary workers is great. TAWs are also vulnerable to economic fluctuation. From the perspective of The Client organisation their position is dominant within this dynamic. Understanding how to retain quality temporary workers and strengthen relationships is therefore an important objective of this thesis.

2.4.6 Working Conditions of Temporary Agency Workers

Thus far, this chapter has established the context of temporary workforces, defined the unique role of agency workers and their organisational and co-worker relationships. Within this context, TAWs face several issues, these include differences in treatment at work, conditions and experiences compared to permanent workers. Several issues frequently reported in the literature are discussed here. The first being work conditions.

The TUC reported that most temporary agency workers reporting issues with contracts are likely to be less qualified than the established workforce, young and from ethnic minority backgrounds. With English as a second language, many contracts and legal rights were not understood, and workers reported being charged for uniforms, accommodation and equipment by the Agency resulting in them receiving below the minimum wage (TUC, 2007).

One of the key issues for temporary agency workers centres around pay, this has been an ongoing issue despite advancements in legislation in the UK. Forde and Slater (2005) found a 22% wage gap between temporary and permanent workers in similar roles. Lower pay could be attributed to fierce competition amongst recruitment and temporary agencies to secure contacts with Client Organisations therefore positioning themselves as a lucrative proposition. However, in a 2005 survey by REC temporary agency workers reported that they did not feel undervalued or under-paid for their contribution (REC, 2005 as cited in Thomas & Berry, 2005; Jahn & Pozzoli, 2013).

Flexibility is often cited as a reason to undertake temporary agency work; however, it is unknown just how flexible this form of working is? For example, in a study by Druker and Stanworth (2004) of 49 temporary agency workers, many cited that flexibility on their terms and the intention to quit assignments they no longer wanted to be in, would likely negatively

affect the Agency's perception of them. This may damage the working relationship and diminish the quality and frequency of future assignments. This suggests that 'flexibility' is largely an illusion. Paradoxically, Rogers (2000) states that temporary agency workers are the ones who should be flexible to satisfy the needs of Client Organisation, Agency and job demands. Flexibility may be largely inconsequential to many temporary agency workers, instead the quality and nature of working relationships may be of paramount importance. Often renewal of contracts can depend on treatment and fairness (Druker & Stanworth, 2004).

Studies from the 1990s examining the collision between temporary and permanent workforces revealed mixed results. Where there were issues, many appeared to be caused or exacerbated by poor management practices. As well as perceived inequalities between temporary and permanent workers, a lack of adequate training and organisational knowledge can form an over-reliance on permanent colleagues generating resentment (Pearce, 1993; Forde & Slater, 2006). Studies such as these reinforce negative stereotypes of temporary staff and the belief that these individuals lack the work ethic of permanent employees. A further example is provided by Geary (1992), in a study of temporary agency workers in three Irish electrical firms, research showed that one firm had utilised temporary workers during peak production times. However, they were also low cost to the firm and the Agency had taken much of the administrative tasks away in the process, such as the recruitment (Geary, 1992). This was an unanticipated additional advantage to the firm. This notwithstanding, Geary (1992) noted hostility between permanent and temporary workers, exacerbated by an ambivalent management team and leading to temporary workers feeling mistreated. Instead of greater organisational flexibility, the hostility drove a wedge between permanent and temporary workers and created more structural rigidity.

An early noteworthy study by Atkinson and Meager (1986) examined 39 cases of organisations using temporary workers, in the main, the cases highlighted feelings of resentment towards temporary agency workers. Parker (1994) suggests that resentment and low morale is often driven by permanent employees perceiving temporary workers as a threat or challenge to their job security. However, others have found little evidence of poor working conditions. Storrie (2002) confirms that there is relatively little discrepancy in working conditions, however health and safety training by Agencies is often overlooked and the accident rate for temporary workers is slightly higher than permanent employees. Moreover, it could be argued that the discrepancy is due to temporary workforces being dominated by younger and perhaps more inexperienced

workers in unfamiliar manual jobs. From a psychological perspective, individuals can be influenced by groups norms and the notion of ‘in-groups’ and ‘out-groups’ in the workplace (Lucas, 2011). This may be driven by such actions as TAWs wearing bibs over the standard uniform to not only be easily identified, but subconsciously signal to co-workers their status. Manolchev et al., (2018) highlight the complexity of ingroup and outgroup factors for precarious workers in that employment conditions might be shared but moderated by subjectivity. Therefore, for greater cohesion, it is important that client organisations integrate temporary agency workers into their organisation as much as possible and maintain clear processes and communication channels for all.

2.4.7 Summary of Actors

A review of the existing literature thus far has highlighted several implications. Early literature into temporary workforces focused on the perspective of The Client organisation, why they chose to use these workers and the outcomes as a result (Green, 2008). Temporary agency workers provide organisations with several advantages, including the ability to meet demand during peak trade, to maintain key roles in the absence of permanent employees, specialist provision for unique projects and HRM services via the agency to recruit and administer payroll (Abraham, 1990, Fu, 2019). Furthermore, poorly performing temporary workers can be dismissed and replaced by the Agency alleviating The Client organisation of such issues. Alternatively, quality temporary workers can be identified as potential candidates for permanent roles within The Client organisation (Machon, 2006).

However, the use of temporary workers is not without contention and studies show that hostility and division can manifest between permanent and temporary staff (Geary, 1992). Insecurity can be brought about over concerns around job security, low-cost labour and fairness. As a result, instead of flexible structures within the organisation, additional rigidity inflates working processes and practices (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). The role of the management is vital to diminishing hostility and integrating temporary workers alongside permanent colleagues. It is therefore important to investigate further the antecedents towards engaged employees as well as the potential outcomes (Jahn & Bentzen, 2012). From an Agency perspective, they actively seek new market opportunities and are responsive to the influences of supply and demand. Agencies mediate between Client organisations and temporary agency

workers as well as recruit, monitor, administer contracts and payroll (Creat, 2005). This suggests their role is constantly proactive rather than a passive broker residing in the background. Retention of quality workers is important to the appeal and success of Agency performance and to winning contracts with Client organisations. Competition is incredibly tough between Agencies touting for the same business. Therefore, identifying activity that can enhance the engagement and commitment as well as reduce turnover intention in temporary workers is important. The interplay between all three actors remains an area in need of further research, whilst motivations are more established in the literature, the nature of these relationships warrants further exploration. The barriers and drivers of such relationships is an important contribution to the literature and holds practical implications for the industry.

2.5 Introduction to Employee Engagement

Employee engagement is recognised as an important component in workplace behaviour with positive employee engagement leading to greater wellbeing, increased organisational, employee performance and reduced attrition rates (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Hakanen et al. 2012). Moreover, from an organisational perspective, employee engagement enables organisations to have a competitive advantage over rivals through greater job performance, leading to revenue growth, increased customer satisfaction, productivity, innovation, knowledge, and profitability (Christian et al., 2010; Gelade & Young, 2005; Ngwenya & Pelser, 2020; Rich et al., 2010). Therefore, it is an important construct in organisational research.

Within an organisation, employees may experience external forces such as the conditions supporting their emotional wellbeing, social interaction, as well opportunities for physical exercise (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources have also been shown to increase an individual's motivation. For example, training opportunities, study leave, new skills acquisition have been shown to benefit both the individual and the capabilities of the organisation (Hakanen et al., 2019). All these forces have the capacity to influence employees cognitive, behavioural, and psychological attitudes positively or negatively towards their employer. Therefore, organisations need to be aware of such forces to maximise gains in terms of profit, reputation, and performance (Ngwenya & Pelser, 2020).

In terms of employee outcomes, engagement has been positively linked to reduced turnover, lower levels of absence, improved teamwork, job performance, less safety incidents, increased wellbeing, reduced absenteeism, attrition, and increased job satisfaction (Albrecht, 2010; Kompaso & Srivdevi, 2010; Lee & Ok, 2016; Turner, 2020). Perhaps less tangibly aligned with high levels of engagement are those behaviours which are not conspicuous, such as seeking new opportunities for the organisation or making incremental improvements in particular tasks or roles. The phenomena of employees actively searching for ways of improving ‘life’ at the organisation, are in no way less important than explicit efforts (Robinson, et al., 2004). The construct of employee engagement sits within a broad landscape of literature and is multidimensional in scope. Complexity begins with the construct being attributed to emotions, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings by researchers (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich et al., 2010; Wu & Wu, 2019). Although, alternative perceptions of employee engagement have since emerged, such as Maslach’s (2001) view that engagement is the antithesis of burnout or Barrick et al’s., (2015) approach of collective organisational engagement. These have emerged since Kahn’s (1990) seminal article addressing the infancy of employee engagement as a research area. The employee engagement literature continues to grow exponentially, and the field remains without consensus of an agreed definition (Saks & Gruman, 2014). This will be discussed in more detail in section 2.6.

While employee engagement may seem to be a rather obvious concept amongst workplace behaviours, it was not until Kahn’s research into employee engagement during the late 1980s and early 1990s that the concept of employee engagement started to gain momentum. Until this point, the literature was extremely sparse (Shuck, 2011). Most of the research into this area has been produced since 2000 onwards and with traditional workers as its key focus. Researchers argue that the contribution of employee engagement is significant to managerial practice and human resource applications (Halbesleben, 2010; Harter et al., 2002; Young et al., 2018). Furthermore, Macy and Schneider (2008) highlighted that the academic community had been hesitant to embrace practitioner engagement and the restricted research that had been published in reputable sources suggested there were limited rigorously tested theories on this concept (Saks, 2008). In 2008, Saks declared that the empirical basis of employee engagement was only recently emerging since 2003, having been predicated on the development of further engagement theory and more rigorous measurement tools. Despite significant advances in the empirical literature since 2008, in 2014 Saks and Gruman stated it remained an emerging area of organisational research warranting further exploration.

From a policy perspective, the UK government-commissioned report by MacLeod and Clarke (2015) “Engaging for Success” explored the concept of employee engagement and its impact on business productivity, performance and wellbeing. The report highlighted that high levels of employee engagement can lead to increased innovation, customer satisfaction and profitability. The report went on to identify four key enablers of employee engagement, namely leadership, employee voice, organisational integrity and line manager capabilities. This emphasises the importance of creating a culture of continuous improvement, with regular feedback and recognition, to sustain high levels of employee engagement (MacLeod & Clarke, 2015). The role of the line manager as a key enabler link to the work on perceived supervisor support (Eisenberger et al, 2008) and the employee voice to organisational justice to the wider academic literature (Edezaro, 2022).

MacLeod and Clarke (2015) propose a framework for action, consisting of four components, these comprise of engaging leaders, managers, employees and measuring engagement levels. The report goes on to share examples of successful case studies which include targeted engagement initiatives such as employee involvement programmes, performance management systems and reward and recognition schemes. This is also reflected in a conceptual paper by Albrecht (2010) who argues that leadership play a critical role in fostering employee engagement going on to suggest that the employee voice needs to access receptive portals of a supportive organisational culture. Albrecht (2010) posits that employers should focus on promoting autonomy, providing opportunities for growth and development of employees along with reward and recognition for performance. However, he questions whether employee engagement can be sustained over time, particularly in the face of organisational change and uncertainty. Overall MacLeod and Clarke’s (2015) report argues that employee engagement is a critical factor in achieving sustainable business success and that organisations must prioritise and invest in engagement activities to create a more fulfilled and productive workforce.

The work of MacLeod and Clarke (2015) further highlight the importance of the construct and add texture to the debate as to how engagement may impact different workforces and whether the same components of engagement affect all employees? Employee engagement in temporary settings is brought into question, as the construct itself has been shown to have implications for productivity and retention amongst other cognitive, behavioural, and psychological outcomes (Crawford, 2010; Rich et al., 2011). Many existing frameworks which

explore such constructs are predicated on the findings of permanent or traditional employees and do not account for the unique characteristics of temporary workforces (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Ma et al., 2019). For example, job autonomy is likely to be limited for temporary workers as they are typically employed to undertake tasks that lend themselves to repetition, performance monitoring and targets (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Parker et al., 2002). Low autonomy has been shown to affect the transactional nature of psychological contracts, increase job insecurity and decrease organisational commitment and job satisfaction (De Cuyper et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2019; Mauno, et al., 2005). Moreover, temporary workers are more likely to hold psychological contracts of a transactional nature and therefore reward and recognition may be a stronger factor in their overall job satisfaction and commitment (Basu & Dutta, 2019). Such nuances highlight the need for further exploration into the perceptions and experiences of temporary workers.

2.6 Defining Employee Engagement

There are several complexities to consider when examining employee engagement, the main issue being that a universal definition of this construct is without consensus (Shuck, 2011; Saks & Gruman, 2017). Further problems arise due to the construct of employee engagement being rather broad in nature, for example the shared use of various terms for engagement used in the extant literature, from work engagement, job engagement, personal engagement, and role engagement (see Table 5 of definitions) and some claims of overlapping elements with organisational commitment (Shrotryia & Dhanda, 2018).

Casting a lens on the evolution of the construct, Khan (1990) formulated the first widely accepted definition of employee engagement, expressing it as “the harnessing of organisation members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances” (Khan, 1990 p.694). Kahn termed employee engagement as ‘*personal engagement*’ (also referred to as ‘*workplace engagement*’) (Kahn, 1992). This observed engagement as a personal construct, as experienced by the individual (May et al., 2004). Personal engagement consisted of the psychological markers of cognitive, emotional, and physical components being activated by the individual’s performance at work (Kahn, 1990). Moreover, Khan went on to address the notion of disengagement to support his definition further, stating that it was “the uncoupling of selves from work roles; in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically,

cognitively, or emotionally” (Khan, 1990 p. 694). In other words, when an individual is engaged, they give themselves emotionally, physically, and cognitively to the work and withdrawal uncouples them for the role at an emotional, physical, and cognitive level. Khan was keen to stress that this is not an ‘either or’ situation, employees tend to vary in their degrees of engagement. However, the greater the engagement, the greater the role performance (Khan, 1992).

According to Guest (2014) Khan’s (1990) theory landed with little impact initially and did not spur many subsequent studies until engagement grew in interest over a decade later. This notwithstanding, Khan’s seminal work remains the foundation of many theories, frameworks, and measures (Bailey et al., 2017). His definition suggests an important contribution of personal agency within work engagement and conscious decision-making as to the degree an individual will contribute to job performance, hence attention and absorption are central to work engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014).

Later, Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, (2001) placed a different emphasis on the construct and used the term ‘*employee engagement*’ rather than *personal engagement* or *workplace engagement*. They posited that engagement was diametrically opposed to employee burnout arguing that an employee cannot be engaged if they are experiencing burnout. Burnout comprises of withdrawal from the work and exhaustion (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005). A year later, Schaufeli et al., (2002) clarified their definition of ‘*work engagement*’, underpinned by the work of Maslach et al., (2001) their position reflected work engagement being the antithesis of burnout. Whereas Kahn (1990) took a holistic view of employee engagement, Schaufeli et al., (2002) omitted the contribution of cognitive engagement in their definition, instead citing *vigour*, *dedication*, and *absorption* as its key components. In other words, individuals with enthusiasm, immersion in their work, high energy levels and resilience typically represent positive work engagement.

Since this work, several studies have demonstrated the divergent influence of *absorption* showing that individuals can feel burnout yet remain engaged, thus conflicting with Maslach et al., (2001) position (Segura & Gonzalez-Roma, 2003; Schaufeli, Taris & van Rhenen, 2008; Halbesleben, 2010).

Further issues in employee engagement are outlined by Saks and Gruman (2014) who suggest the issue of defining engagement is exacerbated by overlaps with well-established constructs such as organisational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction and even job burnout. Macey and Schneider (2008) blur the debate further by alluding to the concept of employee engagement as the rebranding of other constructs (also known as the jangle fallacy). The debate as to whether employee engagement encompasses elements of other constructs such as organisational commitment is not new (Saks & Gruman, 2014; Shortryia & Dhanda, 2018). However, Saks (2008) argues that Macey and Schneider (2008) entangle state, behavioural and trait into one broader, less defined concept of engagement. This has repercussions for the future focus of engagement research and its measurement tools. Saks (2008) goes on to challenge this view and state that employee engagement is a distinct construct and not a concoction of affiliated older constructs. By failing to recognise engagement as an independent construct with its own characteristics, then researchers risk further issues with definition and measurement, essentially perpetuating the notion that “engagement is nothing more than old wine in a new bottle” (Saks, 2008 p. 40)

Later, Rich et al., (2010) was seen to adopt the term ‘*job engagement*’ in their engagement research and built upon Kahn’s position, that engagement is based on the complete self being present at work. They support the notion that job engagement is a separate construct to some conceptual overlaps, for example they make the distinction between the constructs of job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation at work, job involvement and engagement. The relationships between these constructs and performance were fully mediated by engagement, therefore defining engagement as a unique construct. Through their research, Rich et al., (2010) supported the notion that engagement involves the whole self being involved in role performance. Moreover, it builds on the claims of Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006) who identified organisational commitment, job involvement and work engagement as independent constructs with work engagement standing out as a unique construct. In pursuit of clarity, several researchers have attempted to present engagement as a unique and wholly distinct construct. This is usually done by making stark comparisons between other constructs such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Shuck, 2011).

In parallel to Rich et al., (2010), Shuck and Woollard (2010) are widely cited in the extant literature, preferring the term ‘*employee engagement*’ and define engagement as “an individual employee’s cognitive, emotional, and behavioural state directed toward desired organisational

outcomes” (Shuck & Woolard, 2010 p.103). This stems from the positive psychology movement and motivational theories of Maslow (1954) and Vroom’s Expectancy Theory (1962). The authors highlight a different set of behavioural outcomes with a focus on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) because of an employee’s cognitive, behavioural, and emotional investment increasing employee engagement.

Albrecht (2010) adopts Schaufeli et al’s., (2002) definition in the main whilst acknowledging that employee engagement is multidimensional in nature (see table 5). Albrecht provides a theoretical roadmap by exploring ten key questions related to the antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement. These question our ability to measure the construct effectively, with a call for further research to create reliable and valid measures. The relationship between employee engagement and contextual factors is complex and Albrecht echo’s Kahn’s (1990) position that employee engagement is not a static construct but is influenced by changing situational nuances over time. Furthermore, the construct of employee engagement may also differ across cultures and countries, therefore the consensus of an agreed definition is an important debate and remains ongoing.

Following on from this, Christian et al’s., (2011) ‘*work engagement*’ definition outlines the construct as “a relatively enduring state of mind referring to the simultaneous investment of personal energies in the experience or performance of work” (Christian et al., 2011 p.95). They focus on state versus trait in the engagement debate and find that engagement is relatively stable over time. This relative stability appears to contrast with Kahn’s (1990) notion of engagement existing in an ‘ebb and flow’ state of personal engagement levels. More recently, limited research has emerged citing the term ‘*collective organisational engagement*’ which is defined as “the shared perceptions of organisational members that members of the organisation are, as a whole, physically, cognitively, and emotionally invested in their work” (Barrick et al., 2015 p. 113). This examines employee engagement from the perspective of the organisation rather than the individual. However, at its source the individual must form a personal perspective of engagement, the collective element is only ascertained with the aggregation of individual responses (Garcia et al., 2013). This is not the focus of this thesis; however, it is a refreshing perspective that may warrant further exploration in future research.

Most of the engagement literature has focused on ‘*work engagement*’ which includes job engagement and typically refers to the individual’s relationship with their task or job role.

Employee engagement is also a common term and can encompass job and organisation engagement. This term is used to describe organisational identity and relationships with the job, profession, and organisation (Saks & Gruman, 2014).

In 2006, the field saw the first multidimensional model of engagement appear. Saks (2006) built upon Kahn's (1990) theory and through the conceptual vehicle of social exchange theory, proposed employee engagement could be observed from an individual's 'job engagement' and from their 'organisation engagement'. This positioned workplace engagement as two distinctly different forms of engagement in one conceptual framework (Baily et al., 2017). The study propelled the idea that employees can be engaged with certain tasks and not others, therefore the notion of how much the individual brings 'self' to the role varies (Newton et al., 2020). An individual may also be very 'team engaged' and yet reject 'organisation engagement', such distinctions may also cause individuals to perceive other teams as 'out groups' (Waller, 2020). Khan (1990) believed that engagement fluctuates, and this may explain why Saks (2006) may have built on this theory. Social identity theory may also explain why an individual might refrain from investing their whole self into areas of the role where they encounter members outside of the team (von Hippel & Kalokerinos, 2012). This is particularly pertinent for temporary workers who may be more prone to in-group and out-group experiences. To add greater complexity, individuals may also report being 'socially engaged' with colleagues and the organisation (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011; Soane et al., 2012). With so many variations of engagement in existence, it is important for researchers to clearly state the form of engagement under examination (e.g., task engagement, social engagement, organisation engagement).

A systematic review of employee engagement literature by Bailey et al. (2017) discovered six key definitions of engagement amongst 214 robust studies. The findings of the review showed that Khan's (1990) original perspective of qualitative *personal role engagement* was no longer the dominant focus, instead the field had moved away from the idea of engagement as a fluctuating state. In place was the dominant Utrecht Group who determined that engagement was more of an attitudinal steady state that could be observed through quantitative measures. Such is the support for this theory, 86% of studies based their research on the definition proposed by the Utrecht work engagement researchers as "a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004 p.4). This paradigm shift in perspective was thought to be brought about by the overflow of theories and concepts from psychology infiltrating the

disciplines of business and management (Godard, 2014). The influence of the Utrecht work engagement scale will be discussed further in section 2.20.1.

This notwithstanding, the multidimensional engagement model by Saks (2006) presents a unique proposition by separating organisational engagement and job engagement under the umbrella of employee engagement. Significant differences between these two constructs and their interactions with antecedents and outcomes were shown in this study and have since been supported since (e.g., Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Biswas, Varma & Ramaswami, 2013;). This research demonstrates that it is possible for individuals to be engaged with their job role and not the organisation and vice versa. This is a particularly important concept to consider in terms of TAWs due to the potential influence of their dual relationships with agency and client organisation. It suggests that there is scope for an individual to be engaged with The Client organisation and not the assignment (and vice versa).

In summation, the table below (Table 5) shows the emergence of the construct of engagement since Kahn's (1990) seminal work. Many researchers acknowledge their attempts to build upon Kahn's holistic perspective of workplace engagement (Saks, 2006; Rich et al., 2010; Schuck & Woolard, 2010; Christian et al, 2011). Alternatively, Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) took a different approach and embedded their concept of employee engagement in the burnout literature. This takes the position that engagement is the antithesis of burnout. A view supported by Schaufeli et al., (2002). Inspired by Kahn and underpinned by the theory of social exchange, Saks (2006) was the first author to distinguish and show job engagement and organisation engagement as two distinct constructs, thus creating a multi-dimensional model of employee engagement.

Rich et al., (2010) went on use the term job engagement alongside Kahn's holistic perspective of the employee bringing the entire 'self' to work. Schuck and Wollard (2010) highlight their definition of employee engagement as embedded in the positive psychology movement and as a motivational state. Following on from this, Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011) addresses the issue of 'state' versus 'trait' in work engagement. They argue that engagement tends to be a stable process and it is the individual's state of mind that endures. This is underpinned by a psychological link to the job role and an investment of the individual's personal resources into the job. The more an employee brings 'self' into their role and more consistent their level of engagement. Finally, the notion of collective organisational engagement is less researched,

however it offers a new perspective on workplace engagement. Whereas the previous body of knowledge focused on individual perspectives, collective organisational engagement posits that individual's observe and perceive their colleagues engaged in their tasks and job roles and by social contagion are more likely to experience higher levels of engagement. There is limited research in this area, and it would not be appropriate for this thesis to consider it as an option. However further reading can be found (Barrick et al., 2015; Garcia et al., 2013).

Table 5: Summarised key definitions from the engagement literature

Citation	Concept	Definition	Theoretical Relevance
Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. <i>Academy of management journal</i> , 33(4), 692-724.	Personal engagement/Workplace engagement <i>Adopted by:</i> May et al., 2004	“the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s preferred self in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional) and active, full performances” (1990 p.700)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First definition presented in the literature • Whole self is present in work performance • Psychologically connected to role and task performance • Connected to work and colleagues • Engagement is a motivational and multidimensional construct • Acknowledges all aspects of self
Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. <i>Annual review of psychology</i> , 52, 397-422.	Employee engagement <i>Adopted by:</i> Harter et al., 2002; Graban, 2016; Albrecht, Breidahl & Marty, 2018)	“a persistent positive affective state that is characterised by high levels of activation and pleasure” (Maslach et al., 2001 p. 417)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stems from the burnout literature • Views engagement as the antithesis of burnout • Used engagement items as reverse score items in their measure for burnout • Believes an individual with burnout must not be engaged • Engagement characterised by continual positive mental state and high arousal
Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. <i>Journal of Happiness studies</i> , 3(1), 71-92.	Work engagement <i>Adopted by:</i> Salanova et al., 2005; Hakenen et al., 2019; Mauno et al., 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2013; Bakker, 2011; Bakker & Albrecht, 2018; Lee et al., 2019.	“Positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption” (Schaufeli et al., 2002 p. 74)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resides with positive psychology • Vigour, dedication and absorption reflected in the measure of UWES • Does not acknowledge cognitive engagement • Argues engagement and burnout are independent constructs. However, they support that burnout is opposite to engagement
Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2003). Utrecht work engagement scale: Preliminary manual. <i>Occupational Health Psychology Unit, Utrecht University, Utrecht</i> , 26(1), 64-100	Work engagement	“a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003 p.4).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definition underpins the popular UWES work engagement measure • Reflective of Maslach et al., (2001) theory that engagement is the opposite of burnout.
Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. <i>Journal of</i>	Job engagement and Organisational engagement <i>Adopted by:</i> Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Ruck, Welch	“a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components that are associated with individual role performance” (Saks, 2006 p. 602)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developed through Kahn’s work and SET • First to separate job and organisational engagement • Individual has the role of employee and as a member of the organisation hence two forms of engagement

<i>managerial psychology</i> , 21(7), 600-619.	& Menara, 2017; Akingbola & Van den Berg, 2019.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Highlights distinctiveness from related constructs • Personal resources contribute to the job role (also seen in Kahn's theory, 1990 and Schufeli et al. 2002 definition)
Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. <i>Academy of Management</i> 53(3), 617-635.	Job engagement Adopted by: Anaza & Rutherford, 2012; Saks, 2019	“a multidimensional motivational concept reflecting the simultaneous investment of an individual's physical, cognitive, and emotional energy in active, full work performance” (Rich et al., 2010 p. 619)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Builds on Kahn's definition (1990) • Engagement is based on complete self, whereas other components such as job involvement represent more delineated fragments of an individual's behaviour.
Shuck, M. B., & Wollard, K. (2010). Employee engagement & HRD: A seminal review of the foundations. <i>Human Resource Development Review</i> , 9(1), 89-110	Employee engagement Adopted by: Harter et al., 2002; Graban, 2016; Albrecht, Breidahl & Marty, 2018)	“an individual employee's cognitive, emotional, and behavioural state directed toward desired organisational outcomes” (Shuck & Woolard, 2010 p.103)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive psychology movement • Engagement as a motivational state • Behavioural outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour occur due to positive employee engagement • Based on Kahn's perspective of work engagement
Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. E. (2011). Work engagement: A quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. <i>Personnel Psychology</i> , 64(1), 89-136.	Work engagement Adopted by: Salanova et al., 2005; Hakenen et al., 2019; Mauno et al., 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2013; Bakker, 2011; Bakker & Albrecht, 2018; Lee et al., 2019.	“a relatively enduring state of mind referring to the simultaneous investment of personal energies in the experience or performance of work” (Christian et al., 2011 p.95)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accounts for 'state' versus 'trait' having observed that engagement literature sees it as a stable condition • Reflects Kahn's position that levels of engagement tend to 'ebb and flow' and viewed as state of mind that endures • Engagement is broad but can be distinguished from other related constructs e.g., commitment, job involvement • Characteristics of engagement include a psychological link to tasks and performance; the investment of personal resources; state over trait.
Barrick, M. R., Thurgood, G. R., Smith, T. A., & Courtright, S. H. (2015). Collective organisational engagement: Linking motivational antecedents, strategic implementation, and firm performance. <i>Academy of Management</i> , 58(1), 111-135.	Collective organisational engagement Adopted by: Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005; Gracia et al., 2013	“the shared perceptions of organisational members that members of the organisation are, as a whole, physically, cognitively, and emotionally invested in their work” (Barrick et al., 2015 p. 113)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goes beyond individual engagement, focuses on engagement at an organisational level • Colleagues perceive others as engaged, so invest themselves into work roles • A shared sense of levels of engagement occurs because of social and affective perceptions – contagious • Engagement is an organisation-level indication of the motivational climate • Such perceptions involve individual psychological processes at its foundation

There remains no universally accepted theory of employee engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Given the broad concept of engagement, it is important for researchers to clearly define which aspect of employee engagement they are exploring. Universally, engagement will involve the application of cognitive, emotional, and physical effort in work, whether it be to the job itself or the organisation (Lesener et al., 2020). Therefore, much of what we know about employee engagement is through observable behaviour such as individual initiative or organisational citizenship behaviour and job performance or through reporting measures and disposition (job satisfaction, organisational commitment). As a result, employee engagement tends to be attributed to certain working conditions, a psychological state or as a behavioural outcome (Rich et al. 2010; Lesener et al. 2020).

2.7 The Definition Adopted in this Study

The terms of employee and work engagement suggest research from alternate perspectives, for example the use of *work engagement* is popular because it is based on the UWES measure, the most popular measure of engagement in the literature (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011; Baily et al., 2017). It is argued this definition is operational as opposed to conceptual, with *work engagement* reflecting the relationship of the employee to their work. However, according to Schaufeli and Salanova (2011), employee engagement is all encompassing to include the employee's relationship to their job role, organisation, and professional profile. Therefore, employee engagement can be used as an umbrella term. We see this in the engagement model of Saks (2006) which houses the concept of job engagement and organisation engagement within employee engagement.

The use of the Maslach et al., (2001) and Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) definitions are rejected for this study, these are founded on the burnout literature with engagement being diametrically opposed to burnout. Therefore, low scores seen in engagement measures indicate burnout and vice versa (Demerouti et al., 2003). Psychologically, this inverse relationship is oversimplified, as different forms of engagement are not accounted for. A meta-analysis by Halbesleben (2010) showed that correlations between burnout and work engagement varied from -.24 to -.65, some way from -1.0 which would demonstrate a more compelling case for the constructs being ideal counterparts. (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011). The burnout position held by Maslach et al., (2001) and the state versus trait proposed by Christian et al., (2011) is less applicable due to the flexible nature of temporary workers.

The idea of engagement as a collective experience takes the field in a different direction in that it casts a lens on the organisation perspective. The notion of a ‘climate of engagement’ within organisations is still under researched (Bakker et al., 2011). Findings are typically based on the aggregation of individual scores, however Schaufeli and Salanova (2011) argue that a multilevel analysis would be far more appropriate to determine the nuances within collectives and how these impact individuals. Collective organisational engagement is not the focus of this research, and this definition is therefore rejected.

Evidence shows that it is possible for individuals to be engaged with their job role and not the organisation and vice versa (Saks, 2005, Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019). Saks’ definition builds upon the pedigree of Khan’s holistic view in that one cannot be engaged without all of ‘self’ being affected in some way however this is prone to fluctuation. In consideration of social exchange theory (SET) being at the heart of Khan and Saks’ position, TAWs are governed by dual relationships (Agency and client organisation), it is therefore likely that they are exposed to different forms of reciprocity and engagement. In consideration of this and the wider extant literature along with the theoretical underpinnings, this study adopts the multidimensional definition of employee engagement as outlined by Saks’ in that engagement is “a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components that are associated with individual role performance” (Saks, 2006, p. 602).

2.8 States of Employee Engagement

As outlined in the scope of definitions, employee engagement is a concept that lends itself to consideration of a psychological state which includes cognitive and emotional processes, and as a behavioural state which can be observed because of engagement (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). As noted in table 5, not all theoretical positions encompass a holistic view of employee engagement.

2.8.1 Employee Engagement as a Psychological State

Khan (1990) was one of the first researchers to acknowledge the notion of psychological presence in employee engagement. Individuals may draw upon aspects of their personal selves in the workplace, this includes the freedom to express ideas, feelings, to innovate and question assumptions. From this perspective, job engagement is therefore connected to emotional, cognitive, and physical aspects of self. Khan proposed that engagement is the “harnessing of

organisation members (preferred) selves to their work roles” (Khan, 1990 p. 694). He acknowledged that engagement levels fluctuated between whole self-engagement and disengagement. According to Kahn (1992) engagement is governed by the components of *absorption* and *attention*.

Absorption refers to an intrinsic motivation towards the job role, whereas attention implies the level of intensity and focus on a job role. Research observing role conflict suggests that a strain on attention can negatively affect absorption and vice versa (Rothbard & Patil, 2011). Khan (1992) states that employees are more likely to be present and engaged when they have clear communication, resources and know the employer’s expectations of them. Moreover, psychological presence is enhanced when employees feel trust amongst co-workers and that their role has a positive impact on organisational outcomes. If employees have opportunities to develop and improve their performance then these are likely to increase engagement (Jena, Pradhan & Panigrahy, 2018).

2.8.2 Employee Engagement as a Behavioural Outcome

Although several studies take the approach of engagement being a behavioural or composite attitudinal construct, Bailey et al., (2017) argue that most of the research reviewed does not meet construct reliability and validity. However, Swanberg et al., (2011) applied items that measured emotional and cognitive engagement and included behavioural engagement, thus expanding upon the Utrecht definition of engagement and was able to demonstrate sound validity and reliability. Stumpf, Tymon and Van Dam (2013) created a measure of behavioural engagement (9 items) and felt engagement (5 items). They found that both constructs were unique and their relationships to outcomes were different. Their results reflected engagement outcomes found in studies from different cultures and countries felt engagement was found to be the strongest predictor of turnover intention and affective outcomes such as organisational satisfaction, innovation, and career success, whereas behavioural engagement turned out to be the strongest predictor of team performance at one point in time and when revisited. This suggests the measure has longitudinal properties. The study was run across several countries and showed good validity and reliability. This research shows support for the multidimensionality of engagement. It further adds to the scope of Khan’s (1990) influence on engagement.

All this debate suggests engagement remains complex and further analysis reveals it can take many forms, have several origins and outcomes. What we know about engagement can be enhanced by understanding the antecedents and consequences of engagement in its various forms (Bailey et al., 2017). For example, behavioural outcomes of employee engagement are often observed through constructs such as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and personal initiative (Fay & Frese, 2001; Uddin, Mahmood & Fan, 2018). Engagement can also be inferred through discretionary efforts outside of the individual's job description. Such efforts are therefore unlikely to be formally rewarded. The literature on OCB has more recently included behaviour aligned with contextual performance, these are behaviours that elevate the psychological and social environment (Campbell Pickford & Joy, 2016). It is therefore permissible to analyse employee engagement based on a mix of both psychological and behavioural antecedents and outcomes.

2.9 Key Theories of Employee Engagement

Given the complexities surrounding the variety of definitions, it is unsurprising that the research space of employee engagement is vast and complex. When examining the existing research into employee engagement from a temporary agency worker perspective, the lens narrows significantly (Jiang & Wang, 2018). It is important to identify the underpinning theoretical basis for the development of not only employee engagement, but to consider the key constructs associated with engagement behaviours and attitudes in the context of TAWs.

However, prior to this, when discussing theory, there is contentious debate as to what constitutes 'a theory' particularly within the behavioural sciences (Schultz, 1962; Bryne & Callaghan, 2013). Sutton and Straw (1995) suggest it is 'a statement of concepts and their interrelationships that shows how and/or why a phenomenon occurs' however, in acknowledgement of their definition they also state that is it easier to discuss what theory is not. They propose that theory is not lists, data, references, diagrams or even predictions. Instead, a theory may house a prediction, but that prediction is not in itself theory. Moreover, it must make a significant contribution to the field and advance knowledge and understanding of interactionists and concepts. It should have utility and originality (Coley & Gioia, 2011). There is a limit to what science can categorise as 'theory', for example Shapin (1995) states that science favours an epistemological position based on 'facts' rather than opinions however, theories also offer possibilities, intentions and explanations to a greater to lesser extent. Kuhn

(1962) argued that outcomes are often not wholly scientific, but the result of social processes which should not be dissuaded. Stewart, Harte and Sambrook (2011) argue that this is particularly important for the field of human resource development, and by affiliation organisational behaviour.

The predicament of dichotomy in social science research and theory is addressed by Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) who propose mixed methods research as a solution to demystifying differences between theoretical frameworks and theories. They state that theoretical frameworks (also referred to as *paradigms*) are “a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts, or propositions that orientate thinking and research” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998 p.22). Comparing this to the OED definition of a theory as “a supposition or a system of ideas intended to explain something...especially one based on general principles independent of the thing to be explained”, it is clear to see why some ideas and concepts remain debated as to whether they are frameworks or indeed theories (Popper & Hansen, 2014). The Oxford English Dictionary’s (OED) definition suggests that theory attempts to position an idea or set of ideas and not just one instance (Stewart, Harte & Sambrook, 2011; OED, 2022). Delving further into the literature on theory, Wacker (1998) states that theory consists of four elements which include definitions for its variables, a specific area of focus, several related variables and predicted outcomes or claims. The concept of theory is reflective of scientific approaches and the principles and rules by which we investigate the world. In general terms, theory tries to account for phenomena predicated on how we test and correct during our systematic observation (Popper & Hansen, 2014; Stewart, Harte & Sambrook, 2011).

There are several well-established theories that feature in the empirical literature on work engagement. More recently, organisational behaviour researchers have acknowledged the ever-increasing importance of temporary workforces (Findley & Thompson, 2019; Kelliher et al., 2019). Analysis of TAW research shows several key theoretical propositions. These theoretical propositions are heavily laced throughout the established body of traditional employee literature. The appearance of the same theoretical basis in temporary worker research is interesting and worthy of further exploration. Therefore, it is important to explore the application of existing dominant models in new contexts. This chapter will focus on the most prevalent theoretical frameworks: Social Exchange Theory (SET), Social Identity Theory (SIT), Self-Categorisation Theory (SCT), Work Engagement Theory, Conservation of Resources (CoR), and Job Demand-Resource (JD-R) theory. These theories underpin and

inform the most documented measures of employee engagement (Bailey et al., 2017). First, we begin with the prevalent theoretical framework of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

2.10 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (SET) is one of the most prolific theories underpinning the engagement literature (Bailey et al. 2017). In this context, the theory proposes that the act of reciprocity exists in the workplace between employer and employee. As a result, reciprocal behaviours tend to generate a sense of future obligation. These may not be verbalised or even specified; however, the psychology of reciprocity is created and can even act as a predictor of future behaviour particularly in economic environments (Blau, 1964). Predicated on the notion of a human need to avoid unwanted social costs and reinforce desired rewards, namely support. Support can be material or nonmaterial and received from individuals or in the case of employees, the organisation (Chernyak-Hai & Rabenu, 2018). For example, support is given by the employee in terms of effort whereas the organisation may reciprocate with reward and recognition. From a psychological position, there is a 'norm of reciprocity at play that stems from individuals calculating anticipated rewards and the cost associated with certain behaviours and interactions (Quratulain et al., 2018). Therefore, certain workplace behaviours can be influenced and even predicted by an individual's expectations of reward (Slattery et al., 2010). As well as economic relationships, based on explicit contractual obligations, there exists the basis of social exchange relationships which are characterised by a shared identity, loyalty, and emotional attachments (Masterson et al., 2000; Camerman, et al., 2007). Furthermore, De Cuyper et al. (2008) state that SET is informed by perceived fairness through social comparison processes. This is particularly important for temporary agency workers (TAWs) who may be more sensitive to social comparison than co-workers in permanent job roles (Martinez, De Cuyper & De Witte, 2010).

The norm of reciprocity may also present itself in the form of attitudes, values and beliefs (Leon & Baskin, 2022). Employees with positive attitudes are more likely to experience high job satisfaction, remain motivated, have the intention to remain with the organisation and demonstrate high levels of organisational commitment (Avey et al., 2011). Furthermore, employees in this position may extend positive reciprocation beyond the employer, in this case temporary agency workers who receive a reward or recognition from The Client organisation may in turn, reciprocate towards the Agency or vice versa (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi,

2001). Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) state that SET is arguably the most appropriate conceptual paradigm for researchers examining organisational behaviour. In their interdisciplinary review, which visited the organisational behaviour literature explicitly proposed that SET relationships tend to fall within five investigative strands in the literature – perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange; organisational commitment; team support; perceived supervisor support; trust. These are considered antecedents and consequences of employee engagement (Saks, 2019). The concept of SET is based on the assumptions that there is a balance to be struck in terms of the exchange relationship and that exchange processes are available. However, Forrier, De Vuyper and Akkermans (2018) argue that such narrow theories (SET, CoR and Human Capital Theory) have the capacity to polarise the labour market, for example in terms of TAWs, employers are unlikely to invest resources because they may not depend on them long-term.

Liden et al. (2003) also found SET germane to TAW research, stating that whilst individual differences should be considered, the consensus is that employees experience the norm of reciprocity and will apply themselves to their roles in exchange for information, support and valued resources. Organisational support, employee engagement and organisational commitment are often cited as being influenced by SET (Rhoades et al., 2001). TAWs hold dual contracts and therefore receive resources, information, and support to varying degrees from either agency and/or client organisation, this influences their perceptions of exchange relationships. Emerging research shows that TAWs experience simultaneous relationships, and the role of SET can be seen through the construct of engagement as well as the antecedents of support and resources, as well as outcomes such as commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (Connelly et al., 2006; Giunchi et al., 2014; Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005; van Bruegel et al., 2005).

2.11 Work Engagement Theory

The construct of engagement at work is underpinned by more established constructs such as motivation, autonomy, job involvement and commitment (Wefald & Downey, 2009; Akingbola & Van den Berg, 2019). However, engagement as a unique construct offers a further insight into psychological, cognitive and physical aspects of work behaviour. This notion is exemplified by Kahn (1990, 1992) with a particular emphasis on psychological attachment to work roles. Kahn's seminal work engagement theory (1990) is widely credited as the first

formative theory of employee engagement and disengagement, whereas SET can be attributed to many different scenarios outside of organisational research (Gross, 2019). This ethnographic study of employees from an architecture firm and a cohort of summer camp hosts offered a qualitative insight into engagement as a function of psychological conditions. These psychological conditions were broken down into psychological availability, psychological safety and psychological meaningfulness (Akob et al., 2020). Employees unconsciously assess their work situation through safety, availability and meaningfulness. Engaged employees are likely to feel safe at work, particularly when applying aspects of self to their job role. They are also more likely to be engaged if there is the opportunity or conditions for them to bring self into their role (availability) and to do so in a meaningful way (Hasan et al., 2021).

Psychological availability is concerned with the notion that individuals have psychological, physical, and emotional reserves to invest in role performance. Therefore, organisations that provide resources to support psychological, physical, and emotional input are likely to experience higher level of engagement amongst its employees (Hasan et al., 2021). Psychological safety refers to employees having consent to express themselves without fear or negative repercussions to their career, future opportunities, and self-image. Psychological meaningfulness is concerned with the degree to which an individual gleans meaning from their job role. This includes whether their performance in the role makes a meaningful contribution to the organisations aims and success (Khan et al., 2021). Organisations that acknowledge effort and value their employees, for example through reward and recognition schemes are likely to increase psychological meaning for their employees (Saks & Gruman, 2014).

According to Kahn (1990), a conscious process of evaluating these three conditions will influence the degree to which an individual will engage in their job role. Overall, positive psychological conditions result in greater engagement. Khan's theory has been empirically tested by May, Gibson and Harter (2004) and significant support was found for all three conditions. They found organisational resources positively related to psychological availability, perceived supervisor and colleague support enhanced psychological safety, and role fit and enriched roles leading to increased psychological meaningfulness. However, Khan's theory has limited empirical research. Schaufeli et al., (2002) extended the perspective on engagement to include affective behaviour which can be observed through attachment to the job, enthusiasm, and resilience.

In summation, Kahn's seminal work (1990) is widely recognised as the first formative theory of employee engagement and disengagement. According to Khan engagement is a function of psychological conditions, namely psychological availability, psychological safety, and psychological meaningfulness. Psychological availability is concerned with the notion that individuals have psychological, physical, and emotional reserves to invest in role performance. Therefore, organisations that provide resources to support psychological, physical, and emotional input are likely to experience higher level of engagement amongst its employees. Psychological safety refers to employees having consent to express themselves without fear or negative repercussions to their career, future opportunities, and self-image. Psychological meaningfulness is concerned with the degree to which an individual gleans meaning from their job role. This includes whether their performance in the role makes a meaningful contribution to the organisations aims and success. Organisations that acknowledge effort and value their employees, for example through reward and recognition schemes are likely to increase psychological meaning for their employees (Saks & Gruman, 2014).


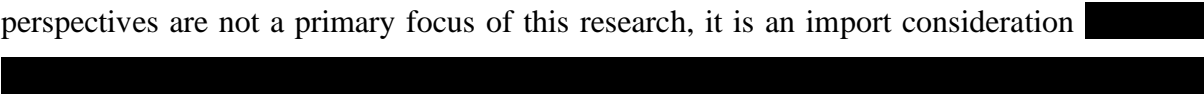
According to Kahn (1990), a conscious process of evaluating these three conditions will influence the degree to which an individual will engage in their job role. Overall, positive psychological conditions result in greater engagement. Khan's theory has been empirically tested by May, Gibson and Harter (2004) and significant support was found for all three conditions. They found organisational resources positively related to psychological availability, perceived supervisor and colleague support enhanced psychological safety, and role fit and enriched roles leading to increased psychological meaningfulness. However, Khan's theory has limited empirical research particularly in the context of TAWs.

2.12 Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory emerges from social psychology and proposes that individual behaviour can be influenced by group membership so much so that behaviours, attitudes, and emotions can be altered as part of their group membership (Tajfel 1970; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The theory lends itself to organisational behaviour, 'ingroup' and 'outgroup' behaviour and social categorisation theory (Manolchev et al., 2018). Tajfel (1978 p.63) defined social identity as "the individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups, together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership". The premise of this being that part of an individual's self-concept is acquired from their affiliation with a particular

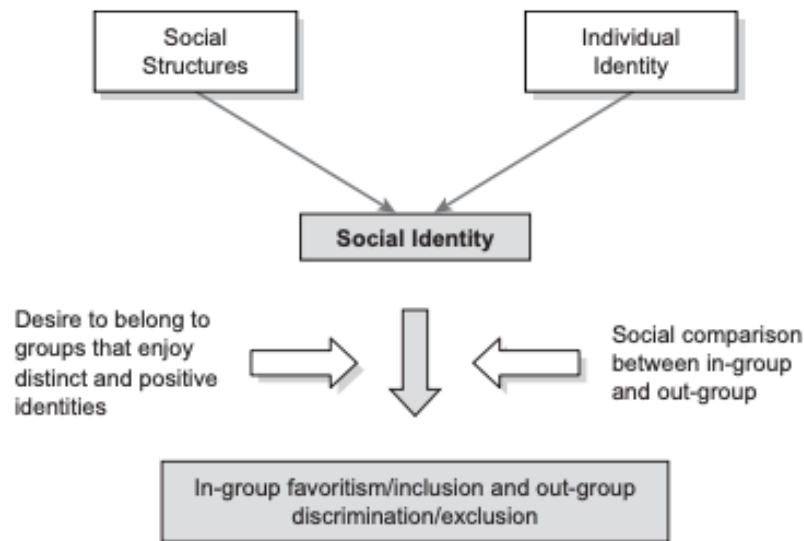
group. Often the affiliation with a particular group is influenced by a congruence with self-image. Moreover, the integration of an individual's self-concept with a group (i.e the organisation) creates a psychological connection that can be reflected in the behaviours and attitudes of the group (Islam, 2014). In other words, this theory derives from social comparison theories, the group norms are adopted, and self-identity is submerged into group identity. From an organisational behaviour perspective, employees form positive self-identity through positive group affiliation, distinctiveness and ingroup comparisons (Hornsey, 2008; Gross, 2019).

From an organisation perspective, where social identity is present, the individual conforms to the expectations of the organisation and is likely to adopt behaviours and attitudes that support the goals of the organisation, engagement being one such behaviour (Tyler & Blader, 2001). Furthermore, an employee can identify with more than one organisation and hold variations in commitment and job satisfaction (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Slattery, 2006). This has implications for TAWs whereby positive attitudes may be more dominant between temporary agency worker and client organisation rather than agency. Figure 3 shows that in organisational contexts where employees may affiliate themselves with the organisation or certain groups within it. Furthermore, Dutton et al. (1994) found that visible membership or affiliation with the organisation increases an employee's sense of identity with that entity. This can result in positive changes in behaviour and attitude towards organisational commitment. This is supported in studies by Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Mael and Ashforth (1992). Where employees are valued and respected by the organisation. Whilst ingroup and outgroup perspectives are not a primary focus of this research, it is an important consideration



In consideration of TAWs dual organisational identity reflects elements of SIT as individuals may experience different organisational identities belonging to agency and client organisation (Vora & Kostova, 2007). Dual identity research has shown that individuals can identify with different entities such as teams, departments, and organisations, and to varying degrees and simultaneously (Christ et al., 2003; George & Chattopadhyay, 2005; Hornsey & Hogg, 2000;). Furthermore, multiple identities can hold salient values and even overlap depending on the context but are cognitively related (George & Chattopadhyay, 2005). Barak (2008) conceptualises the basic principle of social identity theories, as illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Basic principle of social identity theories (Barak, 2008)



Social identity theory has received harsh criticism. For example, Haslam (2004) points out that it ignores the development of cognitive processes associated with the self and social identity. In other words, how an individual identifies congruence or similarity to certain groups. Such identity may also fluctuate at certain times (Maxwell et al., 2012). Self-categorisation theory is accepted as a wider concept than social identity theory because it goes beyond the scope of intergroup relations and social groups. Moreover, Haslam (2004) suggests that self-identity theory and social categorisation theory can be seen on a continuum, starting with the individual's self-identity and the notion of 'self' at the heart of identity then expanding outwards to social identity. An example in simple terms would be an employee describing their physical appearance, their marital status, or the area they live in, they may further identify as a middle manager, based in head office and running a small team of IT staff (Islam, 2014).

2.13 Self-categorisation Theory

Self-categorisation theory (SCT) was first proposed by Turner et al., (1987) and is an extension of SIT however, it is different in that it separates the concepts of personal and social identity (Vora & Kostova, 2007). SIT places an emphasis on an individual's group affiliation or intragroup interactions, whereas personal identity tends to remain a separate concept from group membership (Trepte & Loy, 2017). SCT on the other hand, takes the position that an individual's behaviour is influenced by either personal or social identity depending on the situation. In other words, SIT posits a continuum of intergroup versus interpersonal influences

on behaviour, whereas SCT posits both personal and social identity processes could be active simultaneously (Turner, 1996). This notwithstanding, the two theories are somewhat connected by Taifel and Turner who developed SIT, however Turner had previously been developing SCT from the late 1970s. Therefore, both SCT and SIT share the basis of social cognitive theories and social psychological foundations (Trepte & Loy, 2017). According to Turner (1999) self-categorisation is defined as “an active, interpretative, judgmental process, reflecting a complex and creative interaction between motives, expectations, knowledge and reality” (Turner, 1999 p.31). This suggests that the situation gives meaning to the personal and social identity of the individual and this can fluctuate.

In terms of employees, the social category the employee believes they belong to may fluctuate in relevance i.e., being asked to cover a role in a different department. The employee may self-categorise as a female in an all. male team, however, they may quickly affiliate themselves with colleagues doing the job to a high standard (versus those who are doing the bare minimum). According to Mael and Ashforth (1992) how the individual experiences belongingness to the organisation can inform an employee’s self-categorisation and defining characteristics. There is no doubt SIT and SCT provide valuable theoretical lenses to engagement research, if the focus of the study was to pay closer attention to affiliation between Agency and client organisation or to explore organisational identity, then these would be highly appropriate (Trepe & Loy, 2017). However, the aim of the study is to examine the antecedents and outcomes influenced by engagement, these constructs have an empirical basis founded on SET in the main (Baily, et al. 2017).

2.14 Conservation of Resources

Other theories identified in the literature include the conservation of resources theory (COR) which is considered a motivational theory. This theory posits that “individuals are motivated to protect their current resources (conservation) and acquire new resources (acquisition). Resources are loosely defined as objects, states, conditions, and other things that people value” (Hobfoll, 1988 as cited in Halbesleben et al. 2014 p. 1335). Based on this notion, organisations that supply employees with adequate resources are likely to increase their engagement. Furthermore, when job demands are high, increasing resources can counter negative effects of disengagement (Bakker et al., 2007). This suggests CoR has an alliance with the JD-R framework.

Halbesleben et al. (2014) criticises the theory for several reasons. Firstly, they suggest that resources and how they relate to goals need to be defined, contexts and values vary greatly across studies. Secondly, there is a gap in the knowledge as to how individuals assign value to certain resources and knowledge about resource acquisition and conservation is very limited. CoR theory offers a partial insight into why individuals seek resources, however they argue that the theory should absorb aspects of other theories such as self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) which has two main assumptions. The first is that individuals have an intrinsic need for growth, in pursuit of this the individual may seek new experiences or to overcome certain challenges. This is part of developing a coherent sense of self.

The second premise is the role of autonomous motivation, this can be divided into extrinsic motivation (external forces such as reward and recognition, promotion, awards) and intrinsic motivation (internal forces such as the gaining new knowledge) (Deci, 1975 as cited in Deci & Ryan, 2012). Coupled with COR, this approach could provide a position from which to examine differences in goal attainment, cultural contexts but also the wellbeing of the individual. It may further combat the issue of inconsistencies within the design and measurement of COR theory. Both theories originate from the motivational literature and COR requires further development in the field of engagement. Therefore, it is not considered suitable for the focus of this study.

2.14.1 The Job Demands-Resources Framework

A systematic review of the engagement literature by Bailey et al. (2017) revealed several theoretical frameworks used to underpin research into engagement. Most studies in this space used the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) framework, many of these proceeded with measurement scales (such as the UWES scale) based on this.

The JD-R framework categorises work into job resources and job demands. Job Resources can originate from the employer (career opportunities, pay, training), organisational processes (inclusion in decision-making, clear job descriptions and expectations), job characteristics (utilisation of skills, the contribution tasks make to organisational outcomes, task identity and feedback on performance), and social relationships at work (perceived supervisor support, supportive colleagues and positive team working) (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003;

Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands are concerned with effort versus costs (workload, role conflict or ambiguity, time pressures and job insecurity). Features of the job role may require sustained effort from the employee over time, this includes psychological, physical, and social actions. Consequently, such efforts may inflict psychological and psychological costs upon the individual. Saks and Gruman (2014) argue that much of the empirical basis for employee engagement is based on literature examining employee 'burn-out'. Much of this has been developed through application of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources and job demands have been shown to impact employee engagement.

A meta-analysis by Crawford et al. (2010) showed that job resources influence both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, thus leading to reduced burn-out and increased levels of wellbeing and engagement. Job resources also have the capacity to support individuals when job demands exert a strain on them. As Bakker and Demerouti (2007) highlight, when job demands are high individuals can become psychologically, socially, and physically tired leading to burn-out, stress and disengagement. Research has also proposed the inclusion of individual differences in the job resources category of the model, this encompasses an individual's level of optimism, self-esteem at work and self-efficacy (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). In a wider sense, this is related to resilience and locus of control, however it remains a claim in need of further research.

Instead, Saks and Gruman (2014) argue that much of the empirical basis for employee engagement is based on literature examining employee 'burn-out'. Much of this has been developed through application of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The JD-R model categorises work into job resources and job demands. Job Resources can originate from the employer (career opportunities, pay, training), organisational processes (inclusion in decision-making, clear job descriptions and expectations), job characteristics (utilisation of skills, the contribution tasks make to organisational outcomes, task identity and feedback on performance), and social relationships at work (perceived supervisor support, supportive colleagues and positive team working) (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands are concerned with effort versus costs (workload, role conflict or ambiguity, time pressures and job insecurity). Features of the

job role may require sustained effort from the employee over time, this includes psychological, physical, and social actions.

Depending on the type of Job demands that exist, a significant relationship has been found with engagement. An analysis of the existing literature by Crawford et al. (2010) showed job demands were perceived negatively if employees felt burdened by demands, workload and role conflict or ambiguity, this caused disengagement. However, if the job demands were perceived as challenges (for example, overcoming adversity to develop and grow in the role, increased responsibility, working well under pressure) then there was a positive relationship with engagement. The personal affect if individual differences was shown to positively mediate the relationship between job resources and engagement (perceived supervisor support, training opportunities). Despite these findings, the JD-R model is limited in its inclusion of constructs thought to act as antecedents or predictors of employee engagement. Its key strength is in creating defined categories within working conditions and attributing salient features into job resources or job demands (Saks & Gruman, 2014; Tong et al., 2019).

2.14.2 Job-Demand Resources as a Theory

It is debatable as to whether the JD-R framework is a theory of engagement or a model? It does not go beyond the categorisation of job demands and job resources other than to illustrate that increased resources results in increased engagement and too many demands can result in disengagement. It remains unclear what resources are salient. Whereas Khan's (1990) theory outlines the key psychological conditions and factors that impact them. The JD-R went on to include aspects of individual differences, however Khan's theory embeds the concept of the whole self into the job role performance from the outset and makes it a more relatable proposition for understanding engagement.

Despite these findings, the JD-R model is limited in its inclusion of constructs thought to act as antecedents or predictors of employee engagement. Its key strength is in creating defined categories within working conditions and attributing salient features into job resources or job demands (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Bargagliotti (2012) contests that JD-R fails to perform in complex cases. In essence, it is a transactional model that does not account for motivational or behavioural aspects of engagement. For example, her study examined work engagement in nursing and found the JD-R model diminishes an important characteristic of nurses, one of

dedication and simply justifies it as a transactional behaviour based on the resources they receive. JD-R does not go beyond the categorisation of job demands and job resources other than to illustrate that increased resources results in increased engagement and too many demands can result in disengagement. It remains unclear what resources are salient (Schaufeli, 2014). The claim that demands reduce engagement and resources increase it is contested in several studies (Crawford et al. 2010; De Braine & Roodt, 2011; Bailey et al. 2017). The issue is whether demands are perceived as a hindrance or as a challenge. This is less understood in the literature. There is an assumption that individuals are rational beings, and this rather linear framework does not account for emotional responses, the contextual factors, power dynamics within the workplace and who dictates the allocation of resources or sets demands? Instead, it focuses on an inherent desire the individual has to optimise their work situation (Kwon & Kim, 2020).

Banihani et al. (2013) questions gender as a variable within engagement, suggesting that many of the antecedents associated with engagement are more accessible to men than women. From a behaviour perspective, engagement-related actions are likely to reflect masculine expressions rather than female traits. Whereas Khan's (1990) theory outlines the key psychological conditions and factors that impact them. The JD-R went on to include aspects of individual differences, however Khan's theory embeds the concept of the whole self into the job role performance from the outset and makes it a more relatable proposition for understanding engagement. Therefore, self-representation and organisational identity are also additional factors that may warrant further consideration (George & Chattopadhyay, 2005). It would be remiss to not acknowledge the role of individual differences as a predictor of employee engagement. This notwithstanding, the literature is limited and even more so for TAWs, however those high in conscientiousness, who self-evaluate and who have a proactive positive affect have been shown to be highly engaged in the workplace (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich et al., 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2011). This is further supported by Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2009b) who found that organisational self-esteem, optimism and self-efficacy mediated the relationship between engagement and job resources. However, individual differences are not the focus of this research and beyond the scope of the study.

In consideration of temporary agency worker who hold a dual identity, they may perceive themselves as a member of both client organisation and Agency (Slattery et al., 2010). However, their original affiliation is with the Agency and despite being assigned to a client

organisation, they are not full members. Temporary employees may encounter daily reminders that they are not formal members of the 'group' and do not share certain conditions of employment (George & Chattopadhyay, 2005)

2.15 Summary of Theories and the Theoretical Position of this Thesis

Much of the theoretical foundations underpinning engagement have originated from positive psychology (Fineman, 2006). These theories are concerned with the perspectives and experiences of the individual rather than the organisation. There remain gaps in the knowledge, for example the role of context, power and gender are just some areas warranting further exploration. Bailey et al. (2017) highlights the lack of research in the field which focuses on equality and diversity, little is known about the antecedents and outcomes of engagement. They call for further research that explores the experiences and perspective of workers from diverse backgrounds. Banihani et al. (2013) view engagement as a gendered construct and call for further research to determine the relationship between gender and engagement. Moreover, Bailey et al. (2017) conclude that little is known about different types of engagement within cohorts, for example is the individual engaged with the job or the organisation? During the process of their systematic review, they found that very few studies had investigated job engagement versus organisation engagement (Saks, 2006; Anaza & Rutherford, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2013; Reissner & Pagan, 2013) and call for further research in this area.

Theoretical contribution is predicated on the provision of new connections, concepts or applications to existing knowledge thus providing practical and/or scientifically useful information to advance our theoretical understanding or move the direction of focus in a particular discipline (Corley & Gioia, 2011). This can be achieved in varying degrees through theory testing and theory building.

This study sets out with a specific context in mind, that of the temporary agency worker where power dynamics are dominated by dual authorities - the Agency and The Client organisation. The engagement literature is heavily predicated on SET and the norm of reciprocity. SET aligns with the theoretical foundations for Khan (1990; 1992) as well as Saks' (2006) multidimensional approach to employee engagement. Furthermore, in answer to the review by

Bailey et al. (2017), this research aims to contribute to the existing knowledge base on different types of engagement, namely job engagement versus organisation engagement.

Theory testing is applied to existing theories to ‘test’ whether a particular theory offers a feasible explanation for the phenomenon being explored (Corley & Gioia, 2011). As theories emerge, the establishment of validity and reliability are of paramount importance. Testing is usually expanded to establish boundary conditions through the application of mediators or moderators. Eventually, theory is further expanded by testing antecedents and consequences which become incorporated into the theoretical framework (Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007). This is certainly the case in terms of this research study, therefore, the researcher is theory testing rather than theory building through the theoretical lens of SET.

2.16 Antecedents of Employee Engagement

Thus far, this thesis has examined theories of employee engagement and some of the issues that arise when planning to research this construct. Discovering there is a lack of knowledge surrounding TAWs and their work engagement, highlights the importance of examining related constructs as a way of determining engagement as a unique construct (Shuck et al. 2011). Therefore, the focus now moves to several empirically established antecedents of employee engagement and their interactions. The constructs associated with antecedents to engagement are typically perceptions of working conditions, it is therefore unsurprising that the JD-R theory (Bakker & Demeroui, 2007) offers a useful framework for categorising some of the conditions into job resources and/or job demands.

Job resources include constructs such as perceived supervisor support, social support, job autonomy, job characteristics, feedback and training opportunities, all of which have been shown to be positively impact employee engagement (Bakker et al., 2011; Mauno Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2007). Furthermore, job resources have been shown to support engagement when there is an increase in job demands (Bakker et al., 2007). Working conditions that demand physical effort and place workers in noisy or hazardous environments have been shown to be negatively related to engagement (Christian et al., 2011).

Job demands on the other hand include workload, time pressure, job insecurity, role conflict and role ambiguity and whilst these are relevant to TAWs, they are not the focus of this research

(Saks & Gruman, 2014). These elements require sustained psychological and physical effort. Job demands are less of a predictor than job resources when it comes to engagement. Crawford et al. (2010) stipulates that some aspects of job demands can be viewed as challenges and other hindrances. This perception changes the dynamics of engagement for the individual, for those who perceive the demands as a challenge analysis shows job demands have a positive relationship with engagement. For individuals who perceive job demands as hindrances, then the data shows a negative relationship with engagement (Kraimer et al., 2005). However, job demands are robust predictors of burn-out. As this study is not focused on burn-out and seeks robust predictors of engagement, it will focus on antecedents aligned to job resources. These include job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, reward and recognition, procedural justice, and distributive justice.

2.16.1 Job characteristics

The most established framework of job characteristics can be found in Hackman and Oldham's model of job characteristics (1976). The concept proposes that the characteristics of a job role have the capability to motivate and enrich the individual's psychological, emotional, and cognitive states (and vice versa) (Wegman et al., 2018). An individual's psychological, emotional, and cognitive states are predicated on their perceptions of their job role. The key psychological state included *meaningfulness of work* which could be sourced from allowing employees to utilise a variety of skills in their job role, whether their job role reflects their internal value systems and whether the job contributes to worthwhile endeavour (Johari & Yahya, 2016). According to Hackman and Oldham (1975) positive states are likely to influence positive attitudes at work and in turn motivation, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction. Most importantly, all three states must be positively active for behavioural change (Ghosh et al., 2015).

The concept of job characteristics is further broken down into five components: task identity, skill variety, task significance, feedback, and autonomy. *Task identity* reflects the role of a task within the context of the entire work (Allan et al., 2019). For example, a baker may be responsible for ordering ingredients, mixing the items, and overseeing the baking process of bread, this would be classed as 'high task identity'. However, an employee on an assembly line at a biscuit factory may only be involved in one stage of the process, therefore there is less opportunity for task identity.

Skill variety is concerned with how demanding the role is in terms of skill and ability. A job role that is considered niche or requires many years of training is likely to demand high skill variety (Allan et al., 2019). For example, a software developer or a doctor. Jobs with lower skill variety are often limited in scope and do not require a wide variety of skills and abilities e.g., repetitive tasks such as packing boxes on an assembly line.

Task significance is the degree to which a job impacts others both outside the organisation and within. The greater the impact on others, the higher the task significance (Zhang & Parker, 2019). An example of high task significance is the job of a police officer or neurosurgeon, these roles will usually demonstrate high task significance compared to a Sales Call Centre. *Feedback* relates to the availability of information on the employee's job performance. Having consistent and constructive feedback from supervisors and managers lets employees gauge how they are being perceived and how effective their performance is. An example is 360 feedback surveys rating and commenting on co-workers (Budworth & Chummar, 2022). *Autonomy* relates to the amount of discretion and freedom the employee may have in their job. Jobs with high autonomy typically allow employees to decide and govern their own task management (Malinowska, Tokarz & Wardzichowska, 2018). An example of a role with high autonomy would be someone who trades stocks and shares with a generous amount of autonomy and discretion, whereas a post office clerk will adhere to strict financial and security processes without discretion.

Demerouti et al., (2001) went on to suggest that physical, organisational and social aspects should be included when considering the concept of job characteristics. They also aligned this concept with the JD-R framework in that elements of the concept can be divided into job resources and job demands. In this case, job demands accounting for psychological, physiological and social costs through sustained physiological input and job resources that enhance psychological, physiological and social development (Russell, Liggans & Attoh, 2018). This expands the scope of the construct, however there is limited research to support these elements as part of Job Characteristics (Rai & Maheshwari, 2020).

Testing whether job characteristics influence levels of work engagement, Rai and Maheshwari (2020) observed organisation engagement and job satisfaction and found that job characteristics have a positive impact on all three constructs in 622 Indian private sector bankers. Most notably, work engagement fully mediated relationships between job

characteristics with organisation engagement and job satisfaction. However, employees in the banking sector tend to have low autonomy and feedback. Input into job design is also limited, however responsibility and meaningfulness are found in such roles which may account for increased employee engagement (The Standing Committee on Finance, 2018). Therefore, jobs designed to enhance employee perceptions and attitudes towards work and will resonate with increased employee engagement (Ghosh et al., 2015).

Despite the increase in temporary workforces, job characteristics research is limited (Slattery et al., 2010; Hunefeld, Gerstenberg & Huffmeier, 2020). Instead, much of what we know about how job characteristics affect employees is based on findings from traditional employee studies. However, temporary work by its very nature lacks permanence and it is therefore difficult to make robust comparisons (Slattery et al., 2010). Furthermore, there is added complexity when considering TAWs who hold dual contracts and may frequently change assignment (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Slattery et al., (2010) were the first researchers to investigate job characteristics and attitudes of TAWs. Based on the rationale of SET and SIT, they tested two models, job characteristics and the relationship towards organisational commitment, along with intention to quit and job satisfaction for The Client organisation and then the agency. Results showed consistency with previous studies of traditional employees and the principles of SET, with job characteristics having a positive influence on organisational commitment, negative intention to quit and job satisfaction with The Client organisation. The impact was also replicated, but to a lesser degree, for the Agency results. However, the researchers acknowledge that job design is rarely a function of the Agency. This suggests that Agencies should collaborate on job design with client organisations to sustain motivation and avoid intention to quit.

2.16.2 Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Perceived organisational support (POS) is described as “a general perception concerning the extent to which the organisation values [employees] general contributions and cares for their wellbeing” (Eisenberger et al., 1990, p. 51). This construct is widely regarded as a key contributor to employee’s perceptions of organisational intent towards and treatment of its staff (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Several authors have attributed POS to reciprocity, affective commitment and an increased commitment to the goals of the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Furthermore, high POS has been linked to a reduction in withdrawal behaviours such as tardiness, absenteeism and unauthorised 'downtime', all of which can be detrimental to not only to organisations with permanent workforces, but non-traditional employers (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). Furthermore, intention to quit has been shown to be mediated by POS (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003), However, POS and intention to quit were influenced by job satisfaction, therefore if job satisfaction is high then POS will be high and intention to quit low (Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005). In terms of TAWs, serving both client organisation and agency, two informants of POS are potentially perceived (Baran, Shanock & Miller, 2012; Liden et al. 2003). Therefore, establishing levels of engagement between the job and the organisation could be beneficial to The Client and agency.

In systematic reviews of the POS literature generated by Riggle et al. (2007 to 2013) and Rhoades and Eisenberger (2003 to 2013) and Ahmed and Nawaz (2015) found that POS is strongly influenced by supervisor support, colleague support, organisational justice and opportunities for training and development. Furthermore, it has a significant positive relationship towards employee engagement, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction. However, its influence on intention to quit and organisational citizenship behaviour is only moderate.

Much of the literature in this area is underpinned by exchange theories such as SET and more specifically, organisational support theory (OST) (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). While this theory is not a focus of this research, it is worth noting that OST contemplates the nature, development and outcomes of support systems (Eisenberger, 1986). According to OST theory, POS is developed as a combined result of the organisation's preparedness to reward additional efforts of employees on its behalf and the socio-emotional needs of the employee (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Eisenberger et al., 2020). OST is essentially an application of SET and reciprocity between the employee and the organisation. Employees exchange dedication and effort exerted towards an employee's organisation in receipt of tangible rewards such as pay and bonuses, (Baran, Rhoades Shanock & Miller, 2012; Kurtessis et al., 2017).

POS has become an increasing area of interest for researchers because it can provide valuable insights into the health of the organisation-employee relationship and indicate behavioural outcomes and attitudes (Kurtessis, Eisenberger & Ford, 2015). According to Rana et al., (2014)

increased levels of POS are positively related to employee engagement. This finding is also supported in studies by Saks (2006), Rich et al., (2010) and Christian et al., (2011) to name a few, which places POS as a leading antecedent of employee engagement. In a study of 605 Chinese employees that included supervisors and managers, results showed that job engagement is positively influenced by POS, furthermore, POS acted as a conduit for strong HR practices thus reducing intention to quit and enhancing in-role performance. However, individual cultural values, which include power and distance and collectivism, can mitigate these effects. This suggests that organisations need to consider individual differences as well as the organisational culture when attempting to improve engagement levels (Zhong et al., 2016).

Temporary agency work is typically associated with low job security, therefore any presence of perceived support may have a stronger impact for TAWs compared to permanent employees (Chambel et al., 2015). Furthermore, research shows that perceptions of support stem from two sources – agency and client organisation and that TAWs consciously or unconsciously work towards maintaining social equilibrium in their dual contracts. Both of which are no less important than the other in our understanding of TAW perceptions and their potential outcomes (Giunchi et al., 2015). A small number of studies have examined POS and TAWs (Baran, Shanock & Miller, 2012; De Cuyper et al., 2008; Chambel et al., 2015b; Guinchi, Chambel & Ghislieri, 2015; Lopes, Chambel & Cesario, 2019). The findings support the positive influence of POS on employee engagement, this is reflective of permanent workforces (Guinchi et al., 2015). In a study of 3,983 Portuguese TAWs, Lopes, Chambel and Cesario (2019) examined POS' relationship with TAW wellbeing (employee engagement and burnout) through autonomous motivation. Results showed that both Agency and client organisation POS were significantly correlated with autonomous motivation (feelings of internal control). Moreover, this resulted in increased employee engagement and a negative relationship with burnout. This finding suggests that the quality and level of support from both Agency and client organisation is important to TAWs who have reduced job security and await the next assignment.

2.16.3 Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)

Perceived supervisory support (PSS) is described by Eisenberger et al., (2002) as “the degree to which employees form general impressions that their superiors appreciate their contributions, are supportive and care about their subordinates' wellbeing” (cited in Cole,

Bruch & Vogel, 2006, p.466). PSS has been closely linked to intention to quit, however Maertz et al. (2007) demonstrated that POS and PSS are strong interlinked indicators of turnover decisions and where there is low PSS, the POS related turnover was higher. Therefore, when a supervisor is perceived as providing a high level of support to the employee, the relevance of POS is reduced. In-turn, the implication for this finding, is that POS becomes particularly meaningful when PSS is low and that a notable interaction between POS and PSS exists. PSS and its positive influence on psychological resilience thus enabling employees to manage work-related stress has been shown in several studies (Kirmeyer & Dougherty, 1988; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2013; Campbell et al., 2013; De Clercq, Dimov & Belausteguigoitia, 2016). This may play an important role for TAWs who may experience increased stress (Chen et al., 1999). Furthermore, when examining PSS and its negative relationship to intention to quit, several studies also demonstrate a direct influence (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Erturk, 2014; Kurtessis et al., 2017).

However, POS has been found to have a stronger relationship than PSS to burnout (Campbell et al., 2013). Moreover, PSS has been shown to be significantly different to POS, a study by Maertz et al., (2007) initially showed that PSS had an independent effect on intention to quit over POS. This notwithstanding, since then several studies have found significant correlations between PSS and POS (Ng & Sorensen, 2008; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009; Lapalme, Tremblay & Simard, 2009; Campbell et al., 2013). However, in the case of temporary workers who inherently serve dual roles, very little is known about POS and PSS on behaviours and outcomes (Arasali & Arici, 2019). A further layer of complexity is that in high-supply contracts, TAWs may answer to agency and organisational supervisors.

As with perceived organisational support, OST theory underpins the principles of this construct. The environment within the organisation has key components reflecting levels of support, for example justice, caring about the wellbeing of its employees and acknowledging their contribution (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Alvi, Abbasi & Haider, 2015). SET theory also plays a key role within OST because the norm of reciprocity is evoked because of POS and PSS (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Moreover, PSS has been shown to have positive relationships with increased employee performance (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009) and rated separately to POS in terms of job satisfaction (Burns, 2016). Despite mixed results, PSS and POS are considered separate

constructs as PSS is determined by the care and concern provided by supervisors, whereas POS captures a wider perspective of the whole organisation and how it cares for their employees and the degree to which it recognises effort and contribution (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchinson, 1997; Campbell et al., 2013). Kuvass and Dysvik (2010) propose that PSS is vital in developing positive employee attitudes which in turn reduce intention to quit and increase organisational commitment. However, in a recent meta-analysis of PSS and intention to quit studies from 2007-2019, researchers analysed 20 studies in total with an aggregate of 10,079 employees from different sectors and countries. Results showed that PSS did not significantly affect employee's intention to quit. Furthermore, a study of hotel employees found that PSS scored much lower in part-time employees compared to its fulltime employees. This suggests that the behaviour of supervisors may be different towards different types of employees or that part-time employees perceived support differently (Gordon et al., 2019).

In consideration of employee engagement, both POS and PSS have become a growing area of antecedent investigation and their relationship with positive employee engagement (Saks, 2006; Dabke & Patole, 2014). Given that both constructs have been shown to be predictors of employee engagement and in some cases correlated to each other, this poses the question that some components of each construct may lead to redundancy? Claims as to which construct has stronger predictive power to employee engagement remain varied (Burns, 2016). For example, a study of 130 IT employees found significant correlations between PSS and POS with employee engagement, PSS was found to be a stronger indicator than POS which implies that both PSS and POS have predictive variance, however PSS could equate to a greater predictor of employee engagement (Dabke & Patole, 2014)

While most PSS studies are concerned with traditional employees, there are a small number examining PSS in terms of non-traditional employees. In a study of 1343 hourly-paid flexible retail employees, where engagement can be notoriously difficult to generate due to distribution of resources, job design and low wages (Galinsky et al., 2008; James et al., 2011), Swanberg et al, (2011) found that PSS mediated work engagement through satisfactory work schedules. This suggests that PSS can be perceived through fair and equitable processes.

2.16.4 Rewards & Recognition

The construct of rewards and recognition at work has been shown to positively influence employee performance (Hansen, Smith & Hansen, 2002; Ngungu, 2017); employee wellbeing and negative turnover intention (Langove & Isha, 2017); organisational citizenship behaviours (Priyadharshini & Amulraj, 2014) and job satisfaction (Ali & Ahmed, 2009; Ali & Anwar, 2021). Despite the construct being comprised of two components, much of the literature tends to address rewards and recognition as a single phenomenon (Hansen, Smith & Hansen, 2002). The notion of reward infers that something will be given in return for services or good done, whereas recognition reflects formal acknowledgement for noticing something completed or a job well done (Quay & Yusof, 2022). According to Hansen, Smith and Hansen (2002) rewards and recognition are separate constructs and should be treated as so in the research. However, it could be argued that both could influence human motivation, albeit for different reasons. Rewards can be aligned with extrinsic motivation, whereas recognition is underpinned by intrinsic motivation (Priyadharshini & Amulraj, 2014).

Typically, organisations apply rewards and recognition as one programme to incentivise commitment, engagement, retention, and loyalty (Ali & Anwar, 2021). However, such incentives can often overlook an employee's psychological need to do a job well, focusing on targets rather than pride in their role and satisfaction from their contribution making a difference to the wider environment (Ali & Ahmed, 2009). Recognition is reflective of employee engagement and performance as no monetary value may be applied, instead the employee is psychologically engaged beyond the scope of physical reward e.g., job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour (Brun & Dugas, 2008). Recognition has the potential to reinforce desired behaviours, but also enhances employee's feeling that the organisation is worthy of their effort, time and contribution resulting in increased employee engagement (Brown, 2011). However, monetary rewards have been shown to have a positive relationship with normative commitment (feelings of obligation) (Valaei & Rezaei, 2016). Xie et al. (2016) showed the influence of material reward on Chinese employees with low engagement, with autonomy and job satisfaction having a mediating effect on engagement. This suggests extrinsic rewards can only do so much for employee engagement. Instead, an emphasis on recognition may be a stronger driver of positive employee outcomes (Rai et al., 2018)

One may assume that the premise of rewards and recognition comfortably reside in SET, however, as an antecedent of employee engagement, Meyer (2013) showed a relationship between reward and recognition incentives and employee engagement through several underpinning theories i.e., generation theory, incentive compensation theory and motivation theory. Deci's (1975) cognitive evaluation theory states that if an individual encounters an environmental event that elevates their perception of their ability, skill or competence, then their intrinsic motivation will also increase. Such motivation is aligned to positive outcomes such as enhanced employee engagement (Rai et al., 2018).

In consideration of social exchange theory (SET) (Blau, 1964) and empirical evidence from Saks (2006), rewards and recognition towards the employee are positively linked to increased level of engagement in traditional employees. In other words, an organisation showing formal acknowledgement and appreciation of its employee's contributions is more likely to result in the norm of reciprocity (Wayne et al., 2002). Schaufeli (2013) also attributes SET theory as an underpinning factor of reward and recognition, arguing that a fair salary, opportunities, and recognition place an obligation of an employee to repay such resources by engaging themselves in the organisation. Elements of the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) may also explain the connection between rewards and recognition and work engagement with rewards and recognition being perceived as job resources controlling positive employee behaviours for future benefits (Rai et al., 2018).

When applying the construct of rewards and recognition as an antecedent of employee engagement, much of the existing empirical evidence stems from traditional employee cohorts (Aletraris, 2010). There remains very little literature on how TAWs respond to rewards and recognition. This is a complex space as benefits and resources for temporary workers tends to vary dramatically from permanent employees (De Witte & Naswall, 2003). For example, intrinsic rewards such job satisfaction may stem from the opportunity to use existing skills or specialist knowledge (Aletraris, 2010). However, in the case of blue-collar TAWs, job tasks may be mundane and not require specialist skills and knowledge held by the worker, therefore work engagement and job satisfaction are likely to be low (Burgess, 2006). There are significant gaps in the existing literature addressing this construct as an antecedent to employee engagement for temporary agency workers.

2.16.5 Procedural Justice

Housed under the umbrella term of ‘organisational justice’ reside three related constructs - procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). The term ‘justice’ in organisational spheres refers to the normative conduct that evokes fairness reactions. This should not be confused with the construct of ‘fairness’ used in organisational research, which refers to one’s evaluation or reaction to justice (Alterman et al., 2021).

Employee procedural justice is concerned with an employee’s perceptions about the policies and procedures constructed and applied by the organisation (Loi, Lam & Chan, 2012). It should not be confused with ‘interactional justice’ which is concerned with respect, appropriate levels of explanation from supervisors and dignity (He, Zhu & Zheng, 2014). Instead, procedural justice focuses on the employee perception of being fairly treated by way of open and transparent decision-making processes which involve and consult employees (Cropanzano et al., 2011). According to De Cremer et al. (2008) and Konovsky (2000), procedural justice is an essential ingredient for positive outcome behaviours such as task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. However, procedural justice has gained much attention in recent years and yet there is limited empirical literature examining the relationship between procedural justice and its influence on employee engagement (He, Zhu & Zheng, 2014). Moreover, one can turn to SET to gain an understanding of the relationship. SET is predicated on employees evolving a loyal, mutually committed and trusting relationship if the organisation and employees adhere to the rules of reciprocity (Herington & Weaven, 2009). A key form of reciprocity could be through the inclusion of employees in fair decision-making procedures, this could be perceived as a ‘good deed’ by the employees as the organisation did not have to consult them. In turn, the employees may experience enhanced levels of work engagement due to increased levels of procedural justice (Karatepe, 2011).

However, the influence of procedural justice upon engagement is somewhat questionable. Saks (2006) was unsuccessful in finding a significant positive relationship between these constructs amongst a cohort of employees from a variety of roles and organisations (status unknown). Moreover, two years later Moliner et al. (2008) was able to show a significant positive influence between procedural justice and employee engagement from a cohort of Spanish hotel employees. In consideration of temporary agency workers, the literature is limited given that

TAWs typically have little input into organisational processes (Chembel et al., 2015b). However, in a study of 162 TAWs it was found that temporary workers form committed relationships based on perceived justice which results in favourable behaviour towards their agency and co-workers. Furthermore, and reflective of traditional employee studies, temporary agency workers responded to different forms of justice e.g., procedural justice was shown to facilitate committed relationships to the agency (Cameron, Cropanzano & Vandenberghe, 2007). Therefore, the construct of procedural justice as an antecedent of employee engagement is worthy of further exploration.

2.16.6 Distributive Justice

In contrast to procedural justice which focuses on the processes of fair decision-making and transparency, distributive justice is concerned with fairness of resources, rights and outcomes (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Moliner, Martínez-Tur, Romos, & Cropanzano, 2008; Karatepe, 2011). This construct is essentially concerned with the ‘ends’ whereas procedural justice is concerned with the ‘means’. These two constructs are frequently used together in research, as Cropanzano and Folger (1991) stated, both procedures and outcomes should be studied to understand perceptions of employee justice. They went on to argue that employee behaviours are likely to be attributed to a combination of both procedural and distributive justice. For example, processes that are fair, transparent and consult employees at the decision-making stage are more likely to lead to perceptions of equitable distribution of resources and rewards (Colquitt, 200; Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015). This position is also supported in a meta-analysis of the constructs which examined 63 studies, there was significant support for the bivariate relationship between procedural and distributive justice (Hauenstein, McGonigle & Flinder, 2001). It is therefore appropriate to consider models that include both constructs.

Distributive justice has been shown to have a positive relationship on job satisfaction (Thomas & Nagalinggappa, 2012; Divkan et al., 2013; Astuti & Ingsih, 2019), reduced turnover intention (Haar & Spell, 2009) increased organisational commitment. (Poon, 2012), and organisational citizenship behaviour (Moorman, 1991; Wong, Wong & Ngo, 2012). The relationship between distributive justice and employee engagement has also been explored, Rice et al. (2017) found that distributive justice plays a significant role in positively influencing role engagement above extrinsic rewards. Handayani et al. (2017) showed that in a study of 134 employees at an SME distributive justice as well as absorptive capacity had a significant

influence on employee engagement, however job design did not have a significant influence on engagement. In a study of Indian professionals Gupta and Kumar (2013) found a significant relationship between distributive justice, informal justice and employee engagement.

Distributive justice in the context of temporary agency workers holds limited research. Camerman, Cropanzano & Vandenberghe, (2007) were able to show that distributive justice played an important role in the effect of outcome satisfaction, but less so organisational commitment. This suggests that agencies wishing to retain quality temporary agency workers need to build committed relationships and emphasise distributive justice (fair rewards and resources for equality and fair outcomes). Furthermore, they stipulate the role of information sharing in organisational justice. Sharing key information helps to build trust between agents and agency staff, particularly as contact might be far more sporadic than in permanent employee cohorts. They go on to state that trust may be less important for some temporary staff, however information shared helps them form evaluations of justice. Given the extremely limited research into distributive justice and TAWs and as an antecedent of both job and organisation engagement in this context, there is a clear gap in the empirical knowledge which warrants further investigation.

2.16.7 Summary of Antecedents of Employee Engagement

Several antecedents have been explored in the relation to the construct of employee engagement, depending on the definition of engagement and the underpinning theory adopted by researchers. A review of extant literature reveals that SET dominates the theoretical position of the antecedent constructs given its affiliation to the norm of reciprocity. Perceptions of support filter through OST underpinned by the principles of SET. Furthermore, analysis of the extant literature reveals that the antecedent literature is predicated on studies within traditional workforces. In response to the empirical shortage of studies within the field of temporary employee perspectives and how these may influence employee engagement, a clear gap in the empirical knowledge has been identified.

2.17 Outcomes of Employee Engagement

Thus far, the thesis has examined the antecedents which influence employee engagement. The focus now moves to the outcomes of employee engagement. This is an area which has received

increasing interest due to wider implications for organisational performance and success. This can include increased profits, shareholder values and a greater return on assets (Macey et al., 2009). Outcomes, much like antecedents, are numerous, however several key constructs stand out in the engagement literature at an individual level. Empirical support for outcomes related to employee engagement include individual and team performance (Van Bogaert et al., 2013; Steel et al., 2012), increased staff morale and wellbeing (Freeney & Fellenz, 2013), work attitudes (Soane et al., 2012), job satisfaction (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013), organisational commitment (Hu & Schaufeli, 2011) and organisational citizenship behaviour (Uddin, Mahmood & Fan, 2018). The outcomes applicable to this study will now be explored in more detail.

2.17.1 Job Satisfaction

Kahn (1990) proposed that psychological engagement comprises of cognitive and emotional engagement. Cognitive engagement pertaining to the tasks and job role, whereas emotional engagement reflected empathy and positive working relationships with colleagues and superiors. From the TAW perspective, it is the cognitive facet of Kahn's theory where engagement and job satisfaction meet. According to Abraham (2012) job satisfaction is greater when an employee's work aligns with personal values and needs. For TAWs, this climate can be inherently difficult to find as assignments might be brief and taken out of necessity rather than choice (Menatta, 2022).

Employee engagement is still a relatively new area of research and complex due to its theoretical diversity (see article by Macey & Schneider, 2008). However, some researchers have made direct connections between employee engagement and job satisfaction (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006; Saks, 2006; Abraham, 2012) and negatively linked to turnover intention (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

A systematic analysis of TAWs, job satisfaction and mental health in Europe from 2000-2016 found that there is little consistency between TAWs and negative job satisfaction. Moreover, working conditions and a lack of job security mediates low levels of job satisfaction. It is concerning that poor mental health (fatigue and depression) was associated with poor job satisfaction more so in TAWs than evidence than traditional employees (Hünefeld, Gerstenberg & Hüffmeier, 2020). Aleksynska (2018) found to a significant degree, that the type of contract

an employee has can affect job satisfaction, in the case of her study employees on temporary contracts showed a negative relationship with job satisfaction. The data spanning 35 European countries suggests this is underpinned by poorer working conditions, inequality, pay and prospects for temporary workers. However, the level of social environment was also examined, and this appeared to be unaffected by the contract status. Again, this area of the extant literature is very limited in terms of TAW experiences and engagement.

2.17.2 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has been described as the ‘a force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target’ (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301). Organisational commitment has been attributed as a predictor of attendance, organisational citizenship behaviours and job performance which in-turn translate to greater organisational performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Furthermore, organisational commitment is strongly correlated to job satisfaction and reduced turnover intention (Jackofsky & Peters, 1983; Shore & Martin, 1989). The benefits to The Client organisation and agency are therefore clear in terms of reputation, performance, and profit. However, for TAWs levels of commitment may vary depending on additional factors, such as perceived support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), reward and recognition (De Cuyser & De Witte, 2006), engagement (Saks, 2006) and job satisfaction (De Cuyser & De Witte, 2006). Furthermore, in the case of TAWs, both agency and client organisation may be considered as the employer. This has implications for the type and level of commitment to both parties from the TAW perspective, a position which is under-researched in this field. Furthermore, perception of human resource practices, a marker by which employees evaluate their treatment by employers, and work engagement has been shown to affect organisational commitment in both temporary and permanent cohorts, however the association between human resource practices and commitment was greater for temporary employees (Chambel, Castanheira & Sobral, 2016).

Negative perceptions of human resource practise are often reflected the subsequent behaviours and attitudes of employees. This is also true of perceptions of organisational and supervisory support. Therefore, it is important for organisational policies and practices, as well as recruitment agencies, to ensure the needs and goals of TAWs are considered. A study by Moorman and Harland (2002) examined organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of temporary workers whilst Liden et al. (2003) used social

exchange theory to investigate antecedents of organisational commitment in temporary agency workers. Both found positive work attitudes, job satisfaction and organisational commitment had a negative influence on intention to quit.

Since the early 90s, organisational commitment research continues to grow (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allan, 1991; Morrow, 1993). Whilst most of the extant literature is focused on traditional employees, several researchers have observed the interesting dynamic of organisational commitment in dual contracts (Gallagher, McLean Parkes, 2001; Liden et al., 2003; Van Breugel et al., 2005; Biggs & Swailes, 2006; Connelly et al., 2007). Dual commitments are heavily embedded in SET for both agency and client organisation (Liden et al., 2003; Menatta et al., 2020). Several studies take the stance that TAWs reciprocate support and resources from either client or agency in exchange for increased commitment (De Witte & Naswall, 2003; Liden et al., 2003; Saks, 2006; Lapalme et al., 2011; Giunchi et al., 2015)

Research by Connelly et al., (2007) and Liden et al., (2003) have shown that TAW commitment to agency and client organisation are correlated. The suggestion being that TAWs perceive a goal of mutual benefit for agency and client, in turn the TAWs effort has an impact on the performance of The Client organisation and consequently enhances the relationship between client organisation and agency (Lapalme et al., 2011). TAWs are typically hired by the agency and placed 'on assignment' to The Client organisation, research to shows that two unique forms of commitment develop. However, the likelihood is they are positively related in some way (Liden et al., 2003; Connelly et al., 2007; Woldman et al., 2018). There remain several studies which compare organisational commitment of TAWs to that of traditional employees, this has generated a range of results (Connolly & Gallagher, 2004; Virtanen et al., 2005; Felfe et al., 2008). For example, Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2002) found that TAWs have high commitment levels compared to traditional employees. This was also supported by de Gilder (2003). However, the opposite is also found (Gardner & Jackson, 1996; Felfe et al., 2008) along with no significant differences (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Feather & Rauter, 2004). One explanation could be that the term 'temporary work' carries complexity as studies may not purely focus on TAWs. One study which uses temporary agency workers in its examination of commitment against a comparison of traditional employees is by Biggs and Swailes (2006). They found that TAWS have a significantly lower degree of organisational commitment compared to permanent employees. This notwithstanding, organisational commitment shows

contradictory results for TAWs and there is still limited evidence as to how this construct is influenced in this context.

2.17.3 Intention to Quit

Also referred to as ‘turnover intention’ (Ngo-Henha, 2018) refers to what drives an employee’s intention to quit their role and is a widely researched area. Defined as ‘making an informed decision or intending to leave the organisation of the organisational climate’ (Tett & Meyer, 1993 p.64).

Employees intention to quit can have serious implications for the organisation, for example high rates of attrition can impact quality of outputs, organisational performance and (Trevor & Nyberg, 2008; Daghfous, 2013). Building upon the early research of intention to quit (Moble, 1977; Tett & Meyer, 1993), Carmeli and Weisenberg (2006) observed components which define intention to quit. These included employees thinking of quitting and intentional searches for another job. In other words, purposeful deliberation is given to leaving the job role. Dissatisfied employees are the most likely to harbour intention to quit mind sets. This may occur through low job satisfaction (Hancock et al., 2013; Astuti & Helmi, 2021).

Several antecedents and their relationship to the intention to quit have been investigated, however there remains limited consensus due to inconsistencies in the findings, measures and cohorts sampled (Firth et al., 2004). Whilst leaving a role is a primary behaviour, it is the intention to quit that is arguably a strong indicator of a surrogate behaviour (Moore, 2002). In a study of 173 Australian salespeople Firth et al. (2004) found job engagement accounted for 52% of the variance in employee’s intention to quit. Whereas no relationship was found between job stressors and intention to quit. However, the researchers acknowledge that job stressors may enact psychological states which eventually lead to the intention to quit e.g., low job satisfaction. Low levels of job satisfaction have been shown to be a key indication of intention to quit (Tzeng, 2002) along with burnout (Madigan & Kim, 2021), work conflict, work overload (Khorakian, Nosrati & Eslami, 2018) and job insecurity (Petiwi & Piartrini, 2020).

In terms of employee engagement and its relationship with intention to quit, outcomes vary. For example, Cankir and Arikan (2019) found that job satisfaction was a greater predictor of intention to quit rather than work engagement. However, work engagement was a stronger

influence on job performance. In the main, researchers have established a direct negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit (Bhatnagar, 2012; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Yalabik, 2013; Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019). In a study of 979 Indian managerial employees, it was found that their supervisors influenced engagement and this in turn had a positive effect on innovative behaviour and negatively towards intention to quit (Agarwal et al., 2012).

Intention to quit is somewhat complex when examining temporary employees. By their nature temporary workers may seek flexibility and have more scope to move from roles that do not satisfy them. Furthermore, they hold dual roles between Agency and client organisation and the intention quit may only pertain to one and not the other (Slattery, 2006). The literature as a result is limited in this space and much of what was established ranged from studies into work attitudes in the early 2000s (Liden et al., 2002; Moorman & Harland, 2002). An exploratory study by Slattery (2006) of 1,257 temporary agency workers and underpinned by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and social identity theory (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994), found direct relationships between organisational commitment and job satisfaction for intentions to quit. Furthermore, temporary agency workers showing a higher level of positive attitudes to agency supervision and agency support were less likely to have the intention to quit the agency. Commitment to The Client organisation was driven by greater autonomy, opportunities to learn and develop new skills on the assignment and who has the support of colleagues and supervisors at the location.

In the context of temporary agency workers, Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) is one of the few studies to examine intention to quit for both Agency and client organisation through social exchange theory and social identity theory. Using a sample of 1,257 TAWs from technical, clerical, and industrial sectors, results showed a direct relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction towards intention to quit for both Agency and client organisation. These results are reflective of traditional worker studies (Griffeth & Horn, 2001). Positive attitudes towards the Agency were related to support, reward, agency supervision and benefits. This resulted in higher commitment scores and a negative relationship with intention to quit. Moreover, positive attitudes towards The Client organisation were founded on workload, autonomy, challenging tasks, supervisor and colleague support, and opportunities to learn and develop in the job role. Again, higher positive attitude scores led to greater commitment and less likelihood of intention to quit. Again, there is little empirical evidence

examining TAWs and this construct, much of what we know remains predicated on traditional studies. It's relationship with multi-dimensional engagement is also limited and evidence of whether this outcome lies with the agency or client is unknown.

2.17.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is defined as “work-related behaviours that are discretionary, not related to the formal organisational reward system, and, in aggregate, promote the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ, 1988 p. 4). In other words, OCB extends behaviour beyond the formal job description, surpassing the minimum job requirements and positively supporting colleagues, the team and/or the organisation. This construct was introduced by Bateman and Organ (LePine et al., 2002) and gathered momentum in the 1990s and early 2000s (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1993; Jahangir et al., 2004; Khalid & Ali, 2005). For a historic perspective on the emergence of the construct see Alizadeh et al. (2012). Since then, Podsakoff et al. (2002) have clarified the nuances of this construct by outlining features such as civic virtue, self-development, organisational compliance, loyalty, sportsmanship, and self-sacrifice as well as helping others avoid work stress and further problems. OCB is essentially a discretionary behaviour because it is not enforced. To date much of the literature examines the antecedents of OCB (LePine et al., 2002; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Lau, Lam & Wen, 2014; Rodwell, Gulyas & Johnson, 2022)

Under the umbrella of OCB, two dimensions emerged in the early 1990s, namely organisational citizenship behaviour directed towards the organisation (OCBO) and organisational citizenship behaviour directed towards individuals (OCBI) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCBO suggests that employees may exhibit behaviours that benefit the organisation but are not formalised as part of the employee's contract or incentivised by a rewards system (Ndoja & Malekar, 2020). OCBI represents behaviours that support or benefit other individuals in the organisation such as co-workers, managers, or supervisors and by doing so contribute to the organisation's performance and efficiency (Krishnan & Arora, 2008). Research varies between studies examining OCB as one homogenous construct and those who differentiate between the effects of OCBI and OCBO (LePine et al., 2002; Geiger, Lee & Geiger, 2019).

Social exchange theory is reflected in OCB whereby the interpersonal relationships employees have with colleagues and the organisation determine unspecified transactions, these include going above and beyond to support co-workers and the organisation reach its goals (Colquitt et al., 2013).

The empirical evidence of TAWs and their relationship with OCB are sparse (Johnson & Lake, 2019). In a study examining both OCBO and OBCI effects in TAWs, it was found that OCBO was higher in traditional workers, however OCBI was the same for both cohorts (Wyatt-Nichol, 2005). In an earlier study by Van-Dyne and Soon (1998) in Singaporean banking staff which included traditional and TAWs. Findings revealed TAWs exhibited less OCB than their traditional employee colleagues. This was consistent with the theoretical explanation offered by SET in that TAWs by nature of the contract expected less investment from The Client organisation and therefore met this with lower levels of commitment and OCB. Moorman and Harland (2002) examined TAW job attitudes towards The Client organisation and found a positive relationship to OCB. This highlighted the importance of a positive attitude towards The Client. However, to what degree attitudes towards the agency drive OCB at The Client organisation remains vague and further research is needed in the field of TAWs and OCB (Johnson & Lake, 2019).

2.18 Summary of Engagement Outcomes

Several popular antecedents have been discussed, these are not comprehensive in scope and other antecedents to employee engagement are to be found in the literature. However, there is a noticeable absence of rigorous studies that examine the antecedents specifically in the context of TAWs. There is a substantial amount focusing on traditional cohorts and of the few of the limited studies observed, the findings are contradictory. However, of the limited studies examined, the antecedents discussed offer viable constructs, which in theory, are applicable to TAW engagement and warrant further investigation.

2.19 Developing the Measure for Examining TAWs

As discussed in section 2.6, the lack of an agreed definition and theory of employee engagement is problematic. This bleeds into the debate on how we measure employee engagement. At present, there are a number of employee engagement measures (i.e. The job

engagement scale by Rich et al., 2010; Gallup, 2011, Soane et al's., 2012 ISA Engagement Scale), however for the purpose of this research, this chapter will focus on two key measures – the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002) and Saks multidimensional measure of engagement (Saks, 2006). Both frameworks stem from very different foundations and have clear and distinct views of employee engagement, such contrasting positions show strengths and limitations in their attempts to measure engagement. The purpose of examining opposing theories, one dominant in the traditional workforce literature and the other offering a unique view of multidimensional engagement, is to establish a suitable application for the context of temporary agency workers.

2.20 Measures Based on Work Engagement Theory and Personal Role Engagement

In the first systematic review of engagement literature, its antecedents, and consequences, several different definitions and theories of engagement have evolved. For example, personal role engagement is a form of employee engagement based on Khan's (1990) theory of work engagement and centres around the individual's expression of cognitive, physical, and emotional facets of self in job role performance. This theory has formed the basis for several engagement scales. Rothbard (2001) produced a 9-item scale, which consisted of four items to measure attention and five to measure absorption. May, Gilson and Harter (2004) presented a 13-item scale utilizing Khan's (1990) theory of cognitive (4 items), physical (5 items), and emotional engagement (4 items). Rich et al. (2010) has observed Khan's theory of cognitive, emotional, and physical factors in engagement to develop an 18-item scale. Shuck, Reio and Sanders (2011) utilized items from May et al, (2004) and Shuck's 16-item Workplace Engagement Scale (Shuck, 2010). More recently, Soane et al. 's (2012) build upon Khan's (1990) theory to develop a 9-item scale known as the Intellectual, Social, Affective Engagement Scale (ISA Engagement Scale). The 9-item scale has 3 items dedicated to affective engagement, social engagement, and intellectual engagement respectively.

2.20.1 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

This notwithstanding, the engagement literature is dominated by studies using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). This measure uses the terms of *job engagement* or *work task*. This measure is founded on the theory that engagement is the antithesis of burn-out (Shuck, 2011). It stands in contrast to SET and Saks' idea of multidimensional engagement.

For UWES, engagement is defined as a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind” the dimensions of which can be observed as dedication, absorption, and vigour (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002 p. 74). The Scale (UWES) is a 17-item scale developed by Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Romá and Bakker (2002) and assesses the notion of absorption (6 items), dedication (6 items) and vigour (5 items) (see table 6 below). It is acknowledged as the most popular measure of workplace engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014).

Table 6: Items used to measure the three components of engagement

Vigour	Item (source: Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003)
Vi1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy
Vi2	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
Vi3	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
Vi4	I can continue working for long periods of time
Vi5	At my job, I am very resilient mentally
Vi6	At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well
Dedication	Item
De1	I find the work I do full of meaning and purpose
De2	I am enthusiastic about my job
De3	My job inspires me
De4	I am proud of the work I do
De5	To me, my job is challenging
Absorption	Item
Ab1	Time flies when I’m working
Ab2	When I’m working, I forget about everything else around me
Ab3	I feel happy when I’m working intensely
Ab4	I am immersed in my work
Ab5	I get carried away when I’m working
Ab6	It is difficult to detach myself from my job

A condensed 9-item version was later developed by Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006), with a 3-item version appearing in 2017 (Schaufeli, Shimazu, Hakanen, Salanova & De Witte, 2017). A systematic review of engagement literature in 2017 showed 148/214 papers had used a UWES measure. This three-dimensional scale is well established and has claims of high validity and reliability. Studies have been produced using this measure from across the globe having been translated into several languages (Bailey et al., 2017).

2.20.2 Criticisms of the UWES Measure

However, the reliability and validity of the measure has been questioned by Newman and Harrison (2008) who analysed the ‘dedication’ items on the scale and found four out of five items to be almost the same as existing measures used to assess the constructs of organisational commitment and job satisfaction. This is a criticism supported by Rich et al. (2010) who question the validity of the UWES measure claiming that certain items overlap with other constructs such as skill variety, autonomy, and job characteristics. These typically distinct constructs are used as predictors of engagement rather than an indication of engagement itself. Rich et al, (2010) argues that some items confuse engagement with antecedent conditions outlined by Khan (1990, 1992). Rich et al, (2010) subsequently developed their own engagement scale reflecting Khan’s theory. Moreover, engagement positioned as the antithesis to burn-out has also been criticised.

A meta-analysis by Cole, Walter, Bedeian and Bole (2012) found the constructs of engagement and burnout to be highly correlated. Saks and Gruman (2014) suggest burnout and engagement are not separate constructs but exist in the same nomological net. Cole et al, (2012) go on to claim that research using the UWES measure for burn-out is compromised due to overlaps between items of engagement and burn-out “tapping into an existing construct under a new label. This lack of independence, instantiated using the most highly regarded inventories of engagement and burnout, creates a serious risk of misalignment between theory and measurement” (p. 1573). Furthermore, several studies have questioned the robustness of the UWES measure for employee engagement. For example, confirmatory factor analysis revealed that the three dimensions of absorption, dedication, and vigour on the 17-item version of the scale were not an ideal fit (Mills, Culbertson & Fullagar, 2012). While the condensed 9-item version was an effective predictor of work outcomes. The scale was a weak predictor of turnover intention when assessing affective commitment and job satisfaction (Wefald, Mills, Smith & Downey, 2012). That same year, a study of 139 call centre workers showed weak support for the 17-item scale (Viljevac, Cooper-Thomas & Saks, 2012). Braine and Roodt (2011) surveyed 2429 respondents assessing their work engagement using the UWES scale and Job demands and resources using the JD-R measure. Reliability and factor analysis revealed the JD-R measure showed significantly more variance in predicting dedication than the UWES measure. Therefore, both the 17 items and 9 item scales have been factorially challenged with

no evidence of discriminant validity of the scales when compared with the construct of job satisfaction.

Bailey, et al. (2017) test the claim that employee engagement can enhance organisational performance via a systematic review of the literature. In total 214 articles were analysed for antecedents, outcomes and meaning related to engagement. They found the field dominated by the UWES model and JD-R framework. Furthermore, several studies have omitted the ‘absorption’ items from their data collection and instead focused on vigour and dedication believing these are the core components of engagement (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006; Bakker, et al., 2011; Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). Saks and Gruman (2014) express concern at this as absorption remains primarily distinct from vigour and dedication and of all three, reflects elements of other engagement measures that posit engagement is based on the degree to which an individual is immersed into their work (May, Gilson & Harter, 2004; Saks, 2006). Absorption is therefore an important dimension to the UWES scale.

In summary, the UWES measure is popular within the engagement literature, however more recently it has been the subject of contention. Item overlap with established constructs, concern over discriminant validity and an inconsistency with Khan’s (1990, 1992) theory, despite the inclusion of ‘absorption’ as a dimension within the scale, have all culminated in contentious debate. The UWES measure omits a fundamental principle of engagement and that is the notion that individuals apply their true self to the task. Dedication to the performance and energy levels can be measured, however it is difficult to ignore Khan’s position on the role of ‘self’ within engagement. It is evident that most of these measures are predicated on Khan’s theory of workplace engagement. This notwithstanding, the UWES stands out as the most utilised measure. This may be due to its suitability and utilisation in burn-out studies and burn-out being diametrically opposed to engagement has an extensive evidence-base (Maslach et al., 2001).

2.20.3 Saks Multidimensional Engagement

Saks (2006) developed a measure of engagement categorised by Bailey et al., (2017) as *multidimensional engagement*. Saks defines engagement as “a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional and behavioural components that are associated with individual role performance” (Saks, 2006 p. 602). This definition builds upon Khan’s (1990)

theory of engagement. However, Saks is the first author to separate employee engagement into job engagement and organisation engagement as an employee engagement measure and created two scales for each measure. To date several studies have used Saks' scales (see Figure 4) for an overview). This model is the first to propose two forms of engagement related to job role and organisation simultaneously.

Employee engagement is a term which houses both job engagement (5-items) and organisation engagement (6-item) measures. Khan (1990) proposed a psychological connection by employees to their job role. However, Saks (2006) recognised that employees are also members of the organisation, and this forms the basis of organisation engagement. Saks suggests that organisation engagement could be considered as a greater demand on self because it requires a greater investment. This notion generated the multidimensional concept of employee engagement. There is some overlap between job engagement and organisation engagement, antecedents and consequences and their interactions with both constructs is very different.

In Saks' original (2006) study ($n = 102$) from a variety of organisations and job types participated in a cross-sectional study. Respondents had a mean age of 34 years old and had been in their job role for four years and with their organisation for five years. The respondents had an average of 12 years' work experience and 60% were female. Students from a Canadian University based in Toronto recruited five participants each and gathered the data via questionnaire and returned completed five-point Likert scale questionnaires in sealed envelopes to the principal investigator. It is assumed the respondents were based in Canada as Saks stipulates that the gender split of the sample was slightly higher than the median female percentage of the population (52%) and younger than the median of the population (36.9 years).

The measurements for antecedents of employee engagement, and employee engagement are listed in Table 7 below, followed by the measurements for outcomes (Table 8).

Table 7: Antecedents of employee engagement

Antecedents	Citation source of measure	Measure
Job Characteristics	Hackman, J. R., Hackman, R. J., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). <i>Work redesign</i> (Vol. 2779). Addison-Wesley.	6 items
Perceived Organisational Support	Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R. and Armeli, S., 2001. Affective commitment to the organisation: the contribution of perceived organisational support. <i>Journal of applied psychology</i> , 86(5), p.825. Based on the original work by Eisenberger et al (1986) and Lynch, Eisenberger & Armeli (1999)	8 item scale
Perceived Supervisor Support	Rhoades, L. and Eisenberger, R. (2002), "Perceived organisational support: a review of the literature", <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , Vol. 87, pp. 698-714. Based on the original work of Eisenberger et al. (1986)	4 item scale
Rewards and Recognition	Saks, A.M. (2006) Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement. <i>Journal of Managerial Psychology</i> , 21, 600-619.	10 item scale
Procedural Justice	Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organisational justice: a construct validation of a measure. <i>Journal of applied psychology</i> , 86(3), 386.	7 item scale
Distributive Justice	Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organisational justice: a construct validation of a measure. <i>Journal of applied psychology</i> , 86(3), 386.	4 item scale
Employee Engagement	Source of the Measure	Measure
Job Engagement	Saks, A.M. (2006) Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement. <i>Journal of Managerial Psychology</i> , 21, 600-619.	5 item scale
Organisation Engagement	Saks, A.M. (2006) Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement. <i>Journal of Managerial Psychology</i> , 21, 600-619.	6 item scale

Table 8: Measuring outcomes of employee engagement

Consequences	Original Citation	Measure
Job Satisfaction	Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, G.D. and Klesh, J.R. (1983), "Assessing the attitudes and perceptions of organisational members", in Seashore, S.E., Lawler, E.E. III, Mirvis, P.H. and Cammann, C. (Eds), <i>Assessing Organisational Change: A Guide to Methods, Measures, and Practices</i> , Wiley, New York, NY, pp. 71-138.	3 item scale
Organisational Commitment	Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R. and Armeli, S. (2001), "Affective commitment to the organisation: the contribution of perceived organisational support", <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , Vol. 86, pp. 825-36. Based on the original work of Allan & Smith (1993) and Meyer & Allan (1997)	6 item scale
Intention to Quit	Colarelli, S.M. (1984), "Methods of communication and mediating processes in realistic job previews", <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , Vol. 69, pp. 633-42.	3 item scale
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Lee, K. and Allen, N.J. (2002), "Organisational citizenship behaviour and workplace deviance: the role of affect and cognitions", <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , Vol. 87, pp. 131-42.	4 items (OCBI) 4 items (OCBO)

Saks uses established measures for the antecedent constructs which include job characteristics (6-items from Hackman & Oldham, 1980), perceived organisational support (8-items from SPOS scale by Rhoades et al., 2001), perceived supervisor support (4 items adapted from SPOS by Rhoades et al., 2001), Procedural justice (7-item scale from Colquitt, 2001), distributive justice (4-item scale from Colquitt, 2001). However, Saks formed and tested his own measure for reward and recognition (10-items).

The mediating influence of work engagement has been verified in numerous studies, Rich et al. (2010) found job engagement fully mediated perceived organisational support and OCB as well as value congruence and self-evaluation. Haynie, Mossholder & Harris (2016) examined the relationship between job engagement and the antecedents of procedural and distributive justice. They also investigated its mediation with work outcomes, including job satisfaction, OCB and task performance. They found support for full mediation between job engagement and distributive justice, whereas procedural justice was indirectly affected by senior management trust. This could be somewhat reflected in the construct of perceived supervisor and organisational support. Job engagement also mediated the outcomes of job satisfaction and OCB. Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013) examined the mediating role of employee engagement in a sample of 247 Indian managers and found that the antecedents of person-organisation fit, and perceived organisational support and the outcomes of job satisfaction and organisational commitment were fully mediated by both job and organisation engagement. However, Sulea et al., (2012) found only partial mediation of work engagement, POS and the outcome of OCB in a sample of 258 Romanian workers. Through the JD-R model they conclude that job characteristics along with personal characteristics, depending on their affective-motivational state, predict work engagement and OCB. This supports emerging research into trait versus state and the fluctuations in engagement.

Originally, Saks designed the job engagement scale with 6-items, factor analysis with a promax rotation revealed a distinction between job and organisation engagement. Job engagement items showed loadings above 0.70 with cross-factor loadings below 0.20 ($a = 0.82$). One item showed a loading of below 0.30 and a higher cross-factor loading, therefore it was removed from the scale. All organisation engagement items loaded 0.75 and above with all cross-factor loadings remaining below 0.30 ($a = 0.90$). Consequences of employee engagement measures included job satisfaction (which used a well-established 3-item scale by Cammann et al.,

1983), organisational commitment (6-item affective commitment scale by Rhoades et al, 2001 adapted from Meyer & Allan and Allen & Smith, 1993), Intention to quit (3-item scale by Colarelli, 1984), organisational citizenship behaviour directed to the organisation (OCBO) used a 4-item scale adapted from Lee and Allen (2002) and organisational citizenship behaviour directed to the individual (OCBI) also used a 4-item scale from Lee and Allen (2002).

Figure 4: Antecedents and consequences of multidimensional employee engagement



2.21 Analysis of the Saks (2006) Study

Saks ran a multiple regression analysis on data from 102 respondents, results showed that the antecedent constructs were all positively correlated to both job engagement and organisation engagement. The antecedents also showed a significant amount of variance between organisation engagement ($R^2 = 0.39, p < 0.001$) and job engagement ($R^2 = 0.30, p < 0.001$). Furthermore, a paired *t-test* confirmed both measures of engagement were related, they showed significant differences e.g., job engagement was higher ($M = 3.06$) than organisation engagement ($M = 2.88$). Two of the three mediating effects were met as outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). Firstly, the antecedents (independent variables) were related to employee engagement (the mediator). Secondly, employee engagement (the mediator) was related to the consequences (the dependent variables). A third mediating effect which stipulates that a significant relationship between the antecedents (independent variables) and consequences (dependent variables) will be diminished (partial mediation) or no longer significant (full mediation) when controlling for employee engagement (the mediator). There was only partial evidence of job and organisation engagement mediating the relationship between antecedents and consequences when both engagement measures were controlled. Results diminished

interactions to non-significant for organisational commitment, OCBI and intention to quit. However, this finding implies the relationship between the independent variables (antecedents) and dependent variables (consequences) is partially mediated by job engagement and organisation engagement.

Focusing on results of the antecedents, perceived organisational support (POS) was the only significant predictor of both job ($R^2 = 0.36, p < 0.01$) and organisation engagement ($R^2 = 0.57, p < 0.001$). Whereas job characteristics was a significant predictor of job engagement ($R^2 = 0.37, p < 0.001$). Furthermore, procedural justice was only marginally significantly related to organisational engagement ($0.18, p < 0.10$).

The consequences section of the model showed that both job engagement and organisation engagement were significantly positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour as directed to the individual (OCBI) ($R^2 = 0.08, p < 0.05$), organisational citizenship behaviour as directed to the organisation (OCBO) ($R^2 = 0.20, p < 0.001$), organisational commitment ($R^2 = 0.50, p < 0.001$), job satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.37, p < 0.001$) and negatively related to intention to quit ($-0.22, p = 0.06$ for job engagement and $-0.31, p < 0.01$ for organisation engagement). Furthermore, when the data was exposed to a multiple regression examining employee engagement as a predictor of the consequences, results showed that OCBO ($0.20, p < 0.10$) for job engagement and ($0.30, p < 0.01$) was significant and marginally significant, whereas OCBI and organisation engagement showed marginal significance ($0.20, p = 0.10$), however it was not significant for a relationship with job engagement (Saks, 2006).

There are a number of limitations with the Saks study, firstly a relatively small sample was used ($n=102$) and the type of employment contract and job roles held by respondents was in was unspecified. Secondly, statistical significance was measured at $p < 0.10$ which is acceptable in social science studies in samples under 500 (Hair et al., 2021). However, the standard tends to be a more stringent $p < 0.05$ which is the statistical significance for this study. Finally, job characteristics were reported as one homogenous construct, therefore a new multiple regression analysis was used on the six components and revealed that were positively correlated to job engagement with skill variety being the most correlated to job engagement ($r = 0.43, p < 0.001$). In determining the strongest predictor of job engagement amongst the six job characteristics and the rest of the antecedents, a further multiple regression analysis was undertaken and showed skill variety ($0.28, p < 0.05$) and perceived organisational support

(POS) (0.37, $p < 0.01$). The result confirms that skill variety is the strongest predictor of job engagement within the job characteristics construct. This notwithstanding, the model offers a valid basis for further exploration.

2.21.1 Applications of Multidimensional Engagement

A growing number of studies have used Saks' measures of employee engagement together with a focus on some of the antecedents and outcomes that were examined in his 2006 paper. Here we explore some of the cumulative knowledge in this area. These studies are acknowledged in Bailey et al., 2017 systematic review as robust examples of engagement studies and form the basis for the empirical review of comparative studies.

Anaza and Rutherford (2012a) examined the responses of 272 USA cooperative extension system of frontline employees and how job satisfaction and internal marketing impacted their patronage, and in turn, how levels of patronage affected employee engagement. In their study, they utilised items Saks (2006) measure of reward and recognition as well his 5-item job engagement scale. The theoretical underpinning for the study is based on Vroom's Expectancy Theory, a motivational theory that assumes individuals will put effort into to a task if it is achievable (Vroom, 1964). However, they note that their findings reflect the reciprocal premise of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), in that individuals may reward their employers through patronisation in return for rewards (financial) and social support (training opportunities, recognition). Results showed a positive relationship between job satisfaction, employee patronage and employee engagement. Job satisfaction and employee patronage moderated the relationships between employee job engagement and internal marketing. Engagement is particularly important for co-operative extension workers as they represent the organisation and facilitate purchase behaviour of products and services e.g., financial services and packages. The more engaged they are, the more likely they are to use the products themselves and give authentic testimonials to customers. Furthermore, they are more likely to leave positive reviews on social media forums which can increase sales, trust, and customer base (Clemons, Gao & Hitt, 2006). As an outcome area, this is an interesting area and contributes to this side of the literature. However, the study of patronage is still in need of further research. Unfortunately, the study did not go as far to use Saks (2006) organisation engagement scale alongside the job engagement scale, this might have shown a different type of engagement and how patronage relates to the organisation directly.

Anaza and Rutherford (2012b) went on to use Saks (2006) 5-item job engagement scale again in a study of ($n = 297$) USA cooperative extension system of frontline employees. This time the focus was on employee-customer identification and job engagement. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) underpins this study due to the focus on organisational and employee-customer identity. CB-SEM analysis via AMOS found no association between organisational identification and job engagement. However, employee-customer identity showed a positive interaction with engagement. This suggests that employee-customer identity is a primary construct over organisational identity in frontline workers. This may be due to the individual being both a customer of the organisation and employee, thus fostering a deeper relationship of trust and interaction. Anaza and Rutherford (2012b) argue that organisations should not rely on their corporate identity to drive engagement, instead the findings suggest relational identification is directed by individuals valuing their customer identity. However, it should be noted that the sample set consisted of 74% female, furthermore, the study is highly contextual to the cooperative extension system of frontline employees. The combination of measures has yet to be tested in other settings.

Bhatnagar and Biswas (2012) study examined the psychological contract as a mediating relationship with organisational commitment and employee engagement in a managerial sample ($n = 297$) from six organisations based in India. The study emerges from the theoretical foundation of social exchange theory and examined engagement through use of Saks (2006) 11-item scale which comprises of job engagement (5-items) and organisation engagement (6-items). The same study uses the measures adopted by Saks (2006) for perceived organisational support (POS), procedural justice (PJ) and organisation engagement (OE). Through CB-SEM (AMOS) analysis, the findings showed that procedural justice along with perceived organisational support (POS) are positively related to both job and organisation engagement and organisational commitment. Both engagement and commitment were confirmed as outcomes of the psychological contract. whereas POS, PJ and employee-fit were shown to be antecedents. The study runs a mediator analysis; however, a moderator analysis may have shown richer insights. The authors note that the inclusion of Saks (2006) reward and recognition as well as the job characteristic measure he used could be important moderators for this study. Longitudinal design and a mixed-methods approach is also called for.

There is one qualitative study linked to Saks (2006), in a 2013 case study by **Reissner and Pagan**, who examined employee engagement in a public-private partnership. They interviewed (n = 25) individuals and groups (n = 18 in 3 groups) to explore how organisational engagement can be generated. Participants included ten front line employees, five line managers, five middle managers, five senior managers. The groups consisted of nine middle and senior managers, one solely with middle managers (five participants) and another with four frontline employees. The study observed engagement from both managerial and employee perspectives. Analysis of the data showed that organisation engagement is improved by managerial communication and activities resulting in individuals feeling in control and having increased commitment to organisational goals. Such qualitative analysis offers a rich insight to factors that are valued by employees and drive organisation engagement.

Baily et al., (2017) acknowledge that most of the engagement literature is focused on job or task engagement, however Saks (2006) stands out in the literature due to his expansion of the construct and the importance of organisational engagement in providing greater insight into employer-employee relationship. Schaufeli and Salanova (2011) and Shuck (2011) both identify organisations as having ever increasing transient relationships and permeable boundaries, therefore organisation engagement may hold greater practical and academic meaning than simply focusing on task or job engagement. Reissner and Pagan (2013) underpin their inquiry with social exchange theory highlighting the reciprocal nature of employees and organisations and again the work of Saks in determining the connection, particularly through the relationships between perceived organisational support and organisation engagement (Saks, 2006). However, Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2005) warn that reciprocity should not be assumed as an inherent response and there may be discrepancies between job and organisation engagement. One does not necessarily reflect the other, however further research is needed to examine such discrepancies where they occur. Reissner and Pagan (2013) also conclude there is a lack of research into the inter-relationship between job and organisation engagement.

A further study by **Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013a)** explored employee engagement as a mediator of P-O Fit, Perceived Organisational Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment. Using social exchange theory as it's theoretical foundation and Saks (2006) 11-item measure of job and organisation engagement. The sample consisted of (n = 246) full-time employees from six different organisations in India. The study also used a similar 8-item

measure of POS as used in the Saks study (Rhoades et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); an Organisational Commitment scale developed by Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armelli (2001), used by Saks study and the 3-item Job Satisfaction scale by Camman, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh (1983). SEM analysis revealed a positive relationship between POS and employee engagement, employee engagement is a predictor of job satisfaction and or organisational commitment. This reflects the findings from Saks (2006) study and builds on the empirical evidence of employee engagement as a mediator between antecedents and outcomes reported in the nomothetic network.

Biswas, Varma and Ramaswani (2013) examined the relationships between distributive justice, procedural justice, and employee engagement through SET in India. They used perceived organisational support as the mediator along with the psychological contract. The sample comprised of ($n= 238$) Indian executives and managers from the service sector and manufacturing industry. The study was underpinned by social exchange theory based on the notion of reciprocity and that employee engagement and organisation justice are predicted on obligations generated by perceptions of reciprocal interdependence. The authors used Saks (2006) 11-item scale of job and organisational engagement. The study also uses the same measure of POS used by Saks in his (2006) study of engagement, namely an 8-item measure by Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001). Through CB-SEM (AMOS) analysis the results showed a positive relationship between engagement, POS and psychological contracts. POS fully mediated the interaction between engagement and distributive justice. Psychological contract and POS fully mediated the interaction between engagement and procedural justice. These results are reflective of SET-in terms of contractual exchanges but also the social exchange relationship. Organisational justice is seen to enhance exchange relationships and increase commitment and engagement. The results further suggest that employee engagement is enhanced by fairness and the concern the organisation has for them. Distributive justice appeared to be influential in predicting perceptions of organisational support. However, the sample was 74% male and contextual to India where the authors note that Indian executives and Managers consider distributive justice a primary indication of how much they are supported by their employers. Therefore, reward and recognition may hold greater influence than in Western contexts (Ngo, Tang & Au, 2002)

Moving away from an Indian context, Juhdi, Pa'wan and Hansaram (2013) investigated the mediating effects of organisational engagement and organisational commitment against HR

practices amongst ($n = 457$) full-time employees from a variety of organisations and sectors in Malaysia. The study used Saks (2006) measure of organisational engagement and ran a Multiple linear regression as well as Hierarchical regression analyses to test the mediating effect of organisational commitment. Overall, HR practices had significant effects on organisational engagement and commitment. Organisational engagement and commitment gave partial mediation to the relationship between turnover intention and HR practices. This research indicates that HR practices influence organisation engagement, and that HR management is important in generating and sustaining engagement, especially career management which was found to be the strongest predictor of organisational engagement. This finding has implications for Agency and client organisation and their own HR practices in the scope of TAWs. Contextually, this may be down to the fact that the sample was mainly under 40 years old and (77%) with a high level of education, a continuation of their training and development remains important to their engagement and retention. Organisational engagement is particularly important in the Malaysian context, as the main reason for turnover intention is to seek career opportunities elsewhere.

Saks (2006) measure of organisation engagement was also used in a study of perceptions of trust and fairness (procedural justice) from an employee's perspective towards senior management in a professional services' public organisation. In their longitudinal study, Malinen, Wright and Cammock (2013) found that previous research tended to focus on job engagement and neglected the influence of organisation engagement. Data on trust and procedural justice was captured 12 months prior to gathering data on withdrawal attitudes (intention to leave the organisation) and organisational engagement. The cohort of 45 males and 42 females experienced regular job uncertainty and change. Twelve months on, findings showed that trust and perceptions of procedural justice was a strong predictor of organisation engagement. Furthermore, perceptions of procedural justice, trust and withdrawal attitudes were partially mediated by organisation engagement. This suggests that procedural justice and trust generate increased organisation engagement and reduce the intention to quit. The study contributes to the empirical evidence supporting the influence of organisation engagement within employee engagement.

Mahon, Taylor and Boyatzis (2014) also examined possible antecedents to organisation engagement which included perceptions of shared positive mood, shared personal vision, emotional intelligence and perceived organisational support. With Saks (2006) measure of

organisation engagement in use, data was captured from a for-profit organisation and a non-profit organisation based in the USA. Results from the 285 responses revealed that shared positive mood, shared personal vision and perceived organisational support had a direct positive relationship with organisation engagement. Furthermore, perceived organisational support and shared vision interacted with emotional intelligence to positively influence engagement. The results emphasise the role of organisation engagement as a unique construct within the wider concept of work or employee engagement. It also reinforces Kahn's (1990) definition of the role of self in work roles and Saks (2006) notion of membership or a positive connection with the organisation and how this influences attention and absorption and ultimately employee engagement.

Farndale et al. (2014) also highlights work engagement as the focus of academics, with organisation engagement being pertinent to practice. They examined the discriminant validity of organisation and work engagement as well as the nomological network related to each. Data was collected from 298 professional and managerial respondents from an organisation based in the chemicals industry in the Netherlands and an auto-engineering industry based in the UK. The survey used three items from Saks (2006) 6-item measure of organisation engagement along with two new items developed to align with definitions of work engagement and align the dedication aspect of the scale. Multiple regression analysis revealed that organisation and work engagement are distinct constructs, this supports previous findings (e.g., Saks, 2006). Moreover, both constructs have significant and yet differing degrees of relationships with perceived organisational performance and the consequences of job satisfaction, affective commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, active learning, and initiative. Organisational engagement was a stronger predictor of job satisfaction and affective commitment, whereas work engagement was a better predictor of active learning. This work adds support to the empirical evidence of UWES work engagement and organisation engagement as distinct constructs.

More recently, Imran and Khattack (2019) examined the effect of perceived supervisor support on engagement and behavioural outcomes such as turnover intention and deviant behaviour in ($n = 237$) banking employees in Pakistan. They chose Soane et al's (2012) measure for engagement and Saks (2006) measure of perceived supervisor support. However, Saks did not create this measure, instead Saks adopted his measure from Rhoades et al., 2001 with items taken from Eisenberger et al, 1986 and Lynch, Eisenberger and Armeli (1999). This

notwithstanding, regression analysis revealed a negative and significant relationship between work engagement and behavioural outcomes, furthermore POS may mediate this relationship. Work engagement was found to be a significant predictor of turnover intention and a negative relationship with work engagement and organisation citizenship behaviour. This reflects the findings of Rich et al., (2010). However, this study did not specify a theoretical framework for the study or justify the measures used.

Expanding the empirical base of engagement research with the first study of engagement in non-profit organisations, **Akingbola and Van den Berg (2019)** rely heavily on the definition of Khan (1990) and employ the Saks (2006) model. Their study is the closest framework to Saks (2006) model to date. They explored how job engagement and organisation engagement affect behavioural outcomes of organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment, job satisfaction in non-profit organisations where activity is often reliant on shared values and altruistic behaviour (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003). Applying SET, the organisation in turn, acts as a conduit enabling employees to make a difference to society. Job characteristics, value congruence and rewards and recognition were identified as antecedents to organisational engagement and job engagement for non-profit organisations. Their results somewhat reflected Saks findings in terms of significant variance of job and organisation engagement, organisation engagement and OCBI were not significantly related. However, in contrast OCBI was significantly and positively related to organisation engagement. Furthermore, the Akingbola and Van den Berg (2019) study showed no significant relationship between the antecedent of reward and recognition and job engagement, but also job engagement and the outcome of job satisfaction. There was also no support for the relationship between job engagement and intention to quit. These results contradict Saks (2006) results. However, it should be noted that Akingbola and Van den Berg's sample were from non-profit organisations where mission and societal impact appear to be a dominant driver of engagement over the job itself.

Table 9 below shows a summary of Saks' measures applied in a variety of countries, cohorts, and organisational cultures. It supports the validity and reliability of both job and organisation engagement measures and this cumulative body of knowledge towards job and organisation engagement being notably different forms of engagement. For example, it is possible for some employees to be engaged in their job role and yet not engaged with their organisation and vice versa. This has implications for the consequences of job satisfaction, organisational

commitment, intention to quit and organisational citizenship behaviour. However, this table also demonstrates that the Saks model has not been applied to temporary agency workers. This multidimensional approach to employee engagement is particularly novel for agency workers who serve both their Agency and The Client organisation.

Table 9: Summary of studies using the Saks measures of job and/or organisation engagement

Citation	Focus of the Study	Primary Theoretical Framework	Methods	Measure of Engagement	Sample	Results
Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. <i>Journal of managerial psychology</i> , 21(7), 600-619.	Antecedents: job characteristics (JC); perceived organisational support (POS); perceived supervisor support (PSS); reward & recognition (R&R); procedural justice (PJ); distributive justice (DJ). Mediators: Job Engagement (JE) and organisation engagement (OE) and how these impact the outcomes of Job Satisfaction (JS); organisational commitment (OC), intention to quit (ITQ), organisational citizenship behaviour in terms of the individual (OCBI) and the organisation (OCBO)	Social Exchange Theory (SET)	Self-report survey Analysis: Multiple Regression	Saks (2006) 5-item scale of Job engagement Saks (2006) 6-item scale of organisation engagement	102 employees from various organisations (Canada)	+ Relationship between POS and Job Engagement + Relationship between POS and Organisation Engagement POS was the only significant antecedent of both Job Engagement and Organisation Engagement. + Relationship between Job Characteristics and Job Engagement + Relationship between Procedural Justice and Organisation Engagement
Anaza, N. A., & Rutherford, B. N. (2012a). Developing our understanding of patronizing frontline employees. <i>Managing Service Quality: An International Journal</i> , 22(4), 340-358.	How job satisfaction and internal marketing impacts employee patronage, and in-turn, how levels of patronage affect employee engagement.	Vroom's Expectancy Theory	Self-report survey Analysis: AMOS SEM	Saks' (2006) measure of reward and recognition as well his 5-item job engagement scale.	272 USA cooperative extension system of frontline employees	+ relationship between job satisfaction, employee patronage and employee engagement. Job satisfaction and employee patronage moderated the relationships between employee job engagement and internal marketing.
<u>Anaza, N.A.</u> and <u>Rutherford, B.</u> (2012b), "How organisational and employee-customer identification, and customer orientation affect job engagement", <i>Journal of Service Management</i> , Vol. 23 No. 5, pp. 616-639	Employee-customer identification and job engagement.	Social Identity Theory	Self-report survey Analysis: AMOS SEM	Saks' (2006) 5-item job engagement scale	297 USA cooperative extension system of frontline employees.	no association between organisational identification and job engagement. However, employee-customer identity showed a positive interaction with engagement.

Citation	Focus of the Study	Primary Theoretical Framework	Methods	Measure of Engagement	Sample	Results
Bhatnagar, J., & Biswas, S. (2012). The mediator analysis of psychological contract: relationship with employee engagement and organisational commitment. <i>International Journal of Indian Culture and Business Management</i> , 5(6), 644-666.	Psychological contracts (PC), Organisational Commitment (OC), Employee Engagement (EE), Procedural Justice (PJ), Perceived organisational support (POS) and Person-Organisational fit (P-O fit)	Social Exchange Theory (SET)	Self-report survey Analysis: AMOS SEM	Saks (2006) 11 item combined scale of job and organisation engagement	297 managers based in India	
Biswas, S., & Bhatnagar, J. (2013). Mediator analysis of employee engagement: role of perceived organisational support, PO fit, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. <i>Vikalpa</i> , 38(1), 27-40.	Perceived organisational support (POS) and Person-Organisation Fit (P-O Fit) Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction	Social Exchange Theory (SET)	Self-report survey Analysis: AMOS SEM	Saks (2006) 11 item combined scale of job and organisation engagement	246 full-time employees from six organisations based in India	+ association between POS and P-O fit and employee engagement Employee engagement is positively associated with OC and JS
Biswas, S.; Varma, A.; Ramaswami, A. Linking distributive and procedural justice to employee engagement through social exchange: A field study in India. <i>Int. Journal of Human Resource Management</i> 2013, 24, 1570–1587.	The relationships between distributive justice, procedural justice and employee engagement through social exchange. Perceived organisational support was used as the mediator along with the psychological contract.	Social Exchange Theory (SET)	Self-report survey Analysis: AMOS SEM	Saks (2006) 11 item combined scale of job and organisation engagement	238 senior managers and executives from manufacturing and service industries in India	+ association between POS and psychological contract and employee engagement. POS and psychological contract fully mediated the relationship between PJ and employee engagement. POS showed fully mediated the relationship between DJ and employee engagement.

Citation	Focus of the Study	Primary Theoretical Framework	Methods	Measure of Engagement	Sample	Results
Juhdi, N., Pa'wan, F., & Hansaram, R. M. K. (2013). HR practices and turnover intention: the mediating roles of organisational commitment and organisational engagement in a selected region in Malaysia. <i>The International Journal of Human Resource Management</i> , 24(15), 3002-3019.	Investigated the mediating effects of organisational engagement and organisational commitment against HR practices (career management, appraisal, compensation, selection)	Not specified	Self-report survey Analysis: Multiple linear regression as well as Hierarchical regression analyses to test the mediating effect of organisational commitment	Saks (2006) 5 item scale of organisation engagement	457 full time employees from various organisations in Malaysia	+ association found between HR practices and organisation engagement Career engagement is the strongest predictor of organisational engagement. Organisation engagement is negatively associated with turnover intention
Malinen, S., Wright, S., & Cammock, P. (2013). What drives organisational engagement? A case study on trust, justice perceptions and withdrawal attitudes. In <i>Evidence-based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship</i> . Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 96-108.	Perceptions of trust and fairness (procedural justice) from an employee's perspective towards senior management in the professional services of a public organisation	Social Exchange Theory (SET)	Longitudinal study	Saks (2006) 5 item scale of organisation engagement	45 males and 42 females employees from the professional services of a public organisation	Twelve months on, findings showed that trust and perceptions of procedural justice were a strong predictor of organisation engagement. Perceptions of procedural justice, trust and withdrawal attitudes were partially mediated by organisation engagement.
Mahon, E. G., Taylor, S. N., & Boyatzis, R. E. (2014). Antecedents of organisational engagement: exploring vision, mood and perceived organisational support with emotional intelligence as a moderator. <i>Frontiers in psychology</i> , 5, 1322.	Examined possible antecedents to organisation engagement including perceptions of shared positive mood, shared personal vision, emotional intelligence and perceived organisational support.	Social Exchange Theory (SET)	Self-report Questionnaire	Saks (2006) 5 item scale of organisation engagement	285 responses from a for-profit organisation and a non-profit organisation based in the USA.	Shared positive mood, shared personal vision and perceived organisational support had a direct positive relationship with organisation engagement. Furthermore, perceived organisational support and shared vision interacted with emotional intelligence to positively influence engagement.

Citation	Focus of the Study	Primary Theoretical Framework	Methods	Measure of Engagement	Sample	Results
Farndale, E., Beijer, S. E., Van Veldhoven, M. J., Kelliher, C., & Hope-Hailey, V. (2014). Work and organisation engagement: aligning research and practice. <i>Journal of Organisational Effectiveness: People and Performance</i> .	examined the discriminant validity of organisation and work engagement as well as the nomological network related to each	Social Exchange Theory (SET)	Self-report Questionnaire Analysis: Multiple regression analysis	The survey used three items from Saks' (2006) 6-item measure of organisation engagement along with two new items developed to align with definitions of work engagement and align the dedication aspect of the scale.	298 professional and managerial respondents from an organisation based in the chemicals industry in the Netherlands and an auto-engineering industry based in the UK.	Organisation and work engagement are distinct constructs Both constructs have significant and yet differing degrees of relationships with perceived organisational performance and the consequences of job satisfaction, affective commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, active learning and initiative. Organisational engagement was a stronger predictor of job satisfaction and affective commitment, whereas work engagement was a stronger predictor of active learning.
Akingbola, K., & van den Berg, H. A. (2019). Antecedents, consequences, and context of employee engagement in nonprofit organisations. <i>Review of Public Personnel Administration</i> , 39(1), 46-74.	how job engagement and organisation engagement affect behavioural outcomes of organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment, job satisfaction in non-profit organisations. Job characteristics, value congruence and rewards and recognition identified as antecedents to organisational engagement and job engagement for non-profit organisations.	Social Exchange Theory (SET)		Saks (2006) 11 item combined scale of job and organisation engagement		Significant variance of job and organisation engagement. Organisation engagement and OCBI were not significantly related. However, OCBI was significantly and positively related to organisation engagement. No significant relationship between the antecedent of reward and recognition and job engagement, but also job engagement and the outcome of job satisfaction. No support for the relationship between job engagement and intention to quit.

2.21.2 Revisiting Saks' Multidimensional Model

More recently Saks has revisited his 2006 model. Despite over 8300 citations (December 2022) and several studies using Saks measures, Saks felt it necessary to address the generalisability of the model and to determine whether the model is still valid. For example, Saks found that job characteristics were a predictor of job engagement, however it is not known which characteristics were dominant. The job characteristics scale consists of items measuring task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, feedback from the job and feedback from others. There are variations in results and many studies focus on testing up to two characteristics rather than the whole set (see Table 9).

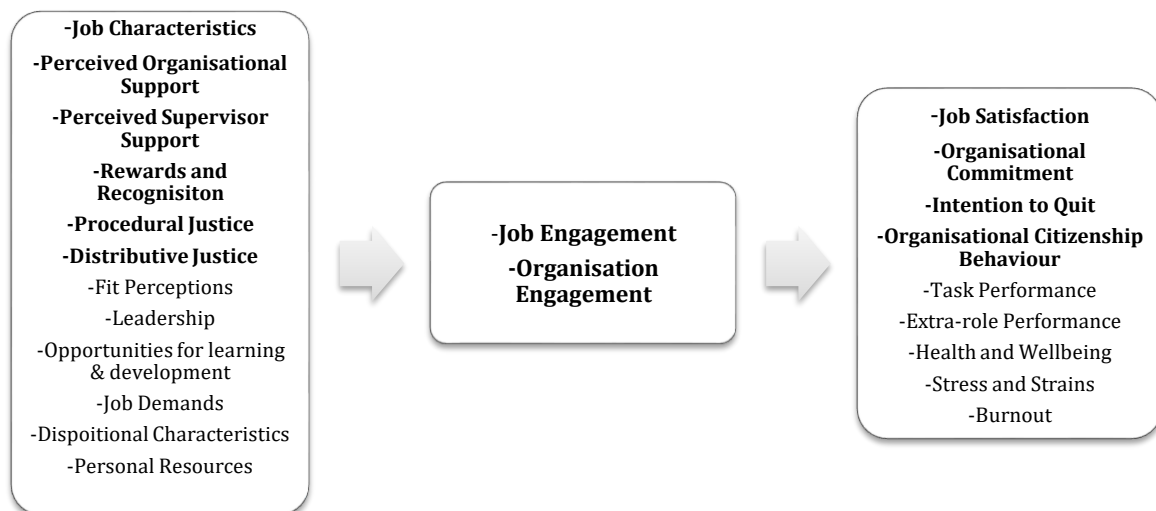
Moreover, Saks (2019) acknowledges the popularity of the UWES measure and tested the original data from the 102 employees using this measure and single item measures of organisation and job engagement. The single item for job engagement was 'I am highly engaged in this job' and for organisation engagement 'I am highly engaged in this organisation'. Correlation regression analysis along with paired-samples *t*-tests revealed that organisation engagement and job engagement were moderately correlated and either fully or partially mediated relationships between the antecedents and consequences. Whilst the UWES 17-item scale (Schaufeli et al., 2002) was not mentioned in Saks' (2006) paper, it was used in conjunction with the other sets of measures reported. Items representing dedication showed reliability of ($\alpha = 0.89$), absorption ($\alpha = 0.84$) and vigour ($\alpha = 0.80$). Overall, the UWES measure had a reliability of ($\alpha = 0.93$).

Regression analysis of the antecedents and consequences revealed similar results to those from the original 2006 analysis, with the size of several relationships being somewhat different. Overall, the antecedents indicated less variance between job and organisation engagement in the single-item measures. This was also the case for the consequences of organisational commitment and OCBO and OCBI. However, there was increased variance in intention to quit and job satisfaction. Furthermore, items related to vigour, absorption and dedication did not predict OCBI. When considered as a collective, results between Saks (2006) scales and the application of the UWES scale are largely the same and therefore the results of Saks (2006) generalise to the UWES 17-item scale of work engagement. However, with only one measure used for each construct the claim is open to criticism.

2.21.3 The Extended Saks Model of Employee Engagement

Furthermore, Saks revisited the engagement literature and determined there were additional antecedents and consequences to be considered (Saks, 2019). Figure 5 shows the new iteration of the 2006 framework which has the additions of six new antecedents: fit perceptions, leadership, opportunities for learning and development, job demands, dispositional characteristics and personal resources. Items in black show the original constructs from the 2006 model, items in blue show new additions to the model. Subsequently, five new consequences are included: task performance, extra-role performance, health and wellbeing, stress and strains and burnout. Employee engagement remains the same as the original model.

Figure 5: Saks (2019) revised model of the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement, new additions are shown below the bold constructs.



All antecedents in Saks (2006) model: Job characteristics (Christian et al., 2011), perceived organisational support (Crawford et al., 2010), perceived supervisor support (May et al., 2004, Bryne et al., 2016), reward and recognition (Jiang & Wang, 2018), procedural justice (Lapalme & Guerrero, 2019) and distributive justice (Haynie et al., 2016) have been shown to have a positive relationship to employee engagement. However, Saks examines the engagement literature since (2006) and finds additional antecedents emerging. These include perceptions of fit (broadly determined as matching perceptions of fit to actual fit, however there are numerous types of fit) (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Crawford et al., 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2011).

Leadership, where ethical, authentic and transformational leadership styles have been found to be positively related to work engagement (Breevaart et al., 2016; Engelbrecht, Heine and Mahembe, 2017; Hsieh & Wang, 2015; Rich et al., 2004; Soane, 2013). Opportunities for learning and development have shown a positive relationship to work engagement, it is also considered an important job resource (see JD-R model) (Kwon & Kim, 2020). Similarly, when considering the JD-R model, job demands have also been positively related to work engagement, particularly considering stress and burnout (Bakker et al, 2007; Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009). Dispositional characteristics such as self-evaluation, proactive personality, conscientiousness, and positive affect have been proposed as predictors to engagement (Christian et al., 2011; Mazzetti, et al., 2016; Rich et al., 2011). Bakker et al. (2014) have also examined resilience and optimism and found positive links with work engagement. Similarly, Xanthopoulou et al., (2007) examined personal resources and the JD-R model, with a further study that examined the relationship between job resources, personal resources, and work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Despite advances in the empirical field of work engagement, it is still unknown which antecedents are the strongest predictors of engagement. Other antecedents such as personality traits (Young, Glerum, Wang & Joseph, 2018), HR practices (Alfes et al., 2013), work environment (Anitha, 2014), self-awareness and accountability (Millar, 2012) may also warrant further consideration, the field is vast and complex. Bakker and Albrecht (2018) in their paper "Work engagement: current trends" add emerging research has also identified the influence of working hours/shift patterns on work engagement (Reina-Tamayo, Bakker & Derks, 2017 with fluctuations in daily work engagement being connected to accessibility to job resources (Petrou et al., 2012). Furthermore, job crafting is also an emerging area. This is defined as "changes that employees initiate in the level of job demands and job resources in order to make their own job more meaningful, engaging, and satisfying" (Demerouti, 2014 p. 237). This concept is tied into the JD-R model however, it can be used to compliment organisational processes that demand a top-down approach to job design as well as promote the notion that employees can influence their roles from a bottom-up approach to job design. This reflects elements of perceived organisational support and justice. However, despite these emerging areas showing a valuable contribution to the engagement literature, Bakker and Albrecht (2018) stipulate that it is vital that this knowledge is applied to practical settings in

order to promote cohesive working environments which benefit not only the organisation, but the individuals and teams within them.

In terms of temporary agency workers and the updated Saks model, the new constructs are not suitable for this research. At the time of writing the literature review and collecting data, Saks' 2019 model was not available and data capture had been completed. This notwithstanding, the 2019 model appears to lack parity against the backdrop of engagement models (such as JD-R, UWES). Moreover, the 2019 model has not been tested. Several constructs that appear on the new model may not align with the temporary context to the degree of the original 2006 model e.g., opportunities for learning and development and leadership in this context. Therefore, it is not applied in this research.

2.21.4 Applying a Multidimensional Lens to Temporary Agency Workers

Saks' (2006) model is founded on Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli et al. (2002) definitions of employee engagement and was one of the first investigations of antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. Kahn notably posits the role of self in work roles and job performance. Therefore, job engagement is central to this definition. Whereas Schaufeli et al., (2002) determined engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption (p. 74). This definition touches upon the relationship with the organisation. Saks expanded this notion by making an explicit distinction between organisation engagement and job engagement. Saks outlined that engagement is specific to the role an individual is performing and that most employees have at least two main roles - their work role and their role as a member of their organisation" (p.20). Therefore, Saks identified two key roles performed by employees as a member of the organisation and their job role. Thus, Saks determines a multidimensional theory of employee engagement (Bailey et al., 2017; Schuck, 2011). As this study aims to investigate antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement therefore, this study adds an additional dimension in the form of an Agency and Client organisation.

Saks work is underpinned by social exchange theory, outlined by Bailey et al., (2017) as the second most popular theory in the engagement literature, next to JD-R. However, whether UWES is a measure of engagement remains contentious due to its antithesis position with burnout. Saks believes that individuals immerse themselves in the organisation and their job

role depending on the resources they receive. This interaction results in reciprocity and the desire to contribute cognitive, physical, and emotional resources to their performance. Employee engagement, which encompasses job engagement and organisation engagement is therefore dependent on socioemotional and economic resources provided by the organisation. The results from this study could be interpreted as individuals who perceive greater organisational support will reciprocate with increased job and organisational engagement. Furthermore, high scores in job characteristics also lead to enhanced job engagement under the notion of reciprocity. The same is true of perceived procedural justice and organisation engagement. Overall and in the context of positive psychology and the emergence of Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli et al (2002) definition, the better the quality of the organisation-organisation member relationship, the greater likelihood of positive psychological input, behaviours and attitudes leading to increased employee engagement.

Saks found POS as a dominant antecedent with it being the only construct predicting job and organisational engagement. Beyond this, procedural justice predicted organisation engagement and job characteristics predicted job engagement. This suggests that employee engagement is predicated on an individual's behaviour and attitudes. Furthermore, OCBI was the only outcome influenced by just organisation engagement. The rest, including OCBO, were influenced by both job and organisation engagement. Focusing on the consequences, organisation engagement had a stronger influence on the outcomes compared to job engagement. Overall, results show a partially mediated relationship between antecedents and consequences.

Saks work makes several important contributions to the engagement literature. Firstly, Saks multidimensional approach was one of the first empirical contributions to examining antecedents and consequences of employee engagement through the distinct constructs of job engagement and organisation engagement. Furthermore, antecedents and consequences showed different types of relationships with job engagement in comparison to organisation engagement. This implies that different psychological conditions are created between the antecedents and consequences and job and organisation engagement. Saks also found significant and meaningful distinctions in variances between job and organisation engagement and OCBO, intention to quit, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Saks ran multiple regression analysis on his data in the 2006 study, since then, several authors have used

SEM in their approach and a more statistically powerful analysis is able to determine relationships within models of engagement so a higher degree of accuracy (Hair et al., 2021).

Despite the acknowledgment of Saks contribution in the literature and several empirical studies supporting the presence of multidimensional facets to employee engagement, to date Saks (2006) model has not been tested in full by other authors or in new contexts. Moreover, an alternative form of SEM analysis has not been applied to the full set of measures across the model. For this study SET, Khan and Saks offer a suitable blended framework for the examination of employee engagement, temporary agency workers and the antecedents and outcomes.

2.22 Chapter Summary

In chapter two we drew upon the existing literature of employee engagement and highlighted potential gaps in knowledge and problem spaces. The chapter established a working definition of a temporary worker and examined why organisations use temporary agency staff. The chapter also discussed the actors involved in the arrangement and complexity of the dual contract on perceptions. The Chapter then turned its focus to the construct of employee engagement and an appropriate definition was garnered for the research. The chapter then explored the key theories of engagement and established the theoretical position of this thesis. Several antecedents and outcome constructs associated with employee engagement were discussed and significant gaps in the literature revealed. The measurement of employee engagement was also shown to be problematic and some of the methodological limitations from the existing literature were highlighted. An appropriate model to operationalise this study was identified ready to inform and a set of hypotheses for testing in the context of temporary agency workers in the next Chapter.

3 DEVELOPING THE HYPOTHESES

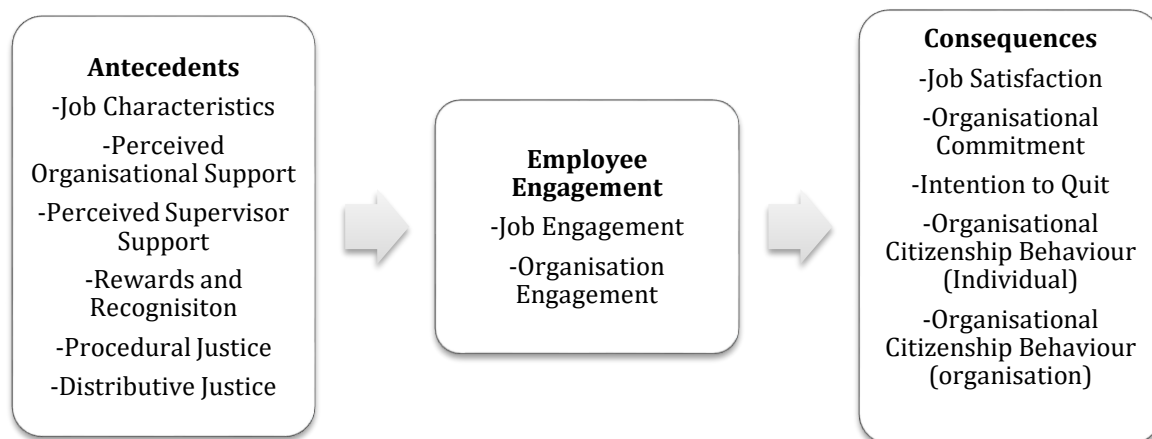
3.1 Chapter Introduction

The chapter begins by establishing the theoretical underpinnings of the selected model (section 3.2). This is followed by the development of the hypotheses to be tested for antecedents related to employee engagement (section 3.3), for multidimensional engagement as a mediator (section 3.4) and the subsequent outcomes (section 3.5). Finally, section 3.6 provides a chapter summary.

3.2 Theoretical underpinnings of the model

Due to the number of constructs involved in this research and the complexity of temporary agency worker engagement, a set of hypotheses is developed to reflect the aim of this research and the selected model (Saks, 2006). As previously discussed, the model selected for this study (see figure 6 below) was presented by Saks (2006) who identified several popular antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. However, in contrast to Saks (2006) organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is presented as two distinct constructs in this model and whilst his research took place in an assumed traditional-worker context, this research specifically targets TAWs. The mediating roles of job engagement and organisation engagement are placed at the centre of the model and act as a conduit (mediator) for the influence of either positive or negative outcomes.

Figure 6: Theoretical underpinnings of the hypotheses



The model itself was based on previous studies (Khan,1990; Maslach et al. 2001; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003). It's theoretical underpinning is shared by both Khan's theory of workplace engagement and social exchange theory (Baily et al., 2017). Whilst there is no agreed combination of antecedents to predict employee engagement, the seminal work of Kahn (1990, 1992) has tested several constructs featured in the conceptual model. However, the Saks model remains one of the very few models to examine this number of antecedent constructs alongside the mediating role of multidimensional employee engagement and predicted outcomes. The study demonstrated the empirical and practical importance of employee engagement as well as the notion that engagement can be experienced in different forms simultaneously. However, to date and to the author's knowledge, no study has applied Saks (2006) model in the context of temporary agency workers.

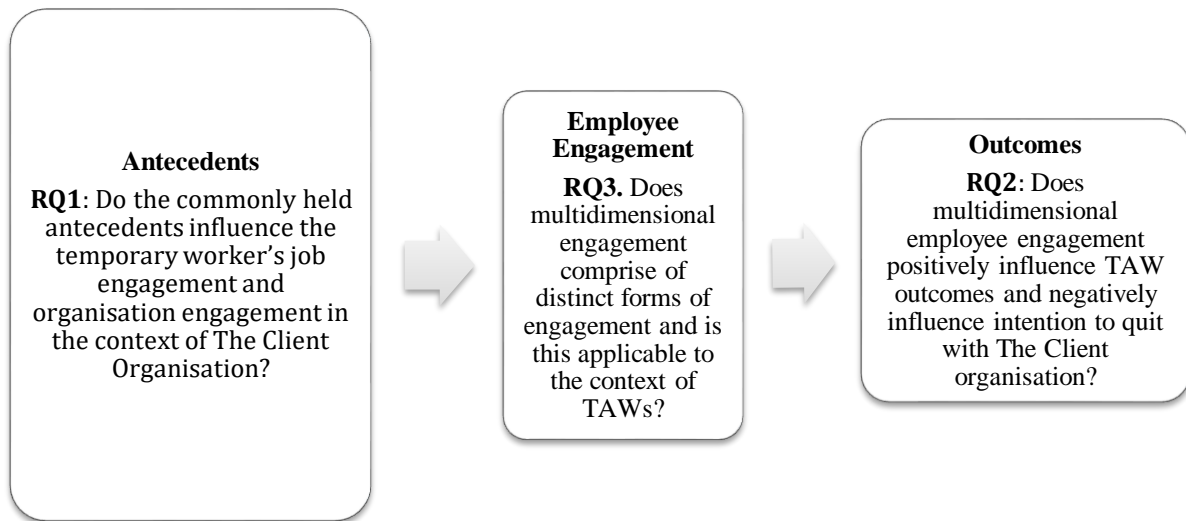
3.3 Mapping of Hypotheses to Research Questions

This section develops a set of 10 hypotheses that are mapped to the four research questions as previously presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Mapping hypothesis to research questions

Research Question	Hypotheses	Constructs
RQ 1. Do the commonly held antecedents of multidimensional engagement influence the TAWs job engagement and organisation engagement in the context of The Client Organisation?	H1-H6	Job characteristics (JC); perceived organisational support (POS); perceived supervisor support (PSS); rewards and recognition (R&R); procedural justice (PJ); and distributive justice (DJ). These are determined against the moderators of job engagement (JE) and organisation engagement (OE).
RQ 2. Does multidimensional employee engagement positively influence TAW outcomes and negatively influence intention to quit with The Client organisation?	H7-H9	Job satisfaction (JS); organisational commitment (OC); Intention to Quit (ITQ); organisational citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI) and organisational citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO).
RQ 3. Does multidimensional engagement comprise of distinct forms of engagement and is this applicable to the context of TAWs?	H10	Job engagement (JE) and Organisation engagement (OE)

Figure 7: Mapping the research questions to Saks' (2006) model



Several hypotheses reside underneath the antecedents and the consequences and are presented in the remainder of this chapter.

3.3.1 Antecedent Hypothesis: Job Characteristics

Psychological meaningfulness can be gleaned from the type of job tasks involved in a particular role. These include task characteristics such as variation, challenges, skills, the chance to make a meaningful contribution and employee discretion (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Much of what we know about the construct of job characteristics stem from the work of Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model (1980) where job design considers task identity, skill variety, task significance, feedback, and autonomy. Jobs predicated on these core characteristics are shown to incentivise employees and thereby increase employee engagement (Kahn, 1992). However, for temporary agency workers, job characteristics are usually determined by The Client organisation and are traditionally limited in task identity, skill variety, task significance, feedback, and autonomy. The relationship between job characteristics and traditional employees has been widely researched. However, there remains very little research examining job characteristics and temporary employees (Slattery et al., 2010). It is important to identify whether the patterns and relationships of job characteristics are reflected for temporary agency workers. Several studies have examined job characteristics in temporary settings (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Galup, Klein & Jiang, 2008; Slattery et al., 2010; Gracia, Ramos, Peiró, Caballer & Sora, 2011).

Slattery et al., (2010) in their study of 1,241 U.S. TAWs found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction of temporary agency workers is correlated with the level of the core job characteristics. This reflects the pattern found for permanent workers from previous studies. Therefore, job design is an important consideration for The Client organisation. Slattery et al. (2010) state that any study examining job characteristics and temporary works must account for the dual role of the temporary agency worker. They are assigned to a client organisation by their temporary agency and therefore there is a relationship with both organisations.

Saks (2006) presents job characteristics as an antecedent in his model having studied the work of Maslach et al. (2001) who identified a link between job characteristics and employee engagement. Akingbola and Van den Berg (2019) follow up on the work of Saks and identify job characteristics as an antecedent to job and organisation engagement in non-profit organisations. Such organisations require unique competencies to operate in the third sector such as strict budgeting, working with multiple funders and stakeholders, supervision, and decision-making. The organisation will have a clear mission based on shared values and often consult employees on strategic decisions. Despite this finding, there is limited support for job characteristics being positively related to job and organisation engagement. This notwithstanding, the Hackman and Oldham's (1980) measure of task identity, task significance, skill variety, feedback, and autonomy as an antecedent to employee engagement has a robust empirical pedigree and remains highly appropriate for the study.

In consideration of SET, it would suggest that employees who experience a meaningful and enriched role based on high levels of task characteristics are likely to be more engaged due to the norm of reciprocity (Slattery et al., 2010). Furthermore, social exchange theory posits that those individuals who receive benefits from one entity are more likely to reciprocate toward others. In this instance, The Client organisation may design the job characteristics and the Agency have no input other than oversight of the role at a contractual level. However, social exchange theory suggests that the temporary agency worker may receive benefits from The Client organisation for their efforts and may further reciprocate (exchange favours) with their Agency who placed them there (Slattery et al., 2010). This form of indirect reciprocation is known as 'generalised exchange' (Flynn, 2005). Temporary agency workers who positively perceive their job characteristics may attribute this to both client organisation and agency. Evidence of a generalised exchange was demonstrated by Slattery et al., (2010) of TAWs,

however the reciprocity norm was slightly weaker in terms of the Agency. Thus, this study hypothesises:

***H1:** Job characteristics have a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client organisation.*

3.3.2 Antecedent Hypothesis: Perceived Organisational Support

Perceived organisational support (POS) is defined as the degree to which an employee believes their employer cares for their wellbeing and values their contributions (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This is reflective of SET whereby the provision of supportive environments generates a sense of reciprocity. Employees feel an obligation to support their organisation achieve its goals (Rhoades et al, 2001).

Lee and Faller (2005) examined the psychological contracts of temporary workers in South Africa and concluded that it is beneficial to organisations to build social exchange relationships with temporary workers for several reasons. Firstly, the simulation of how an individual will be treated in a permanent position can attract quality employees from temporary positions. This can save the organisation time and resources in its recruitment processes. Secondly, if the temporary work is seasonal the desired individuals are more likely to keep returning. Therefore, organisational support is important.

Few studies have examined the relationship between POS and workplace engagement (e.g., Mahon, Taylor & Boyatzis, 2014; Eisenberger, Malone & Presson, 2016). Saks (2006) claims to be the first study to examine POS and the relationship with employee engagement. It was found that POS was a positive predictor of both job and organisational engagement. Previous studies (e.g., Kinnunen, Feldt and Mäkikangas, 2008; Sulea et al., 2012; Caesens and Stinglhamber, 2014) have also examined the relationship between perceived organisational support and work engagement. Kinnunen et al., (2008) found POS was positively correlated with work engagement whereas Sulea et al., (2012) found POS to be related to work engagement which positively impacted organisational citizenship behaviour. Caesens and Stinglhamber (2014) showed that POS can play a motivational role in predicting work engagement. Their results showed a direct effect on work engagement.

POS has also been positively linked to higher job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and negative intention to quit (Baran, Shanock & Miller, 2012; Giunchi, Chambel & Ghislieri, 2015). This highlights POS as an important construct for further examination. However, these studies take place in permanent employee settings, far less is known about POS and engagement in temporary agency contexts. The few studies to have researched this phenomenon have found that POS predicts similar outcomes from permanent workforces. For example, Liden et al. (2003) found that POS had a positive relationship to procedural justice in both The Client organisation and agency. The agency provides communication, the assignment and negotiates pay conditions, whereas The Client organisation provides fairness in its practices (Cameron, Cropanzano and Vandenberghe, 2007). Baran, Shanock, and Miller (2012) found that fairness for temporary employees is a type of ‘informal justice’, depending on the type of practices the agency and client. What is unknown is how POS may differ for temporary workers based on perceptions of procedural justice from client organisation and agency. A study by Imhof and Andresen (2017) who examined the role of POS and subjective wellbeing in TAWs through SEM analysis of 350 TAWs in Germany, found POS was significantly related to subjective wellbeing for TAWs, however job insecurity continued to have a negative effect on TAWs thus partially mediating POS on wellbeing.

The evidence base thus far demonstrates a positive relationship with POS and outcomes such as increased job satisfaction, commitment, reduced withdrawal, or intention to quit, organisational citizenship behaviour (Baran, Shanock, and Miller, 2012), and employee engagement (Saks, 2006). Therefore, this is an important construct to examine, particularly considering changing workforces and managing both permanent and temporary workforces. Perceived organisational support is both within the gift of the agency and The Client organisation. However, the nuances of POS from agency and client organisation will differ depending on role, obligations, resources, and level of support. TAWs who feel supported by their agency and by The Client organisation are more likely to be engaged and committed (Giunchi, Chambel & Ghislieri, 2015). Thus, this study hypothesises:

***H2:** Perceived organisational support (POS) has a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client organisation.*

3.3.3 Antecedent Hypothesis: Perceived Supervisor Support

Just as employees perceive levels of organisational support through how much the organisation cares for their welfare and values them, the same concern can be attributed to supervisor support (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Maertz et al., 2007). The supervisor is often perceived as a representative or extension of the organisation, therefore the positive interaction between perceived supervisor support (PSS) and POS is highly predictable. The research examining this relationship is well established in permanent settings (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009; Kalidass & Bahron, 2015). Many of these studies suggest that PSS leads to POS, however Yoon & Thye (2000) believe that POS increases PSS. By the organisation showing care and appreciation of its workforce, PSS increases by association. In the case of temporary agency workers and their dual roles, the interaction of POS and PSS is additionally complex and beyond the scope of this study.

Perceived supervisor support (PSS) shows a positive relationship with organisational outcomes such as turnover intention (Maertz et al., 2007). This is reflective of *broaden and build theory* (Fredrickson, 1998) which resides within the realms of positive psychology and is predicted on emotions as the predictor of engagement. Importantly, positive emotions are not just an indication of present wellbeing but indicate emotional reserves and enable the building of 'upward spirals' for future resilience. Positive affect leads to positive behaviours - including greater engagement (Fredrickson, 1998; Conway, Tugade, Catalino & Fredrickson, 2013). In a study by Carlson et al. (2011), the role of positive supervisor support and positive family lives were shown to mediate perceptions of increased autonomy in planning work schedules which subsequently led to higher job performance. While there is an interesting evidence-base for building theory in management practices (Bakker & Bal, 2010), however, much of the evidence to date is based on stress and clinical studies e.g., schizophrenia. This study is focused on engagement as a unique construct and therefore a dedicated theory is required. However, the relationship between PSS and work engagement is less understood. Saks (2006) is one of the few studies to investigate PSS on employee engagement and it showed that POS was significantly related to job and organisational engagement. However, this was not reflected in PSS. While Saks does not explore this discrepancy, it contrasts with the established literature and the strong connection between POS and PSS. This warrants further exploration. Moreover, the impact of PSS on temporary workforces and outcomes is undefined.

It is not usual for temporary agency workers to be supervised by a member of The Client organisation. However, in some circumstances, a supervisor from the placement agency may be based at The Client organisation as an additional source of supervisor support. This is particularly the case where there is a large cohort of their agency workers in situ. Therefore, the influence of PSS can be a potential factor in employee engagement from both agency and client organisation. Thus, this study hypothesises:

***H3:** Perceived supervisor support (PSS) has a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client organisation.*

3.3.4 Antecedent Hypothesis: Rewards and Recognition

The concept of Rewards and recognition at work encompasses benefits such as promotion and development opportunities, financial bonuses, time off, praise and respect from management, pay rise, awards, public recognition, and greater autonomy (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013). Reward and recognition strategies play an important role in organisational culture and can impact physical and psychological conditions for employees. Intrinsic rewards are reflected in job roles that can be meaningful, especially when the individual feels their work makes a significant contribution towards achieving organisational or team goals. Alternatively, rewards can be extrinsic where job performance might be financially incentivised. For many specialist job roles, an attractive salary and package of benefits is part of recruitment processes and talent management. However, for most temporary agency workers, this is rarely the case.

Both reward and recognition are within the gift of the agency and client organisation and can take both extrinsic and intrinsic reward strategies. This transactional nature is also reflected in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). The agency may offer more appealing assignments to temporary agency workers who are reliable, consistent and perform well at The Client organisation. Alternatively, The Client organisation may offer additional work shifts or a more desirable position within the organisation.

As well as an intrinsic reward of meaningfulness (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013) which is also mentioned as a core job characteristic, reward and recognition has also been associated with the notion of ‘fairness’ at work. This is reflected in individuals or teams being rewarded or recognised in exchange for their efforts (Bhattacharya & Mukherjee, 2009). Khan (1990) noted

that employees vary in their engagement because of perceived benefits. There is a “sense of return on investments” (Saks, 2006 p. 605) whereby increased job performance warrants reward and recognition, social exchange theory posits that the employee is in turn obliged to reciprocate with higher levels of engagement.

Rewards and recognition appear as an antecedent in the Saks (2006) model, however its influence on engagement is not predicted by a hypothesis. This may be due to the empirical evidence to date being weaker and more limited compared to other more established constructs such as POS and Job characteristics. Indeed, the data in his study shows that reward and recognition does not have a significant relationship with engagement. This is also supported in a study by Rothmann and Welsh (2013) who used Saks’ (2006) 10 item scale to assess reward and recognition as a predictor of job engagement, their results also show a non-significant influence. However, Saks’ (2006) measure of rewards and recognition was used by Akingbola & Van den Berg (2019) who, in a study of non-profit organisations, found that there was strong support for its relationship to organisation engagement, but no support for a relationship with job engagement. This result suggests that social exchange theory is in play and individuals have a specific expectation with the organisation in terms of an intrinsic reward, as well as an expectation of fairness, respect, trust.

It could be argued that the influence of reward and recognition in terms of employee engagement appears to be more of an indirect relationship. Furthermore, it is flanked by elements from the core job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1986) and the perception of justice and fairness (Bhattacharya & Mukherjee, 2009). With these accounted for, employees are more likely to increase their efforts and subsequently their level of work engagement (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013).

Despite reward and recognition demonstrating a weak direct influence on employee engagement in the permanent literature, it remains a popular strategy in organisation culture. To date, there are no studies examining reward and recognition in temporary agency worker contexts. It is unknown whether similar patterns of results for permanent settings are reflected in temporary agency workers, this warrants exploration. Thus, this study hypothesises:

H4: Rewards and recognition positively impact (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client organisation.

3.3.5 Antecedent Hypothesis: Perception of Procedural Justice

Workplace perceptions of procedural justice is concerned with an employee's perceptions of procedural transparency and fairness (He, Zhu & Zheng, 2014). This includes oversight of how decisions are made in relation to resource allocation, promotions, and rewards (Andrews, Kacmar & Kacmar, 2015). In other words, the employee will hold a perception of whether they are treated in a discriminatory or non-discriminatory way by their enacting authority (Biswas, Varma & Ramaswami, 2013). In the case of the temporary agency worker, this will include the agency and The Client organisation (Konovsky, 2000; Williams, Pitre & Zainuba, 2002). The concept of procedural justice includes oversight and inclusion in decision-making processes, this is deemed to be an important component of organisational justice as a whole and shown to influence cooperative behaviour (Konovsky, 2000) and proactive behaviour (Crawshaw, Van Dick & Brodbeck, 2012), trust, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2001). This is reflective of social exchange theory whereby the perception of being fairly treated can increase trust in the organisation and reciprocate through positive behaviours and attitude.

Through SEM analysis of 350 TAWs in Germany, research by Imhof and Andresen (2017) examined the role of procedural justice as an antecedent to POS and the outcome of subjective wellbeing in TAWs. Findings suggested that procedural justice positively and significantly relates to POS and in turn, TAWs that were high in POS reported a higher degree of subjective wellbeing. However, there is limited empirical research on the relationship between perceived procedural justice and employee engagement (Kim & Park, 2017). A study by He, Zhu & Zhen (2015) found procedural justice is positively related to motivations for greater employee engagement. Karatepe (2011) found work engagement fully mediated the influence of procedural justice on the constructs of job performance and organisational commitment. Biswas, Varma and Ramaswami (2013) examined the interaction of procedural justice and employee engagement through social exchange influences. They found that procedural justice and employee engagement are both mediated by POS which is linked to fairness and justice through the notion of how much the organisation cares for their welfare and values their contributions. Inoue et al., (2010) examined organisational justice and work engagement in Japanese factory workers and found that Procedural justice and interactional justice were significantly positively connected to work engagement. As with Biswas, Varma and

Ramaswami (2013) study, POS was also found to mediate procedural justice and work engagement.

Employees who have positive perceptions of procedural justice in their enacting authority are more likely to reciprocate in fairness and engagement. Whereas negative perceptions of procedural justice could result in mistrust and disengagement from the job and organisation. Perceived procedural justice is identified as an antecedent to employee engagement in Saks' (2006) model, and the lack of empirical research in temporary settings warrants further investigation. Thus, this study hypothesises:

H5: Perceptions of procedural justice positively impacts (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client organisation.

3.3.6 Antecedent Hypothesis: Distributive Justice

Distributive justice differs from perceived procedural justice which focuses on the procedural transparency and fairness in an organisation's processes. Instead, distributive justice is concerned with fairness in the distribution and outcomes of resources and rights (He, Zhu & Zheng, 2014). Much of the empirical basis for distributive justice is anchored to social exchange theory and the notion of 'fairness'. This was driven by the work of Adams (1965) who proposed that employees were not wholly concerned with the degree of outcomes, but more that outcomes are fair. In consideration of Social Exchange Theory, employee effort goes into the organisation, the organisation compensates employees through adequate reward and recognition. If equality and fair outcomes are perceived, then reciprocity is more likely to take place. The opposite can also occur where negative perceptions exist (Biswas, Varma & Ramaswami, 2013).

Once again, the literature examining distributive justice and TAWs is rather limited (Cameraman, Cropanzano & Vandenberghe, 2007; Imhof & Andresen, 2017; Torika & Goedegebure, 2017; Lapalme & Doucet, 2018). Connelly, Gallagher and Webster (2011) highlight that temporary workers are at risk of injustice from both agency and client organisation. Feldman et al., (1994) agrees that their status may result in exclusion from organisation events, social gatherings, and social interactions with permanent colleagues. Rogers (2000) has found evidence of agencies deliberately misleading temporary workers

about key details of the assignment in the hope they will fulfill the vacancy. Some temporary workers have also been punished by being ignored and thereby exacerbating their job insecurity. In a study of Dutch and Polish low-skilled TAWs, Torka and Goedegebure (2017) examined distributive justice and leader-member exchange, in particular the quality of the relationships between TAW and supervisor and whether this impacted perceptions of distributive justice and contract status. Through semi-structured interviews and questionnaires, the findings suggest the quality of the leader-member exchange is mediated by contract status more than distributive justice. However, when the TAWs perceived a high quality relationship, it was the levels of perceived distributive justice, rather than contract status, that differentiated these participants from those who did not. Therefore, group differences may need to be accounted for in such comparative studies.

At the same time, Lapalme and Doucet (2018) examined the mediating effects of in-group identity (permanent employees) in a healthcare team when working alongside agency staff. Distributive justice, leader-inclusiveness, and perceived similarity towards TAWs had an indirect effect on in-group cooperation. These findings suggest that established employees who perceive themselves to be fairly treated, rewarded, and experience a collaborative supervisor, are more likely to see similarities between agency staff and the in-group. Therefore, managers should increase efforts and lead by example to create a collaborative environment, which is inclusive of both permanent and agency staff.

In permanent employee settings, distributive justice has been shown to have a direct relationship with turnover intention (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991), job satisfaction (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) and POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). A study by Ghosh, Rai and Sinha (2014) used Saks scale of job and organisation engagement along with Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) scales for procedural and distributive justice to survey 210 bank workers in India. Results revealed distributive and interactional justice had a stronger influence than procedural justice on job engagement. Furthermore, distributive justice was the most significant predictor of organisation engagement, followed by procedural justice. Thus, this study hypothesises:

H6: *Perceptions of distributive justice positively impact (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client organisation.*

In summary, an overarching research question has been presented **RQ1: *Do the commonly held antecedents of multidimensional engagement influence the TAWs job engagement and organisation engagement in the context of The Client Organisation?*** Subsequently, a set of hypotheses has been developed to align with the discussion points in this chapter and the constructs outlined in the antecedents of the Saks (2006) model. Each hypothesis will be tested. In total six hypotheses will be examined for this section of the model.

3.4 Development of Hypotheses for Outcomes

The literature shows a consensus towards employee engagement being an individual-level construct. While positive engagement is related to positive outcomes at an organisational level, such as performance, it initially impacts individual outcomes. Within this, researchers can explore employee engagement through intentions, behaviours, and attitudes (Saks, 2006). Employee engagement has been related to positive work affect, wellbeing, and health outcomes. As a result, positive emotions and attachments are generated and thought to translate into positive individual and organisational outcomes. Social exchange theory posits that the organisation and the employee operate within a set of exchange rules. The more trusted and considerate, then the more likely mutual commitment and strong relationships will exist in a reciprocal cycle (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Previous studies in this field have focused on a limited number of outcomes, however Saks' (2006) in one of the models to propose four outcomes of employee engagement, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit and organisational citizenship behaviour.

In this section, the overarching research question pertaining to the outcomes of employee engagement was presented **RQ2: *Does multidimensional employee engagement positively influence TAW outcomes and negatively influence intention to quit with The Client organisation?*** The determination of the underpinning hypotheses is now discussed.

3.5 Outcome Hypothesis: Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined as a positive emotional state of mind because of the job or job experiences one has (Locke, 1976). It is a popular area of research due to its positive relationship with job and task performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001), organisational citizenship behaviour and negative correlation with turnover intention (Tsai & Wu, 2010).

Research on job satisfaction and temporary workers has delivered mixed results. Several studies have found that temporary workers experience lower job satisfaction than their permanent counterparts (Tak & Lim, 2008; Aletraris, 2010; Wilkin, 2012). Alternatively, other studies have found higher to minimal differences (Guest & Clinton, 2006; Guest, Oakley, Clinton & Budjanovcanin, 2006). For many temporary workers, flexible working arrangements are highly convenient and allow for more family time or time for hobbies and study. Furthermore, some temporary agency workers may see it as a 'foot in the door' or the opportunity to gain work experience with organisations (de Graaf-Zijl, 2012). However, the results may also stem from an inconsistency in defining non-traditional workers. According to Connelly and Gallagher (2004) many researchers have presented temporary workers as one homogenous group. However, this is not the case in Wilkins (2012) meta-analysis of job satisfaction which shows differences in outcomes between temporary agency workers, contractors, and direct hire temps. There is a consensus that permanent workers and temporary workers receive different outcomes and that overall, experience lower rewards and as a result, are prone to lower job satisfaction (Wilkin, 2012).

In studies of temporary workers, there are several causes for low job satisfaction. These tend to be related to job insecurity and job characteristics (De Cuyper, Notelaers & De Witte, 2009; Aletraris, 2010). The relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction is less established. Akingbola and Van den Berg (2019) used elements of Saks' (2006) framework to examine job engagement and its influence on job satisfaction in non-profit organisations. Results revealed there was no support. However, they also used Saks' (2006) measure of organisation engagement and found a significant relationship. The discrepancy may be explained by the unique perceptions of non-profit employees who are more likely to have a greater positive focus on the organisational mission, what it stands for and their work environment. A meta-analysis by Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) found a significant relationship between employee satisfaction and employee engagement for permanent workers. When considering the influence of employee engagement levels on job satisfaction in temporary settings, the literature is sparse. However, the importance of job satisfaction as an outcome of employee engagement requires further investigation.

3.5.1 Outcome Hypothesis: Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is a prominent construct in organisational research and refers to the degree to which an individual identifies and is involved with a particular organisation (Porter et al.1974). Employees who are committed wish to maintain membership with the organisation. Employees will usually be more willing to exert effort towards the goals of the organisation and be accepting of organisational values (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979). This may explain why it has received some criticism for its overlapping similarity with some measures of employee engagement (Shrotryia & Dhanda, 2008).

Commitment literature has shown consistent outcomes positively related to job satisfaction, job performance, organisational citizenship behaviour, low absenteeism, and retention in permanent employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Van Breugel, Van Olffen & Olie, 2005). Prior to 2001, there was little research undertaken into organisational commitment and temporary workers (Gallagher & Parks, 2001). Akingbola and Van den Berg (2017) used Saks' (2006) measures of job and organisation engagement to examine the relationship with organisational commitment. They found that there was some support for a positive relationship between job engagement and organisational commitment, however there was strong support for the relationship between organisational engagement and commitment. This supports the notion of Saks' multidimensional theory of employee engagement. The discrepancy may be due to the sample being from non-profit organisation's where there is a focus on mission over task. However, Gallagher and Parks (2001) highlighted temporary workers as a vital component to modern workforces. Their research into non-traditional workers and work commitment examined different types of commitment, namely normative, continuance and affective in this context (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Furthermore, they accounted for differences in the intensity of commitment and foci. Temporary help services, as well as in-house support and independent contractors were assessed, and results supported the notion that temporary workers are not one homogenous group. Organisational commitment differed in intensity between tasks, employer, and client organisation. Temporary help services, which included temporary agency workers, showed commitment to both agency and client organisation. Moreover, there is a commitment to job tasks which are typically set by The Client, this appears to fulfil the temporary agency worker's obligations to both agency and client organisation.

Chambel, Castanheira and Sobral (2016) compared TAWs commitment and work engagement. Their study showed that human resource practices moderate employee engagement and affective commitment more strongly for permanent workers. As HR practices deal with an employee's needs and goals it is not unusual for both permanent and temporary workers to show commitment to the organisation. This reflects the nature of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Furthermore, when temporary agency workers perceived that socio-emotional support was forthcoming from The Client organisation (through the HR processes), positive attitudes were present translating to higher levels of affective commitment. This was above the level of permanent workers. This suggests that temporary agency workers can form strong attitudes based on the type of treatment they receive from The Client organisation (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002). Results also showed that employee engagement is moderated by the perception of how much their wellbeing is considered, the higher the perception, the greater affective commitment and emotional attachment, again this reflects the essence of social exchange theory. More recently, a study of organisational commitment and TAWs in India found lower levels of commitment compared to traditional workers in the firm. The authors cite job insecurity, limited social support and the lack of training and career opportunities (Singh & Rathore, 2021). Prior to this, De Cuyper et al. (2012) examined organisational commitment and TAWs with a focus on procedural justice. Their study found that TAWs who perceived higher levels of procedural justice demonstrated increased levels of commitment. Despite a growing interest in TAW research, the relationship between employee engagement, TAWs and commitment has received limited attention from the academic community. Hence, further rigorous research is needed to advance our understanding of TAWs and their sense of organisational commitment and the implications for engagement, the actors involved, and the implications for policy and practice (Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006; Kanste, 2011).

3.5.2 Outcome Hypothesis: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) refers to behaviour that is “discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ et al., 2005 p.3). It includes behaviours such as conscientiousness, civic virtue, helpfulness, and fairness to colleagues (Akingbola & Van den Berg, 2019). In other words, OCB has the capacity to promote positive working environments, collegiality, as well as enhanced organisational and job performance (LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002). This is an important construct for examination as it has been

linked to retention, job and organisational performance, productivity, organisational flexibility, and adaptability (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2000).

Saks (2006) determines OCB is a consequence of positive employee engagement. This is supported in a study by Sonnentag (2003) who found employee engagement was positively related to organisational commitment, job performance and proactive work behaviour. Furthermore, Saks' breaks OCB down into OCBI - organisational citizenship behaviour as directed towards the individual, and OCBO - organisational citizenship behaviour as directed towards the organisation. Saks (2006) found a significant variance between job and organisation engagement and OCBO and OCBI. However, organisation engagement only approached significance with OCBI and job engagement was non-significant. However, in the study by Akingbola and Van den Berg (2019) Saks' measures of engagement and the same measures he used for OCB were used on non-profit employees showed a significant relationship between job engagement and OCBI, but limited support for OCBO. Organisational engagement was significantly related to OCBO, but not OCBI.

The literature shows variation in the findings of OCB and the underlying drivers for temporary workers. Liden et al., (2003) found that high commitment was a reliable predictor of OCB towards The Client Organisation. Connelly, Gallagher and Webster (2011) suggest that temporary workers are particularly attuned to the attitudes they form, this can often account for levels of commitment and OCB. Pearce (1993) on the other hand, suggested that temporary workers may report higher levels of OCB than permanent colleagues due to a narrow interpretation of their job descriptions. Overall, the findings suggest that The Client organisation is a key influence on attitudes towards engagement and commitment levels, resulting in the extent to which temporary workers will exhibit OCB. However, a study by Moorman and Harland (2002) found that client -directed OCB was dependent on temporary worker's attitudes towards the agency. Temporary workers who showed a high degree of commitment to their agency exhibited increased client OCB. This could be explained by the dual employment structure and spill over effect, with the temporary workers believing both Agency and Client Organisation share responsibilities. Social exchange theory would suggest a shared attitude towards reciprocity is generated in this context. Therefore, OCB is predicted to be an outcome influenced by employee engagement for both Agency and Client Organisation. Thus, we hypothesize:

***H7:** Job engagement will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, (c) organisational citizenship behaviour (individual), (d) organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)*

***H8:** Organisation engagement will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, (c) organisational citizenship behaviour (individual), (d) organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)*

3.5.3 Outcome Hypothesis: Turnover intention

Intention to quit, also known as turnover intention, refers to a strategic response to leave the job, the employer or even the work profession (Alarcon & Edwards, 2011). In terms of Temporary agency workers, this may include the assignment and/or the Agency and client organisation. Extant literature pertaining to permanent employees shows that turnover intention has a strong predictive relationship to organisational commitment, organisational performance, and job satisfaction (Holtom et al. 2008), organisational identity and job satisfaction (Van Dick et al. 2004) and withdrawal cognitions at work (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000). Saks (2006) found that both job engagement and organisation engagement were significant predictors of intention to quit. However, using the same measures Akingbola and Van den Berg (2019) found there was no support for the negative relationship between job engagement and employees' intention to quit. However, there was strong support for organisation engagement and its negative relationship and the intention to quit. This could be explained by the sample being from non-profit organisations where psychological connections are more related to the organisation and its mission.

For temporary workers the empirical evidence is sparse, however in an exploratory study by Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) showed that positive attitudes towards the Agency and The Client Organisation resulted in high organisational commitment, job satisfaction and a negative influence on turnover intention. This is consistent with past findings on permanent employees. Attitudes influenced by agency support, benefits, pay, and supervision underpinned a negative relationship with an intention to quit. In terms of The Client organisation, assignments that offered temporary workers the opportunity to learn and develop new skills, and received support from its permanent employees and supervisors, showed higher commitment levels and

much lower turnover intention. However, the relationship in temporary settings is less understood. Thus, this study hypothesises:

H9: *Job engagement and organisation engagement will be negatively and significantly related to intention to quit*

In summary, an overarching research question has been presented *pertaining to employee engagement outcomes* **RQ2** *Does multidimensional employee engagement positively influence TAW outcomes and negatively influence intention to quit with The Client organisation?* A set of hypotheses has been developed to align with the discussion points in this chapter and the constructs outlined in the consequences of the Saks (2006) model. Each hypothesis is tested from the Agency and Client Organisation perspective.

3.5.4 Mediators and Hypotheses Development

As discussed previously, there is limited research on the role of organisation engagement in comparison to job engagement, and even fewer studies in the context of TAWs (Bailey et al., 2017). Saks (2006) was the first to examine the mediating role of job engagement and organisational engagement as distinct constructs. Since then, several studies have shown support for both forms of engagement being experienced as separate forms of engagement (see Table 9). However, what is unknown is whether this is the case with TAWs and Reissner and Pagan (2013) conclude there is a lack of research into the inter-relationship between job and organisational engagement. Therefore, the third research question was formed in response **RQ3.** *Does multidimensional engagement comprise of distinct forms of engagement and is this applicable to the context of TAWs?*

Job engagement and organisation engagement are placed as mediating variables in the model and there are previous studies which show support for the mediation effects of either or both forms of engagement. However, there are no studies to date and to the author's knowledge that directly test the influence of job engagement on organisation engagement and examine the relationship. This relationship may determine whether positive job engagement has an influence on organisation engagement and to what degree? Thus, this study hypothesises:

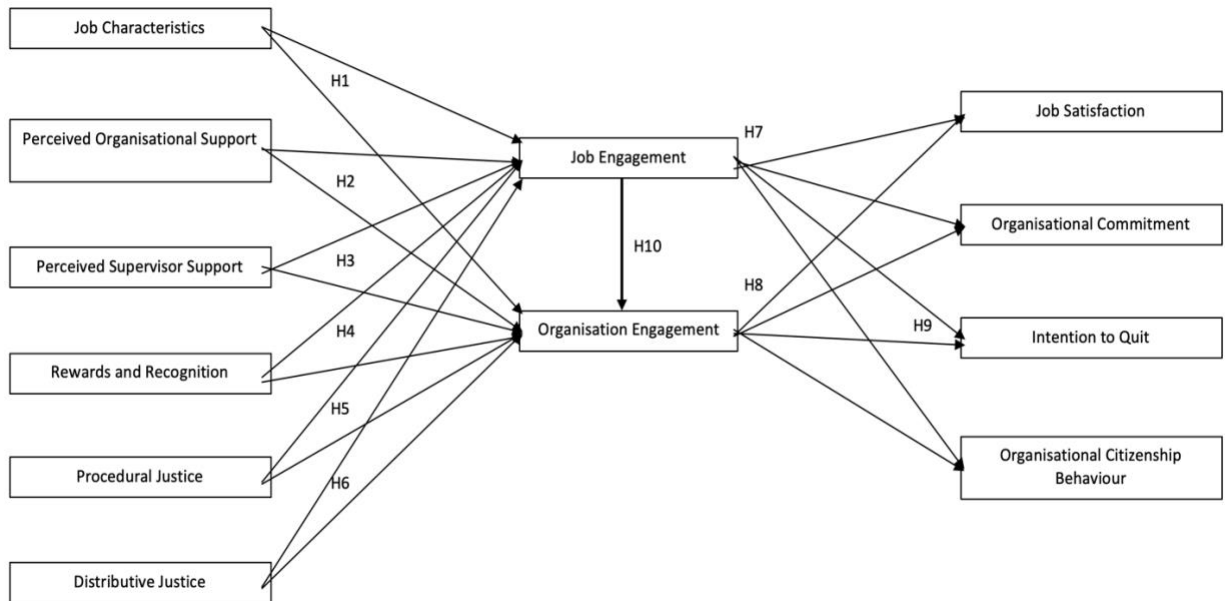
H10: *Job engagement will have a significant positive influence on organisation engagement*

In summary, the three research questions presented explore the influence of antecedent constructs through the mediating variables of job and organisation engagement and the subsequent outcomes. The ten hypotheses tested are summarised in Table 11 below.

Table 11: Summary of the hypotheses

Research Question	Hypotheses	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Predictive Outcome
RQ1: <i>Do the commonly held antecedents of multidimensional engagement influence the TAWs job engagement and organisation engagement in the context of The Client Organisation?</i>	H1	Job Characteristics (JC)	Job Engagement & organisation engagement	Job characteristics have a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation
	H2	Perceived Organisational Support (POS)	Job Engagement & organisation engagement	Perceived organisational support (POS) has a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation
	H3	Perceived supervisor support (PSS)	Job Engagement & organisation engagement	Perceived supervisor support (PSS) has a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation
	H4	Rewards and Recognition (RR)	Job Engagement & organisation engagement	Rewards and recognition have a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation
	H5	Procedural justice (PJ)	Job Engagement & organisation engagement	Perceptions of procedural justice positively impact (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation
	H6	Distributive Justice (DJ)	Job Engagement & organisation engagement	Perceptions of distributive justice positively impact (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement for at The Client Organisation
RQ2: <i>Does multidimensional employee engagement positively influence TAW outcomes and negatively influence intention to quit with The Client organisation?</i>	H7	Job Engagement	Job Satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and Intention to quit	Job engagement will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, (c) organisational citizenship behaviour (individual), (d) organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)
	H8	Organisation Engagement	Job Satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour	Organisation engagement will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, (c) organisational citizenship behaviour (individual), (d) organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)
	H9	Job Engagement & organisation engagement	Intention to quit	Job engagement and organisation engagement will be negatively and significantly related to intention to quit
RQ3: <i>Does multidimensional engagement comprise of distinct forms of engagement and is this applicable to the context of TAWs?</i>	H10	Job Engagement	Organisation engagement	Job engagement will have a significant positive influence on organisation engagement

Figure 8: Proposed research model of hypothesised antecedents and consequences of job and organisation engagement



3.5.5 Summary of Hypotheses Development

The diffusion of temporary agency workforces provides beneficial flexibility and independence for both the individual and organisation, particularly during financially volatile climates (Virtanen et al., 2005). This expanding market means that employment agencies are increasingly competitive and willing to offer tailored solutions and high-volume supply to meet the needs of their clients. Given the transactional nature of short-term employment and complexity of dual roles for contingent workers, agencies can experience high attrition rates (Druker & Stanworth, 2004). Therefore, retention of quality TAWs is key to the successful performance of the agency and organisation (otherwise referred to as the ‘assignment’). This raises challenges for researchers, management, and human resources development in that much of the established literature is based on permanent employees. Therefore, the extent of applicability to contingent workforces is arguably limited (Connelly, Gallagher & Gilley, 2007).

Employee engagement is recognised as a key contributor towards job performance, commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours and discretionary effort (Rich, LePine & Crawford, 2010; Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011).

From an organisational context, employee engagement underpins higher productivity, organisational performance, growth, and profit (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). However, the components that generate employee engagement and commitment may differ in temporary workforces. Positive employee engagement and commitment have both been linked to job satisfaction and organisational performance (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002). Moreover, positive employee engagement has been shown to considerably reduce turnover intention (Saks, 2006; Shuck, Reio & Rocco, 2011; Yalabik et al., 2013). However much of the established empirical evidence is predicated on research of those with employees holding permanent employment contracts. Therefore, a set of appropriate hypotheses were developed in response to the aim of this research.

3.6 Chapter Summary

The first part of this chapter we drew upon the existing literature of employee engagement and highlighted several gaps in knowledge. The chapter introduced the construct of employee engagement and provided a working definition adopted in this study. The chapter then explored the underpinning theories which inform many of the models, frameworks and measures implemented today. Several the antecedents (job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice, and distributive justice) and outcomes of employee engagement (job satisfaction, organisational behaviour, intention to quit, organisational citizenship behaviour) were then discussed.

In the second part of this chapter, the focus turned examining measurement tools of employee engagement and some of the methodological limitations from the existing literature. An appropriate model was identified as a lens with which to operationalise this study. The Saks multidimensional model, predicated on SET theory was selected. The model includes constructs and interactions widely established in organisational behaviour literature and is one of the few to examine job and organisation engagement as separate constructs. Whilst Saks has seen numerous applications in the literature, the examination of the antecedents and outcomes through the lens of employee engagement has yet to be applied to temporary agency workers. Finally, a set of 10 hypotheses were developed for testing in the context of temporary agency workers. The research methodology adopted to test the model is discussed in the next chapter.

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Chapter Introduction

Chapter four discusses the methodological approaches taken for this research. Section 4.2 outlines the research framework leading into section 4.3 which discusses the underpinning philosophical assumptions, as well as appropriate research strategies and aligned qualitative methods for the development of the research instrument (section 4.4). Section 4.5 outlines the sampling procedure. Data collection procedures are elucidated in section 4.6, followed by insight into the data analysis tools used in this research (section 4.7). Finally, a summary of the chapter is presented in section 4.8.

4.2 Determining the Methodological Framework

The research approach is predicated on the research paradigm. This informs which research method is suitable for this endeavour. It is therefore necessary to reflect upon the research philosophies and subsequent approaches to determine an appropriate research framework which will inform and achieve the objectives of the research (Saunders & Lewis, 2019).

The relationship between research and theory is an important one and will influence the approach taken by the researcher in the pursuit of knowledge (Stake, 2013). Furthermore, the theoretical perspective and the methodological approach will be underpinned by philosophical positions which will begin and end with epistemological and ontological concerns (Johnson, 2014). The combination of which will underpin the rationale for the research methodology. This is important in understanding the researcher's position, for example knowing the researcher's perspective on reality (ontology) and knowing their parameters of acceptable knowledge (epistemology) supports the justification for the 'why' and 'how' with regards to conducting the research (Smith, 2015).

The shape of the study is informed by its theoretical framework which determines the motivation, focus, and expectations of the research. Creswell (1998) stresses that the research design process starts with philosophical assumptions (see Table 12). Furthermore, paradigms, researcher beliefs and worldviews inform the writing. A paradigm in this case, is considered an organising structure

concerning “a deeper philosophical position relating to the nature of social phenomena or social structures” (Feilzer, 2010, p.7). Paradigm is directly linked to research as an epistemological position. It guides the research design and endeavour and underpins the articulation of established theories. Moreover, paradigms can be considered as dogmatic, necessitating specific research methods whilst excluding others. However, it should be noted that Kuhn (2012) views this as a limitation in terms of intellectual constraint and limiting researchers to exercise wider consideration of the numerous facets of social phenomena.

Four philosophical assumptions may influence a researcher’s choice of research strategy and methodology (Yin, 2018). Such assumptions are concerned with a particular position on the nature of reality (ontology); how the individual knows what they know, in other words, an awareness of the relationship between what is being researched and the researcher (epistemology); the role of values acknowledging that research is prone to biases and interpretations (axiology); and the process of the research within its context (methodological assumptions). A further philosophical assumption related to qualitative research is that of rhetorical assumption. This is based on the language of research or literary style of the researcher (Alvesson & Deetz, 2000). However, it will not be discussed further as the research design is quantitative in nature.

Opposing paradigms are typically constructivism/interpretivism and positivism/postpositivism (Morgan, 2007). The positivist stance is that of a single reality in existence ready to be discovered by value-free inquiry (quantitative research). Diametrically opposed to this is the constructivist view, which believes in subjective inquiry and rejects the notion of a single objective reality. Instead, subjective inquiry is the only possible route to discovery, hence why constructivists tend to take a qualitative approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Whilst critical research, post-structuralist, postmodernist and feminist have all made nuanced yet important contributions, constructivism/interpretivism and positivism/postpositivism are the wider frameworks which still dominate epistemological discussion and the methodological texts (Feilzer, 2010).

Table 12: Assumptions of quantitative and qualitative paradigm

Assumption	Question posed by assumption	Features of the assumption	Assumptions in quantitative research
Ontological	What is reality?	There is an objective reality; outsider’s point of view (*also known as etic)	Begins with hypotheses and/or theories
Epistemological	What is the relationship between the research and the topic under investigation?	The research does not have any personal effect on what is being researched (detached and impartial)	The research may be conducted in a laboratory; formal instruments are used; experimentation may be part of the process. The researcher is independent of what is being studied.
Axiological	What role do personal values play in the investigation?	The researcher’s values do not form part of the investigation; objective portrayal	The study is value-free and unbiased.
Rhetorical	What type of language is used?	The language is formal based on set definitions; reduces data to numerical indices	Abstract language is used in reporting the results of the study. Scientific theory may be used to explain the data.
Methodological	How is research conducted?	Cause and effect; generalisations are made which may lead to prediction, explanation and understanding; the methods are reliable and valid.	All aspects of the study are designed before data are collected. Manipulation and control variables may be used in the study, components of the study are analysed, and deductive analysis conducted.

4.2.1 Ontology

Ontology asserts that there are multiple constructs of reality which cannot be fully interpreted. Constructs are unique to the individual and may depend on personal experiences, contexts, and frames of reference, for example ‘What is democracy?’ (Goertz & Mahoney, 2012). Whilst qualitative research endeavours to examine the phenomenological attributes of an event, concept or entity, quantitative research begins with the assumption of variables. The aim is to identify causality or the strength of relationships with the latent variable (Guyon et al., 2018). However, two central positions exist within this philosophical position - objectivism and constructivism (also known as constructionism).

Objectivism: is predicated on the notion that social phenomena present themselves as external realities or facts which remain outside of an individual's influence or reach (Vogl, Schmidt & Zartler, 2019). In other words, this position implies that social phenomena exist independently from social actors. To illustrate this concept, an organisation can be considered as a tangible entity. It might have processes and procedures for achieving tasks, a hierarchical structure of management and a workforce dedicated to specific roles, shared values and so on. The existence of such structures will of course vary between organisations.

Objectivism posits that the organisation has its own objective reality that exists externally to the individuals who work there. Furthermore, the organisation symbolises a form of 'social order' which individuals who are engaged with it are expected to conform to. Failure to do so may result in them being reprimanded or even dismissed from their role. Therefore, the organisation places constraints onto the individual and acts upon them (Arnold & Randall, 2016).

Constructivism: adopts the position that social phenomena is under constant revision by way of social interaction. Furthermore, constructivism has evolved to include constructs of the world brought by the researchers own sense of social reality (Bryman, 2016). In the case of the organisation, the ontological view of constructivism would determine that order and rules are less likely to be pre-existing characteristics, but that order evolves and changes through interaction, understanding, negotiation and agreement between individuals.

This would imply that the organisation's accomplishments are not completely dependent on the application of process and protocol or management structures and roles. The stance of constructivism suggests that continued everyday interaction creates meaning and plays an important role in enabling the organisation to achieve progress (Vogl, Schmidt & Zartler, 2019). In terms of organisations such as large-scale warehouses which are heavily process-driven, temporary agency workforces are less likely to be part of the co-development of the rules, protocols and understanding.

The relationship between ontology and social research conduct is heavily aligned (Bryman, 2016). Ontological commitments and assumptions tend to formulate the research questions and determine

the research approach. For example, when considering the organisation as a social entity, it must be determined whether it acts upon the members. If this is the case, then it is likely that emphasis will be placed on the structures and formalities of the organisation. In contrast, if the organisation is considered as a frame of reference in the research, then objective categories may become the focus and emphasis placed on the members contribution to the construction of reality (Scotland, 2012). Debate as to which ontological position lends itself most effectively to social science research remains contentious. It is evident both assumptions hold advantages and limitations.

Consideration of the ontological literature, together with a review of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, suggest that this research is aligned to an objectivist position. The conceptualisation and subsequent hypotheses are reflective of the theoretical perspectives and evidence of causation-effect relationships rather than researcher beliefs. Therefore, this research takes an ontological objectivist position.

4.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemological considerations are reflective of questions related to ‘what should be?’ or of ‘what is considered as valid and acceptable knowledge?’ in a particular discipline (Scotland, 2012). There is ongoing discussion as to whether social sciences research should follow similar procedures and principles to those of the natural sciences? The researcher acknowledges that are several epistemological positions. However, this section focuses on the four key epistemological paradigms – positivism, post-positivism, interpretivist, pragmatism and transformative (Al-Ababneh, 2020).

Positivism is based on the philosophical underpinnings of Francis Bacon and Aristotle (Arnold & Randall, 2016), positivism supports a scientific approach to social research through testing, predicting, observing, measuring, and controlling conditions. Such a logical and reductionist approach lends itself to empirical data collection and the search for evidence of cause and effect (Lewis, 2015). The key terms related to the positivist research paradigm is listed in Table 13.

Table 13: Key terms related to positivist research

Term	Description (source: Park, Konge, & Artino, 2020)
Dependent variable	Measures of interest (outcomes) in the study; unlike independent variables, dependent variables can only be measured, not manipulated.
Dualism	Separation of researcher and participants in study design and data collection to minimize bias.
Effect size	Quantified metric reflecting the impact of an intervention, expressed in standardized units to allow comparison across studies.
Functional relationship	Association between a study’s independent and dependent variables, often expressed quantitatively, through direct or indirect effects (e.g., increase in independent variables also increases the dependent variable). Functional relationships can also be causal, where the impact of independent variables causes the results of the outcome to change.
Hypothesis	A statement or idea derived from theory or literature that can be tested through experimentation.
Hypothetico-deductive model	Scientific model based on forming a testable hypothesis and developing an empirical study to confirm or reject the hypothesis.
Independent variable	Factors that influence outcomes of the study; independent variables can be manipulated (e.g., assigning study participants to treatment or control groups) or measured.
Internal validity	Evidence and inference supporting the “causal” relationship between the independent and dependent variables.
Laws of nature	Synthesis of scientific discoveries and theories that form the foundation of how nature operates; examples include our scientific understanding of how time and space operate, through scientific findings in physics.

Post-positivist is based on the notion that robust theories have the capacity to influence research, except for the theory being tested. Whilst research inquiry is likely to involve a series of logical stages, the view of a single reality is rarely accepted. Instead, participant perspectives are acknowledged as complex, multiple, and varied. Research practice tends to involve a variety of data analysis methods for rigor and validity (Lewis, 2015).

Interpretivism: is based on a core set of ideas relating to the unique subjectivism of the individual and the social construction of reality (Mertens, 2014). As such, it emphasises a focus on specific details, these details harness subjective meanings and thus reality (Wahyuni, 2012). The research endeavour will often aim to explore specific situations or issues using multiple perspectives. Interpretation of the data, particularly qualitative data, is conducted with respect and sensitivity to

the subjective nature of the participant's reality. Theoretical perspectives such as critical theory, postmodernism, disability theory and feminist theories are anchored to similar core ideas (Creswell, 1998). This suggests that there is an organic development in the researcher relationship and a reliance on a neutral stance towards the participant and the data they provide. Moreover, this also suggests that this approach is reliant on the quality of the 'researcher – participant' relationship to provide rich data and insights. One possible criticism of the interpretivist stance is somewhat unpredictable and that multiple realities create confliction (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020).

Transformative has emerged in response to the limitations posed by the constructionist/interpretivist approaches. According to Mertens (2018) this stance includes perspectives which are participatory, emancipatory, and inclusive. She states that the transformative paradigm is predicated on epistemological, methodological, and ontological assumptions which differ from those underpinning the constructivist/interpretivist and postpositivist world views. Mertens goes on to explain that the transformative paradigm gives importance to the experiences and lives of marginalised groups. The transformative paradigm can be applied where a variety of data collection tools and analysis is needed, as it lends itself to complexity, particularly behavioural complexity (both unobservable assumptions and observable). Therefore, such a paradigm can be seen adopted by mixed method approaches to develop a stronger research design to capture a more holistic view of social world ideas (Jackson et al., 2018). The role of the researcher is to take the results of the social research and link it to action. Furthermore, these results should connect to a wider remit of social justice and inequality thus raising questions around "how" and "should" (Mertens, 2012). However, Romm (2015) highlights that the transformative paradigm is used as an umbrella term for research approaches and that it has a close link with a critical systematic approach and postcolonial paradigms and practices. Dillard (2006) disagrees that the transformative paradigm should encompass indigenous research and Romm (2015) believes that this paradigm could be enhanced by acknowledging the constructivist stance that we can only discover versions of realities.

Pragmatism circumnavigates the issues of empirical inquiry across multiple and singular realities by focusing on the integration of different perspectives to find solutions for 'real world' problems (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Simpson & den Hond, 2022). Therefore, this 'problem-solving'

paradigm tends to centre on ‘meanings of actions’, and consequences. Pragmatism is essentially considered anti-dualist as it enables the researcher to avoid the constraints of the dichotomy between constructivism and postpositivist perspectives. Such a position allows for variance and even collision between different research methods, thus invariably lending itself to mixed methods research. Simpson and den Hond (2022) note the attraction of pragmatism to mixed method researchers given its propensity towards problem-solving. However, Dewey (1925, as cited in Feilzer, 2010, p. 8) highlighted the notion of an experiential world for the individual, consisting of multiple layers of both precarious and stable reality (Dewey, 1925, p.40,) and whilst the dominant paradigms of subjectivism and positivism are united in their position to find the truth (relative or objective) yet divergent in their consideration of singular and multiple realities, pragmatism argues that through the convergence of methodological approaches there is common ground at an ontological and epistemological level in that commonalities are to be found amongst their approaches to the research inquiry (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020).

4.2.3 Epistemological Position

Thus far, the four dominant epistemological paradigms have been discussed along with their strengths and limitations. This research aims to measure and understand the nature of TAW attitudes and subsequent behaviours towards engagement with The Client organisation. Given this scientific approach to social research through testing, predicting, and measuring data. A logical and reductionist approach lends itself to the approach and the search for evidence of cause and effect.

Axiology is generally viewed by researchers as part of an epistemological position (Carter & Little, 2007; Maarouf, 2019). It is primarily concerned with values, in this case researcher values in the research process. Whilst positivist and postpositivist researchers tend to maintain a sterile and standardized position in their inquiries to avoid the influence of researcher biases, Ponterotto (2005) argues that the selection of the subject matter itself reflects researcher values. The researcher may try to minimise value biases by avoiding close or regular contact with participants or employing research assistants to collect the data (Zaidi & Larsen, 2018).

In contrast, interpretivists/constructivists acknowledge the unavoidable influence of the researcher's lived experience and values on the process. It is important to note that a constructivist position tends to focus on the lived experience and include prolonged interaction between researcher and participants, therefore value biases are naturally present (Bogna, Raneri & Dell, 2020). As a result, this position encourages the disclosure of the researcher's values, insisting these are bracketed, but not eliminated. The researcher may record their research expectations before the study commences and then review these at the end of the study to see whether their value biases have impacted the outcomes (Maarouf, 2019).

Philosophical positions have associated ethical implications and affect the research design in different ways. Therefore, axiology plays a significant role in how knowledge is gathered, assembled, and presented in relation to broader sets of values.

4.2.4 Summary and Philosophical Position of the Research

When planning a research study, the approach is determined by a range of epistemological, ontological, and axiological positions. According to Oppong (2014) such positions may not always be known by the researcher. The paradigm adopted will often be influenced by the problem being investigated (Hoddy, 2019). According to Braun and Clarke (2020) our world view is predicated on our experiences, knowledge, and scholarship. Knowing the researcher's perspective on reality (ontology) and knowing their parameters of acceptable knowledge (epistemology) supports the justification for the 'why' and 'how' with regards to conducting the research (Smith, 2015).

The positivist stance is that of a single reality in existence ready to be discovered by value-free inquiry (quantitative research). Diametrically opposed to this is the constructivist view, which believes in subjective inquiry and rejects the notion of a single objective reality. The researcher has an undergraduate degree in Counselling and psychology which acknowledges the merits in both positions for the purposes of the enquiry. Counselling theory places emphasis on qualitative inquiry and the individual as an expert of their own reality. The research opportunity drew the researcher towards a scientific investigation and the 'clean lines', accuracy and distance quantitative measures enabled rapid data collection under restricted circumstances. The researcher

acknowledges that there are several epistemological positions. Positivism supports a scientific approach to social research through testing, predicting, observing, measuring, and controlling conditions. The science of Psychology placed emphasis on objectivism and positivism as opposed to counselling's philosophical underpinnings. The value of objectivity in research alongside the importance of the individual's reality often conflicted at this level. The researcher believes there is value in both positions and the research projects she is involved with as part of her job role tend to be mixed methods as a result. Furthermore, the researcher is often challenged by external partners on whether quantitative data and qualitative data enables context and explanatory detail to be wrapped around the findings.

Due to the complexity of Saks' (2006) model, the application to a new context and the limited access to the cohort at the site, the researcher deemed objectivity as key. Therefore, selecting data collection based on measures that would be the most appropriate under these circumstances. Strong trusted relationships were not viable under such conditions and therefore this research is aligned to an objectivist position. The conceptualisation and subsequent hypotheses are reflective of the theoretical perspectives and evidence of causation-effect relationships rather than researcher beliefs. Such a logical and reductionist approach lends itself to empirical data collection and the search for evidence of cause and effect (Lewis, 2015). In conclusion, the researcher adopts a positivist stance for this thesis.

4.3 Methodological Assumptions

Thus far, this section has discussed the dominant philosophies associated with research paradigms. To adopt a particular ontological stance tends to anchor the researcher to the paradigm's particular epistemological position or methodological assumptions. Methodological assumptions are related to the appropriate research methods for the collection of empirical evidence in consideration of the paradigm. This process is outlined in Saunders et al., (2007) well known 'research onion'. These typically fall into two approaches - deductive or inductive. Although abductive approaches have been noted in variations of the model (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

A deductive approach comprises of the testing of a theoretical proposition by implementing a research strategy appropriate to perform a test. it can be considered as a 'top down' approach to

theory development as it moves from broader theories and generalisations towards a specific focus. According to Saunders and Lewis (2018) this approach relies on clear methodological structures and usually consists of five stages: (1) From the general theory, establishing the research question (2) structuring the research questions to reflect what is happening to be established e.g. a hypothesis relating to the interaction between certain variables (3) data collection appropriate to the research questions or testing the hypothesis (4) analysis of the data to establish whether it supports the general theory or needs revision (5) confirmation of findings. This approach lends itself to clearly defined methodologies which enable replication and moreover, reliability. Therefore, quantitative methods and statistical analysis reside within this approach, and it is largely adopted by positivist researchers. Quantitative research permits data collection across a larger sample size and allows for a greater variety of characteristics (Bryman, 2016). Such an objective approach has been criticised by subjectivists, who argue that it constrains the scope of the research, reducing human behaviour to its basic elements (Wahyuni, 2012). Moreover, the deductive approach limits the exploration of deeper insights based on meanings, motivations and examination and understanding of other phenomena.

In contrast, induction is a research approach that utilises the data collected to build theory, it is therefore more reflective of a 'bottom up' approach in terms of theory development. Moving from more contracted observations towards wider theories and generalisations, inductive reasoning is predicated on recurring instances, patterns of phenomena and the formulation of propositions based on observations. These observations may also warrant further investigation. The end goal is to further theoretical development or develop general conclusions (Saunders and Lewis, 2018).

Inductivist researchers are frequently striving to understand phenomena related to the meanings human beings give to certain events or situations. Therefore, induction is popular amongst behavioural researchers and tends to exist within an interpretivist paradigm by predominantly adopting qualitative approaches. Furthermore, a close understanding the research context is essential. Unlike the more rigid facets of a deductive approach, induction operates within more flexible structures to allow for the influence of emerging phenomena as the research progresses (Saunders and Lewis, 2018). However, Azungah (2018) highlights the issue of not establishing research questions at the outset of the study and instead relying on an emergent strategy. This holds

wider implications for issues of reliability and validity, small sample sizes and ability to generalise findings to the wider population. However, subjectivists contest that such an approach can gather rich and detailed data which provide insights unattainable by a deductive approach (Bryman, 2016).

Given that this thesis is based on a theory-driven approach and aligns with the existing literature in the field of organisational behaviour and in particular, work engagement, this research will adopt a deductive approach and examine existing theory through the development of hypotheses and statistical analysis.

4.3.1 Differences Between Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

The decision to adopt either a qualitative or quantitative approach to the study (or both) tends to be based on a particular philosophical assumption. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008) when considering whether to use a qualitative or quantitative methods, four key factors need to be addressed (1) Consideration of the worldview or paradigm that will inform the study (2) what or who will be the focus of the study (3) what research strategy will be the most appropriate (4) Which research tools or methods will be utilised to collect and analyse the data.

Further development of the research approach is influenced by (1) the research questions (2) previous studies in the field (3) the structure of the research design (4) the aims of the research – contributions and prospective outputs (Johnston, 2014).

Quantitative research uses mathematical and statistical analysis to explain phenomena, test theory, discover measurable interactions between variables, and/or predict certain outcomes of results (Guerin, Leugi & Thain, 2018). As a result, researchers tend to use pre-determined response categories or pre-constructed standardised measures. Sample sizes are usually large enabling for the generalisation of responses. However, participants are limited to the number of questions (based on theory) and in their responses. This limits the data with regards to the depth and insights of the context, event or experience encountered by the participant and the meaning ascribed to it (Patton, 2002).

In contrast, qualitative research does not rely on quantifiable means, but rather a deeper exploration of phenomena. It is less concerned with measuring, predicting or deductive reasoning but focused on inductive approaches which aim to understand, interpret, find meaning and capture phenomena (Queirós, Faria & Almeida, 2017). According to Yilmaz (2013), it is a naturalistic process - inductive, emergent, and interpretative in nature. Drawing on philosophical structures and underpinnings, it allows for important details to be captured in their natural settings and often reveal phenomena through descriptive terms and the meanings individual's attach to events and experiences. Sample sizes tend purposeful and therefore smaller than in quantitative studies, these limit generalising the findings to the wider population. Data collection can often take place over a long period of time and may be reliant on the formation of strong relationships between participants and the researcher. The presence of the researcher's world view and biases may also need to be accounted for in the analysis of the data (Yilmaz, 2013; Bryman, 2016). Furthermore, qualitative research traditions are varied in terms of research strategies and methodologies. Through interviews and observations, participants can elucidate their reality and world view (Queirós, Faria & Almeida, 2017). With this in mind, and as previously discussed, qualitative research typically assumes a subjective ontological position. Epistemologically, it may adopt a pragmatic, transformative or interpretivist position which in turn may warrant an inductive approach. In contrast, quantitative research often demands an objective ontology and a positivist epistemological position (Bryman, 2016). It is widely acknowledged that both approaches have limitations, however they can also offset those limitations by complementing each other (Creswell, 2016).

When considering the virtues of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, some researchers suggest that by integrating elements from both and developing a 'mixed method approach', a greater holistic understanding can be obtained (Harrison, Reilly & Creswell, 2020). Furthermore, mixed methods approaches have been utilised to explicate or corroborate initial findings, increase validity, elaborate, and develop a depth of understanding, provide a fuller picture or description, and present conclusions with greater confidence (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). However, the use of a mixed methods approach demands increased time and effort at each stage of the research process which many researchers are unable to accommodate (Timans, Wouters & Heilbron, 2019). Notwithstanding the merits of such a holistic approach, the focus of this thesis

will adopt a positivist epistemology and an objective ontology. This supports a deductive methodology and subsequently a quantitative approach reflects the most appropriate method achieving the research aims and objectives for this study.

4.4 Research Methods

There are several quantitative research tools and methods available for social researchers to utilise in their work, these include the analysis of content and secondary data, structured interviews and observation and self-completion questionnaires (Bryman, 2016). These will be discussed in more detail below and the most appropriate methods for this study identified.

4.4.1 Secondary data

Secondary data consists of data previously collected by another researcher for different purpose. Data can be qualitative or quantitative in nature and stem from numerous sources such as government and non-government agencies, private and public sector organisations, and news archives. Secondary data can provide large, high quality and even longitudinal data sets through to highly nuanced data sets from specialist sources for a fraction of the cost and time it would take for primary data collection (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Furthermore, the data may have been gathered from participants that the current researcher might not have access to and on a scale which is not possible when resources are limited (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). Accessibility of secondary data is growing increasingly easy due to the internet and developments in software compatibility. Data sets can be readily combined to create new sets and insights through the combination of surveys, aggregation of variables, or by monitoring results over time to create new longitudinal data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Whilst the merits of utilising a secondary data approach are evident, there are several limitations to consider. Firstly, it is highly likely that the original data was gathered for a different purpose compared to the current research aims and objectives, therefore it is limited in its contribution to the research questions (Timans, Wouters & Heilbron, 2019). The aim instead is to re-analyse the original data to find new insights to inform the current study. However, if a key variable is missing from the secondary data source, this may skew the relationship between other variables for the

current data set (Johnston, 2017). Careful consideration of its contribution needs to be accounted for or an alternative data source provided as a result. Secondly, the quality of the data is extremely important, researchers need to be aware of the original methods of data capture, the recruitment of participants and any ethical issues pertaining to using the data set. Finally, for some studies, familiarisation with the original data capture process and analysis is important, some elements can be misinterpreted (qualitative) or too complex to work with (quantitative) (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

The focus of this research will test multiple hypotheses across several relationships and between multiple variables. Therefore, secondary data is not a suitable research method for this study.

4.4.2 Content analysis

Content analysis is regarded as a flexible method for analysing text. Predicated on the theoretical and substantive focus of the research content analysis, it can take several forms, including strict systematic analysis, interpretative, impressionistic through to intuitive analysis (Krippendorff, 2018). Content analysis emerged in the 18th century and applied to both quantitative and qualitative studies. However, it became largely regarded as a quantitative method of analysis with text data being coded into specific categories and statistically analysed (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Furthermore, a key benefit of using content analysis is that can also utilise data already collected (secondary data sets) and therefore saves time and resources expended by primary data collection. Given its merits of flexibility, this means there is often a lack of clarity regarding a firm definition and standardisation of methodological procedures (Tesch, 2013; Krippendorff, 2018).

Quantitative Content Analysis (QCA) has been defined by Berelson (1952) as “a research technique for the systematic, objective, and quantitative description of the manifest content” (p.18). It therefore consists of segmenting content into units and allocating units to a category. At the final stage, the categories are tallied (Rourke & Anderson, 2004). Content analysis can be applied to text including data gathered from semi or unstructured interviews, focus groups and case studies with the aim of testing theoretical issues and develop a greater understanding of the data (Bryman, 2016).

This notwithstanding, several issues have been highlighted, including reliability, objectivity, sources of content used, units of analysis, ethics and research designs (Schreier et al., 2019). Rourke and Anderson (2004) cite the lack of rigour in the reporting process and reliability of the data. Other authors have commented on the researcher being limited in the scope of the text being reviewed and analysis can be subject to the researcher's own interpretation. Furthermore, it has been criticised for being simplistic as a quantitative approach, lacking detailed statistical analysis (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). However, a key strength of QCA is its use in measuring frequency and summarizing large swathes of data. However, it becomes less effective when used to draw inferences from text (Schreier et al., 2019). Given that this research aims to undertake primary data collection using established quantitative measures from the outset, content analysis is unsuitable.

4.4.3 Observation

Observation is concerned with watching and listening of informant behaviours and systematically recoding the information, there are two forms of collecting data via this means – structured observation and unstructured observation. Structured observation is largely concerned with measurement, thus tending to generate 'how?' questions such as 'how many?', 'how long?' and 'how often?' and like its name suggests, is highly structured in predetermining what is observed and recorded in line with the research questions (Bryman, 2016). Therefore, the research holds a set of assumptions as to what can be observed. These elements tend to be formed from the literature and placed onto a structured matrix which is used to record the information as when it occurs. The researcher is passive in the situation and does not participate in any part of the 'what' when/if it is occurring (Saunders & Lewis, 2018).

Whereas unstructured observation by contrast, is far less structured in nature and focused on answering the 'why?' questions. It is, therefore, less concerned with measuring and frequency but more about the qualitative nature of capturing phenomena. Unstructured observation accounts for the physical setting and the activities, emotions, processes, and behaviours within. Its aim is to understand and explain the meanings of what is occurring (Bryman, 2016). The researcher may choose to immerse themselves in the situation they are recording (Clark et al., 2020). However, a limitation of this approach is the 'Hawthorne Effect' whereby informants may change their behaviour or narrative considering being observed and recorded (Jansson-Boyd, 2019).

Furthermore, sample sizes tend to be small, reliable data can be limited by unexpected occurrences or too sparse occurrences and researcher coding categories and methods may vary amongst subject matter (Baker, 2006).

4.4.4 Surveys

A key research tool in quantitative approaches is the use of surveys (this term is used interchangeably with the term ‘questionnaires’. However, a survey can be attributed to the process of distributing questionnaires. Therefore, questionnaires are essentially the data collection tool, and a survey is the data collection process (Stausberg, 2020). A key strength being their usefulness in rapidly gathering large data sets. They utilise sets of standard questions across many respondents thus enabling generalisation of the results in many cases. Distribution of surveys can take several forms including by post, face to face, via the internet, hand delivered or by telephone. The data is usually analysed using statistical means and be collected in cross-sectional and longitudinal ways (Robinson & Leonard, 2019). However, surveys are not without their limitations. Whilst longitudinal data may capture employee behaviour over time and enrich our understanding of how change, embedded culture, and leadership may influence certain behaviours and attitudes, it remains costly in terms of time, resources, and extenuating circumstances (Bryman, 2016). Cross-sectional data collection has been criticised for its propensity towards causal inference and the ‘common method bias’ (CMB).

Conway and Lance (2010) outline that CMB though self-reporting measures should be justified by the researcher. This includes validity of the measure, for example they cite the use of the term ‘perception or perceived’ in constructs as more powerful than objective constructs i.e., Perceived organisational support as opposed to organisational support. The next consideration is reviewing questionnaire items for any overlap with other constructs, an example of this is crossover in the literature between the constructs of commitment and intention to quit i.e., using confirmatory factor analysis to identify similarly loaded items between the two constructs (Bozeman & Perrewe, 2001). Finally, careful consideration of design to mitigate against method effects such as order effects which may culminate in ‘result sets’. Therefore, reverse scoring, theoretical testing and randomised allocation of questionnaires is advised.

Dillman, Smyth and Christian (2014) cite the issue of ‘survey error’ which can occur during sampling, coverage, through non-response and measurement. Measurement error occurs when a question is created to gather data on a certain concept but fails to accurately reflect that concept. As a result, participants are prone to giving inaccurate responses to the survey question or questions. Furthermore, poorly constructed questions may indicate the presence of researcher biases or lead to non-response bias where participants cannot or will not answer questions. Therefore, the phrasing and order of questions is extremely important (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016).

To improve the non-response bias, the skills of the researcher are important, particularly in organising and conducting interviews or effectively distributing and collecting surveys. They may need to reassure participants of confidentiality and remind them to complete the survey. The construction of quality surveys should clearly define the concepts being explored without acronyms and jargon (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016). Researchers should be aware of environmental bias, for example surveying consumer attitudes towards spending during January may generate a downward bias since more consumers are likely to be reducing their spending at this time. Cultural responsiveness is also a factor to consider in survey design to ensure they reflect current cultural contexts and language (Robinson & Leonard, 2019). There are two streams of survey, namely structured interviews and self-report measures known as self-completion questionnaires.

4.4.5 Structured interviews

A questionnaire might be used during an interview and the interviewer will record the responses, this is known as a structured interview or a standardised interview. Whilst semi and unstructured interviews tend to use open-ended questions and be favoured in qualitative approaches, structured interviews tend to use closed questions thus limiting the number of answers respondents can give. It thereby fosters standardisation of the interview stimulus in that not only the responses received but delivery of the questions and the recording of the data. According to Bryman (2016), the interviewer is essentially reading out the survey questions, however there is scope for the researcher to determine whether answers are ‘real’ or ‘true’. A further advantage of this approach is that it reduces errors caused by variations in delivery of the questions, increases accuracy in

recording data and aids the processing of the respondent's data (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016). Open-ended questions tend to generate larger amounts of data with more variation, this can leave it susceptible to error in terms of consistency, biases and interpretation (Dalati & Marx Gómez, 2018). Structured interviews may also be used in a focus group setting however, whilst structured interviews would offer increased validity in terms of responses, it may not be the case for reliability of the results as a response may influence other responses leading to group think (Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Chioncel, Veen, Wildemeersch, & Jarvis, 2003).

4.4.6 Self-completion questionnaires

Also known as self-administered questionnaires, respondents answer the questions posed in the questionnaire themselves. This allows for self-completed questionnaires to be distributed to a much wider cohort, either via post, online, or face-to-face (Krosnick, 2018). This approach tends to use less resources and is often quicker and easier to distribute. Collection of the data may also be more convenient for both researchers and respondents (Bryman, 2016). However, unlike structured interviews, self-completion questionnaires require respondents to read and fill out the answers themselves. A researcher may not be present to clarify any ambiguity. Therefore, self-completion questionnaires are heavily reliant on considered design with questions being clearly phrased and the questionnaire being well structured (Dalati & Marx Gómez, 2018). Quantitative questionnaire design dictates that the phrasing should have less open-ended questions and be shorter to reduce respondent fatigue which may reduce the efficacy of a study (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016). A further factor to consider, is presenting respondents with the entire questionnaire to read before they begin answering. This means that no answer is truly independent of another. There is also no guarantee that the questions were answered in the intended order. However, questions presented online often have the capacity to control the presentation of questions in term of order and number appearing for the respondent to read (Krosnick, 2018). This notwithstanding, postal, and online questionnaires cannot confirm who the respondent is and anonymisation means it can be difficult to identify who has or had not completed the questionnaires (Bryman, 2016).

Despite the limitations noted here, self-completion questionnaires are easy to disseminate, do not require expensive resources and can be completed and collected quickly across a larger cohort than qualitative approaches. Therefore, their use in this study is appropriate.

4.4.7 The Methodological Research Approach

A review of the philosophical assumptions, methodological approaches, research methods and strategies has been undertaken and can be summarised as follows. At the initial stage of determining an ontological position, a subjectivist stance was rejected as the themes of this research are more reflective of an objectivist position. When considering the four main assumptions of an epistemological positions, positivism was deemed the most applicable. Therefore, a deductive methodological approach is suitable in this instance and aligned with the use of quantitative data tools and analysis. Each construct has its own set of measures taken from the established literature except for ‘rewards and recognition’, ‘job engagement’ and ‘organisation engagement’ (seen highlighted in bold on the model, Figure 9). The measures used for these items were created by Saks (2006) for the purposes of his original study. It was further determined that the most suitable data collection tool for this study is surveys, with self-completion questionnaires being the most appropriate.

Figure 9: Employee engagement model



The implementation of this research approach is further reflected in several key studies using surveys to collect primary data associated with work engagement (Schaufell & Bakker, 2004; Saks, 2006; Macey & Schnieder, 2008; Rich, LePine & Crawford, 2010; Christian, Garza & Slaughter,

2011). This research is predicated on an existing model - Saks (2006) and the examination of three key research hypotheses (see chapter one). Prior studies using the Saks' model have undertaken primary data collection via a self-completed quantitative questionnaire (Anaza & Rutherford, 2012a; Anaza & Rutherford, 2012b; Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013; Malinen, Wright & Cammock, 2013; Mahon, Taylor & Boyatzis, 2014; Fardale et al., 2014; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019). It is the aim of this thesis to test the same Saks' (2006) model in a new context and therefore highly appropriate that the same data collection tools are used.

4.4.8 Instrument Development

Purposeful survey design is based on several objectives. These include the aims of reducing survey errors, biases such as 'social desirability bias' (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2014), variances due to respondent memory, error, or non-responses due to the wording of questions or structure of the survey, a lack of cultural relevance, and survey fatigue through over exposure to competing surveys, difficulty in navigating the survey or surveys being too long (Robinson & Leonard, 2019). Furthermore, the quality of measurement is an important consideration. Research measurements need to be stable and precise to generate accurate results, therefore validity and reliability are critical considerations in reducing errors (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016).

Purposeful survey design is largely dependent on the themes and constructs in question being measurable. In some cases, this can be complex and therefore requires considerable attention before questionnaires are disseminated (Bryman, 2016). Constructs are measured via questions (or 'items') which function at an empirical level. Due to the complexity of measuring constructs, the development of items predicated on a robust and validated scale from previous studies in this field are preferential and appropriate.

4.4.9 Determining the Construct Scales

The literature review examines the construct measurements associated with employee engagement. The Saks' model was identified as the most suitable for further examination and testing in a new context. Saks (2006) utilised several well-established measures related to the interaction between

key constructs and employee engagement as well as developing his own measures (Job engagement and organisational engagement) (see Figure 10). Since then, several studies have utilised the Saks model and applied the same validated scales (e.g., Anaza & Rutherford, 2012a; 2012b; Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013; Malinen, Wright & Cammock, 2013; Mahon, Taylor & Boyatzis, 2014; Farndale et al., 2014; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019). Therefore, to determine whether Saks' (2006) model is valid in a TAW context, it is appropriate to use the same measures established in the literature. The items of each scale are presented in Table 14 along with the indicator structure as a semantic differential process.

Figure 10: Analysis of the scales used by Saks (2006)

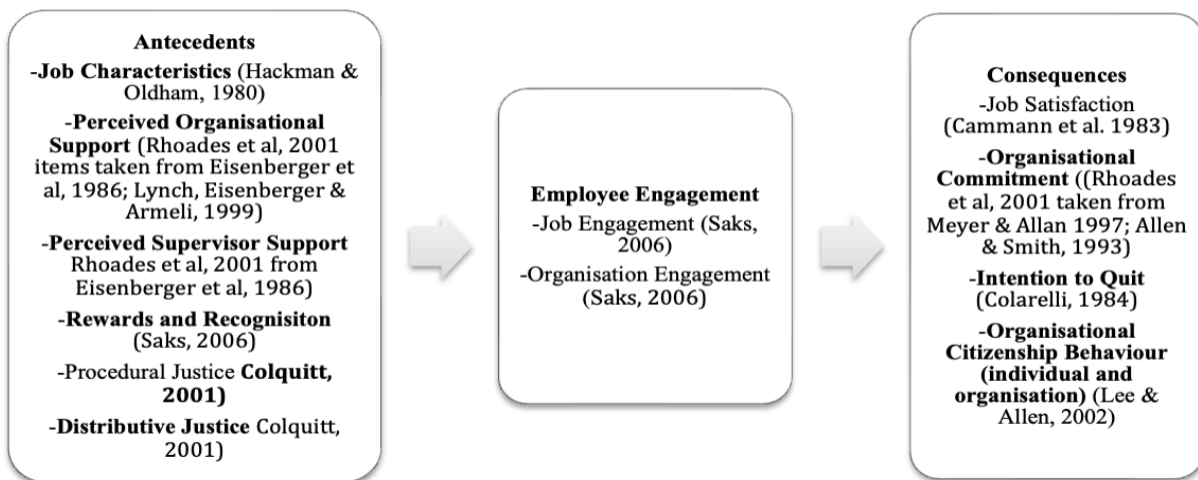


Table 14: Constructs, semantic items, and sources

Constructs	Code	Semantic Item	Semantic Differential	Source
Job Characteristics	JC1	I have lots of freedom to make my own decisions about how I go about my work	I have no freedom to make decisions at work, I am told what to do every step of the way	Hackman & Oldham, 1980
	JC2	From the start to its completion, I get to work on one main piece of work	I am one part of an overall piece of work, it's usually finished by others	
	JC3	There is loads of variety in my job, I get to use lots of my skills and talents	My job is limited in variety, and I don't get to use many of my skills	
	JC4	My job is important as it affects the wellbeing of others	My job is unimportant and has little impact on others	
	JC5	Managers and colleagues always let me know if I'm doing a good job	Managers and colleagues never let me know when I'm doing a good job	
	JC6	My job performance is monitored, and I know how I'm performing	My job is not monitored to measure my performance, I'm not sure how I'm performing.	
Perceived Organisational Support	POS1	The Client organisation really cares about my wellbeing	The Client organisation does not care about my wellbeing	Rhoades et al, 2001 items taken from Eisenberger et al, 1986; Lynch, Eisenberger & Armeli, 1999
	POS2	The Client organisation strongly considers my goals and values	The Client organisation does not consider my goals and values	
	POS3 (R)	The Client organisation shows little concern for me	The Client organisation shows a real concern for me	
	POS4	The Client organisation cares about my opinions	The Client organisation does not care about my opinions	
	POS5	The Client organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour	The Client organisation would not be prepared to help me if I needed a special favour	
	POS6	Help is available from The Client organisation when I have a problem	The Client organisation would not help me out if I needed a favour	
	POS7	The Client organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part	The Client organisation would not forgive my honest mistake	
	POS8 (R)	Given the opportunity, The Client organisation would take advantage of me	The Client organisation would avoid taking advantage of me if given the opportunity	
Constructs	Code	Semantic Item	Semantic Differential	Source
Perceived Supervisor Support	PSS1	My supervisor at The Client organisation cares about my opinions	My supervisor at The Client organisation does not care about my opinions	Rhoades et al, 2001 from Eisenberger et al, 1986
	PSS2	My supervisor at The Client organisation really cares about my wellbeing	My supervisor at The Client organisation does not care about my wellbeing	

	PSS3	My supervisor at The Client organisation strongly considers my goals and values	My supervisor at The Client organisation never considers my goals and values	
	PSS4 (R)	My supervisor at The Client organisation shows little concern about me	My supervisor at The Client organisation shows great concern about me	
Rewards and Recognition	RR1	If I work hard, I believe I will receive a pay rise	No matter how hard I work I won't receive a pay rise	Saks, 2006
	RR2	I believe working hard will give me job security	There is no job security, no matter how hard I work	
	RR3 (R)	No matter how hard I work, I won't get a promotion	If I work hard, I will receive a promotion	
	RR4	Working hard gets you more freedom and opportunities	Working hard restricts your freedom and opportunities	
	RR5	Working hard gets you respect from the people you work with	Working hard does not get you respect	
	RR6 (R)	No matter how hard I work, I won't receive praise from my supervisors	My supervisors will always acknowledge my hard work	Saks, 2006
	RR7	Training and development opportunities happen as a result of hard work	Hard work does not result in more training and development opportunities	
	RR8	The harder I work the more challenging my work assignments become	No matter how hard I work, my assignments are generally straight forward	
	RR9	My hard work is rewarded publicly by my employer (e.g. employee of the month, a mention in the company newsletter etc.)	My hard work is not rewarded publicly by my employer	
	RR10 (R)	No matter how hard I work, there's no token of appreciation	Hard work often results in my employer rewarding me with a token of their appreciation	
Procedural Justice	PJ1	I've been able to express my views and feelings about how The Client organisation allocate resources	I've not had the opportunity to share my views and feelings with The Client organisation about how they allocate resources	Colquitt, 2001
	PJ2	I've had an influence over the decision-making process and outcomes with The Client organisation	I've not had any influence over the decision-making process and outcomes with The Client organisation	
	PJ3	Procedures are fair and consistent at The Client organisation	Procedures are often unfair and inconsistent at The Client organisation	
	PJ4	Decisions made by The Client organisation, and which affect me, are made with the input of others	Decisions made by The Client organisation, and which affect me, are influenced by the views of one person	
	PJ5	Decisions made by The Client organisation are often based on accurate information	Decisions made by The Client organisation are not based on accurate information	
	PJ6	When I think something is unfair, I have the opportunity to challenge it with the supervisors at The Client organisation	I do not have the opportunity to challenge something that I think is unfair at The Client organisation	

	PJ7 (R)	The Client organisation warehouse rarely abides by good ethical and moral standards	The Client organisation warehouse consistently abides by good ethical and moral standards	
Distributive Justice	DJ1	The effort I put into my work is reflected in the outcomes (outcomes could mean satisfactory pay, treatment by management, recognition etc.)	The effort I put into my work is not reflected in the outcomes (outcomes could mean satisfactory pay, treatment by management, recognition etc.)	Colquitt, 2001
	DJ2	The outcomes reflect the work I have completed at The Client organisation	The outcomes do not reflect the work I have completed at The Client organisation	
	DJ3	The outcomes reflect the work I have contributed to The Client organisation	The outcomes do not reflect the work I have contributed to The Client organisation	
	DJ4	If I'm honest, the outcomes are accurate given my performance	The outcomes are inaccurate and do not reflect my performance	
Job Engagement	JE1	I 'throw' myself into the work,	I find the work unexciting	Saks, 2006
	JE2	Sometimes I am so into the work, I lose track of time	Time drags when I'm in work	
	JE3	The work is all consuming, I'm totally into it	The work does not interest me	
	JE4 (R)	My mind often wanders, and I think of other things when I'm working	My mind stays focused on the work	
	JE5	I am highly engaged in the work	I am not engaged with the work at all.	
Organisation Engagement	OE1	Being a part of The Client organisation is fascinating	Being a part of The Client organisation is completely uninteresting	Saks, 2006
	OE2	One of the most exciting things for me is getting involved with things happening within The Client organisation	I am not interested in getting involved with things happening within The Client organisation	
	OE3 (R)	I am not interested in the "goings on" at The Client organisation	The "goings on" at The Client organisation are extremely interesting	
	OE4	Being assigned to this client organisation makes me "come alive"	I find being assigned to this client organisation is tedious	
	OE5	Being assigned to this client organisation is exiting	Being assigned to this client organisation is boring for me	
	OE6	I am highly engaged with The Client organisation	I am not engaged at all with The Client organisation	
Job Satisfaction	JS1	Overall, I am satisfied with the role I have been assigned at The Client organisation	Overall, I am not satisfied with the role I have been assigned at The Client organisation	Cammann et al. 1983
	JS2 (R)	In general, I do not like the role I have been assigned at The Client organisation	In general, I like the role I have been assigned at The Client organisation	
	JS3	In general, I like working at The Client organisation	In general, I do not like working at The Client organisation	
Organisational Commitment	OC1	I would be happy to work for The Client organisation until I retire	I have no intention of working for The Client organisation any longer than I need to	Rhoades et al, 2001 taken from Meyer & Allan 1997;
	OC2	Working at The Client organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me	Working at The Client organisation has no real personal meaning to me	

	OC3	I feel that problems faced by The Client organisation are also my problems	Problems faced by The Client organisation are not my problems	Allen & Smith, 1993
	OC4	I feel personally attached to my work at The Client organisation	I do not feel any attachment to my work at The Client organisation	
	OC5	I am proud to tell others that I am working at this client organisation	I am embarrassed to tell others that I work for this client organisation	
	OC6	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this client organisation	I feel no sense of belonging to this client organisation	
Intention to Quit	ITQ1	I frequently think about quitting this assignment	I have no intention of quitting this assignment	Colarelli, 1984
	ITQ2	I plan to search for a new job during the next few months	I am happy to stay in my current role	
	ITQ3 (R)	If I have it my way, I'll be working for this client organisation a year from now	I don't want to stay with this client organisation, I cannot wait to quit	
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Individual	OCBI1	I would willingly give my time to help other employees who have work-related problems at the warehouse	I would not willingly give my time to help other employees who have work-related problems at the warehouse	Lee & Allen, 2002
	OCBI2	I would adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off	I would not adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off	
	OCBI3	I would give up my time to help other employees who have work or non-work related problems	I would not give up my time to help other employees who have work or non-work related problems	
	OCBI4	I would willingly assist other employees with their duties	I would not willingly assist other employees with their duties	
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisational	OCBO1	I would willingly attend events that are not compulsory, but that help the image of The Client organisation	I would not attend any events that are not compulsory to help the image of The Client organisation	Lee & Allen, 2002
	OCBO2	I would be happy to offer ideas to improve the functioning of The Client organisation	I have no interest in offering ideas to improve the functioning of The Client organisation	
	OCBO3	I would willingly take action to protect The Client organisation from potential problems	I would avoid taking action to help protect The Client organisation from potential problems	
	OCBO4	I would defend The Client organisation when other employees criticise it	I would not defend The Client organisation when other employees criticise it	

4.4.10 Demographic Data Categories

Questionnaire demographics require careful consideration, in the case of this study, key moderators were identified within the literature which include gender, age, and employment status (including work pattern). These are discussed further, along with the structure, phraseology, and use of scales in the following section.

Gender: When including questions of gender in the questionnaire, it is important to recognise that respondents might not wish to disclose or align themselves with any category. Consequently, respondents were provided with three options (a) male (b) female (c) prefer not to say. Whilst the addition of option (c) has the capacity to dilute the data, its presence is a reassuring factor in respondent trust. In this case gender is preserved as a dummy variable with coding as male =1, female =2 and prefer not to say as =3 (Robinson & Leonard, 2019). Gender is not a variable for analysis in this thesis, however the data provides further opportunity for future analysis.

Data related to age is also a typical demographic to be captured. Age is typically presented within the realms of: Generation Z (iGen or Centennials: 1996 – TBD) = 23yrs or under; Generation Y (Millennials: 1977-1995) = 42yrs-24yrs; Generation X (1965-1976) = 54yrs–43yrs; Baby Boomers (1946-1964) = 73yrs-55yrs and over 70s (Traditionalists or Silent Generation: 1945 and before) = 74yrs and older. However, as this thesis is concerned with UK temporary workers and that 66 is the average UK age of retirement (UK Government, 2022), data was not required to go above 65+ in any further age categories.

Employment Status: encompasses several factors: whether respondents are employed fulltime or part-time, length of service with agency/agencies and length of time at current assignment. Also included were questions regarding the hours of work typically worked at the assignment. If required additional demographic data may contribute to a greater understanding of the respondent's responses and consequently enable greater scope for future analysis.

4.4.11 Response Options

A key component of questionnaire design is attributed to the inclusion of an appropriate response format in preparation for statistical analysis of the variables. According to Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie (2016) response formats tend to take on one of four variations: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio. However, at the most basic level is the dichotomous response format (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

Dichotomous: offer participants the option of two unordered choices, such as “true/false” (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Offering additional options, nominal measures provide an extension of this format.

Nominal: meaning “in name only” measures tend to be applied when qualitative variables are present and by proxy, are the least precise due to the mission of numerical measurement. Nominal variables are categorised by names and typically used to allocate participants into categories e.g., ethnicity (African, Afro Caribbean, Asian, mixed-race, white), or gender (female, male, other, rather not say). Therefore, this response format can only ascertain the participant’s selection (or non-selection) of a particular category. Rather than assessing whether a particular attribute is present, this measure may only confirm that a particular attribute is or is not existent (Robinson & Leonard, 2019).

Ordinal: structures the response options from least to most (or vice versa) thus enabling the quantification of the variables. Ordinal meaning “relating to things in a series” typically allocates numbers are assigned to each category in rank order e.g. (1) least to (7) most. These are commonly known as Likert scales. However, the number of categories varies, but usually consist of five, seven or nine options (some even numbered scales are used to generate an ipsative response) (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011). A limitation of this format is that the distance between each category might not be even. For example, an option of “disagree” and “somewhat disagree” might be a smaller or larger than the distance between “somewhat disagree” and “agree”. The inability to calculate exact distances between categories may create a limitation in terms of analysis (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016).

Interval: An interval response format ranks the response categories and in contrast to the ordinal response format, presents equal distances between each category of response (Robinson & Leonard, 2019). Therefore, numbers are typically used as response options e.g., 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. Thus interval scales not only aim to understand differences amongst categories but establish them on a continuum for analysis (Robinson & Leonard, 2019). An example of this is the standardised measurement for intelligence. The Intelligence quotient (IQ) test is designed to have a mean of zero. However, this is not the case as the magnitude of the trait is not specified. Therefore, it cannot claim that zero has an accurate meaning e.g., a participant with an IQ score of 120 is not twice as intelligent as a participant that scored 60 (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016).

Interval Design Using Semantic Differential Scale (SD): In consideration of the interval scales used in questionnaire design, the use of a semantic differential scale (SD) can also be applied (Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum, 1957), The SD scale uses contradictory adjectives at either end and a Likert scale underneath for the respondent to reflect on the opposing statements and mark the degree to which they are leaning towards one or the other. This interval response format is typically applied to the measurement of construct items, permitting respondents to demonstrate the direction of their answer and the strength of opinion (Hsu, Chuang & Chang, 2000). The inclusion of a 'middle ground' within the Likert scale is considered beneficial for gathering 'true data' as some respondents may not hold strong opinions either way to a particular item (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011). The use of a semantic differential scale helps to minimise errors by presenting opposing statements for further clarity and consideration (Huang, Chen & Khoo, 2012; Stoklasa, Talášek & Stoklasová, 2019).

It is important to adopt the most appropriate response format to ensure that SEM analysis of the data can effectively take place. Literature within the field of employee engagement, commitment and identity has extensively used seven-point Likert scales as a way of reducing 'middle ground' responses and offering a wider range of options (Anaza & Rutherford, 2012a; Anaza & Rutherford, 2012b; Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013; Malinen, Wright & Cammock, 2013; Mahon, Taylor & Boyatzis, 2014; Farndale et al., 2014; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019). Therefore, a seven-point Likert scale is deemed appropriate for this research and measuring the variables identified in the Saks (2006) model.

Ratio: Ratio response formats are like interval measures, in that variables have response categories of equal distance and available for rank ordering. However, interval response formats have a true zero, therefore making them the most precise measure for quantitative analysis (Healy et al., 2018). An example of this would be measuring overtime hours worked and the question “how many hours overtime did you work last month?”. The response will create a ratio measurement of the hours, hence a participant who worked 66 hours overtime last month works twice as many hours as someone who worked 33 hours. However, if a participant stated that they worked zero overtime hours last month, then the exact magnitude of the trait is known. With this information, the researcher can mathematically analyse the number of hours and even create nominal variables on a ratio scale. Other examples in questionnaire design are weight, height, years in employment, distance, and age (Robinson & Leonard, 2019).

Selection of Response Formats: as gender can no longer be considered as a dichotomous choice for good quality questionnaire design (Robinson & Leonard, 2019), a third option should be presented in line with a nominal approach, in this case “prefer not to say”. Whilst this third option has the potential to somewhat dilute the data, its presence has been shown to promote inclusion and response rates (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

There are several approaches to measuring age in questionnaire design, in this case an ordinal measure will be applied by creating categories representing generation Z, Y, X, baby boomers and over 75s. The reason for using an ordinal measure was to avoid sensitivities around invasive questioning, increasing the sense of participant anonymity and encouraging questionnaire compliance. Employment status questions were limited in options and would therefore lend themselves to dichotomous and nominal response formats e.g. “What shifts do you usually work?” with the option of four shift patterns. As this research will use a Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique for the analysis of the data, an interval design with equal distances between options is appropriate. Furthermore, this approach will capture the perception of agency workers using semantics and participant responses will be quantified on a Likert scale.

4.4.12 Order Effects, Phraseology, and Wording

Questionnaire Instructions: Instructions at the start of a questionnaire play a crucial role in introducing respondents to the key themes and any requirements of the survey process. Instructions should be clear and brief and provide respondents with all the essential information they need to complete the questionnaire accurately (Robinson & Leonard, 2019). In some cases, the researcher may provide respondents with some contextual information presurvey which outlines the focus of the study, researcher contact information and deadlines for responding to the questionnaire.

Order Effects: The structure of the questionnaire is an important component of the design, in particular the sequence of each item needs careful consideration to reduce bias and confusion and increase trust (Healy et al., 2018). According to Dillman, Smyth and Christian (2014) the sequence of questions plays a key role in establishing the larger context of the questionnaire, for example starting with sensitive or contentious questions is not advisable given that very little rapport has been established. However, some may consider age and gender sensitive questions and choose to place these at the end of the questionnaire, therefore Robinson and Leonard (2019) recommend these be placed at the end of the questionnaire to avoid discomfort and start with more engaging types of questions. Nevertheless, most questionnaires begin with demographic data such as this and acclimatise the respondents to the process of completing the questionnaire. Moreover, the order of questions has been shown to influence the quality of responses, this is due to order effects. These occur when responses to early questions influence later questions in the survey. Therefore, questions should be organised in a coherent flow, making a clear and appealing transition through each part of the questionnaire (Robinson & Leonard, 2019). This is also supported by Rea and Parker (2014) who recommend the strategic grouping of questions addressing themes together to enhance the logical flow of the questionnaire and avoid order effects. However, this is not always possible, therefore the researcher should prioritise the order of those questions which reflect the context and key purpose of the study (Healy et al., 2018).

In terms of the questionnaire design for this research, demographic data is presented first to acclimatise respondents to the process of survey completion. These questions are simplistic and

can be answered speedily. Part two of the questionnaire is concerned with the respondent's perception of their time at their latest assignment, in this case, the retail distribution warehouse. These constructs are grouped together to ensure a coherent flow to the questions and the themes presented in order of simplicity and move from more generalised perspectives about the role to more a more in-depth focus on the relationship with their place of assignment. The questionnaire features two open-ended questions. The first asks respondents about whether they feel a part of their assignment and the team there and to state the reasons for their answer. The final question asks respondents if there is anything else they'd like to add with regards to their agency or the assignment.

To avoid order error and encourage respondent willingness throughout the questionnaire, questions are structured to ensure that brief and straightforward questions appear first and are generally positive in nature. These can be addressed quickly and without excessive mental effort occurring. There is minimal chance that these questions will influence responses further on in the process (Ruell Wagner & Gillespie, 2016). As the questionnaire proceeds, the themes become more introspective and address perceptions related to distributive justice and procedural justice. This section included longer questions which required a slightly deeper level of consideration. Given that TAWs tend to serve two organisations and yet many may be seeking a permanent position at the assignment, these themes could be considered contentious. It was therefore important to consider any generation of strong feelings early in the questionnaire and how this may influence responses in the latter part.

The target sample was considered during the design of the questionnaire, these would be warehouse workers from diverse ethnic backgrounds with varying commands of the English language and educational levels. Furthermore, the sample size is estimated to be approximately 300 respondents. Therefore, the wording of each question is an important consideration. Questions are required to be understandable and unbiased. Double meanings should be avoided as should leading or confusing questions, these may affect a "true" response (Brymam, 2016). The structure and wording of the questionnaire is therefore tested for appropriateness at the pilot stage and amended through feedback before its final distribution.

4.5 Sampling Procedure

The sampling procedure was considered during the development of the survey instrument and in terms of the target population. Given that the data is intended to contribute to a greater understanding of the theoretical framework, the procedure and source for data collection must be carefully considered. It was then necessary to determine the sampling procedure. Due to resource constraints and the nature of a quantitative approach, it is unfeasible to obtain participation from all individuals within the population of interest. Instead, it is more practical to identify and gain the participation of a subset of the population via probability or non-probability sampling (Bryman, 2016).

The sampling population is determined by the target population and the representation of elements within the target population for its identification. This is known as the sampling frame and will be discussed in more detail in this section. Sampling frames are often created to identify who should be asked the survey questions, this is where coverage errors can occur (O’Muircheartaigh, English & Eckman, 2007). For example, if the researcher is aiming to study access to health for the population of Wales, then a sample frame would identify each county and the populations within it. A coverage error might occur when transient/traveller communities are unable to be identified and included in the data capture. In other towards a coverage error occurs when sections of the population are not included in the sampling (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016).

4.5.1 Sampling Frame

The sampling frame refers to the characteristics of the target population which determine the parameters of the target population. This research aims to gain a greater understanding of employee engagement from the perspective of UK blue collar contingent workers based in one of Europe’s largest distribution warehouses. The sample criteria include age, gender, and employment status. It is therefore essential that only UK blue collar contingent workers based at the warehouse complete the survey.

To avoid sample frame error, all respondents will be selected from agencies based onsite. TAWs, and indeed the various agencies they are contracted to, are easily identified by branded high-vis

vests. Volunteer respondents will be screened by their supervisors to ensure they meet the minimum age requirement of 18 years old and that they have a good understanding of the written English language before the questionnaire is manually completed. Any respondents not meeting these criteria were not approached for data.

4.5.2 Sampling Approach

When considering sampling approaches, there are two main positions, traditional and Bayesian. The traditional sampling method is the most popular and incorporates a single set of samples with one reference point (Gabriel et al., 2019). This generates a somewhat straightforward sample frame which includes identification of suitable participants related to achieving the research aims. Therefore, the sample is clearly identified prior to data collection. Moreover, the researcher is required to ascertain whether sampling with or without replacement is required. Replacement permits for part of the sample frame to be included more than once. The part of the sample chosen to obtain data is returned to the sample frame for reuse (Bergin, 2018). In contrast, a Bayesian sampling method chooses sequentially selected sample sets based on prior knowledge regarding populations parameters, costs and probabilities of making an incorrect decision (Gabriel et al., 2019). A Bayesian sampling approach is rarely used in organisational behaviour studies due to a lack of information related to probabilities and costs (Bergin, 2018). Therefore, a traditional sampling method with a single reference is widely regarded as the most appropriate approach for this study.

Ethical sampling protocols: Research ethics are a vital step in research design. In consideration of ethical sampling protocols, UK-based contingent workers aged over 18 years old were included in the target population. For the purposes of convenience and accessibility one of Europe's largest distribution warehouses was the target population for this research. Given the nature of the work involved, age limitations above 18 years old were not stipulated. However, workers above the average UK age of retirement (66) were estimated to be very low.

Probability versus non-probability sampling: The aim of quantitative research is to achieve precision of results and to avoid bias within a particular sample size. There are two key sampling strategies a researcher will need to consider: probability and a non-probability approach (Kumar, 2014).

Probability Sampling Designs: also referred to as ‘random sampling’, this design requires an independent and equal chance of selection of the sample population. Independent choice is predicated on the rule that one component of the sample is not dependent upon the selection of a further component within the sampling design (Gabriel et al., 2019). Moreover, the rejection or selection of a particular component does not affect the exclusion or inclusion of another. Equality of chance denotes that the probability of selection of each component of the population is not predicated on other influences, such as the researcher’s preferences (Kumar, 2014). Probability sampling designs include cluster sampling, stratified random sampling and simple random sampling. There are two key advantages to using probability sampling. Firstly, given that this approach signifies the total sample population, it allows for generalisation of the results beyond the sample population. Secondly, statistical tests based on the theory of probability can be used in the analysis of random samples, thus establishing conclusive correlations (Bryman, 2016).

Non-probability Sampling Designs: are implemented when components of the population cannot be individually identified or when the number of components is unknown. Therefore, a selection of components is considered. Non-probability or ‘non-random’ sampling does not lend itself to the theory of probability, rather it is focused on a target population. In quantitative terms, it is unknown which individuals are selected within the target population and thus involves voluntary participation making it distinctly different from probability sampling (Kumar, 2014). Non-probability sampling designs tend to be used more frequently in social sciences research due to limitations with resources and time constraints (Gariel et al., 2019). For example, web-based questionnaires can be distributed across a large target population. Respondents will be anonymous and unknown to the researcher (Malhorta, Birks & Willis 2013). Moreover, the approach lends itself to analytical measures enabling inferences to be made as opposed to statistical measures which limit the scope for this. Non-probability sampling designs therefore frequently appear in studies related to the field of organisational behaviour and more specifically those related to work

engagement and specifically the Saks (2006) model (e.g., Anaza & Rutherford, 2012a; Anaza & Rutherford, 2012b; Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013; Malinen, Wright & Cammock, 2013; Mahon, Taylor & Boyatzis, 2014; Farndale et al., 2014; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019).

As stated in Chapter two, there are limited studies with regards to blue collar TAWs. As perspectives and experiences have been shown to differ with regards to organisational commitment and employee engagement across populations (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Gallagher & Parks, 2000; Chambel, Castanheira & Sobral, 2016), it is necessary to specifically target blue collar contingent workers in situ. Given its comprehensive sample frame and the provision of the scope to adopt a purposeful approach, a non-probability sampling design is the most suitable design for this research. The target population identified consists of approximately 300 respondents and high response rates are estimated. Having identified the most appropriate sampling approach, several non-probability sampling designs exist within this frame; convenience sampling, purposive sampling, quota sampling, expert sampling, and snowball sampling (Kumar, 2014; Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016).

Convenience Sampling: also known as accidental or haphazard sampling) is a nonprobability approach where certain criteria such as proximity, a willingness to participate or accessibility are identified in the target population (Costanza, Blacksmith & Coats, 2015). Accidental sampling can also happen when certain features of the sample just occur (administratively or spatially) close to where the researcher is collecting data. Captive participants such as those based where the researcher is working also fall under the criteria of convenience sampling (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). Convenience sampling is easy to administer, affordable and participants are usually accessible. The assumption of this technique is that the participants from the target population are homogeneous, thereby assuming there would be no difference in the results if data were attained from a random sample outside of the accessible part of the population.

The key disadvantage of convenience sampling is the risk of bias and researchers should not claim that the findings are representative of the wider population. A further issue is that of outliers. These are considered as being situated outside the remit of the normal data. Due to the higher frequency

of self-selection in nonprobability sampling, outliers can significantly impact (Costanza, Blacksmith & Coats, 2015). This notwithstanding, due to accessibility and limited resources including time, convenience sampling is identified as the most appropriate sampling technique for this research.

Purposive Sampling: also known as judgement sampling) as its name suggests is a non-random approach that targets participants possessing specific elements required for data collection. It is not reliant on underpinning theories or a certain number of participants (Costanza, Blacksmith & Coats, 2015). The researcher establishes what the key focus is for data collection and identifies the population most likely to provide the relevant information (either through experience or well-informed knowledge). This more subjective sampling technique is therefore popular in qualitative research. As with convenience sampling, accessibility, willingness to participate and availability are important, however, unlike convenience sampling, the focus is on participants with specific characteristics and thus avoiding generalisations of a particular population (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). As this research adopts a quantitative approach and aims to contribute to the theoretical framework of social exchange theory and the established knowledge of contingent workers in a broader sense, purposive sampling is deemed unsuitable in this case.

Quota Sampling: is predicated on the researcher's accessibility of the target population. The researcher identifies key control characteristics within the target population such as age, race or gender that is relevant to the scope of the research (Bryman, 2016). Furthermore, the sample is also selected with convenience in mind, for example a researcher may locate themselves in an area where they expect to access participants with the requisite characteristics and approach them to take part in the study. This process concludes when the required number of participants has been reached – the quota (Ochoa & Porcar, 2018). The advantage to using quota sampling is that it is less expensive than many other sampling techniques as no sampling frame is required. Instead, it sets out to secure the specific participants required for data collection. However, this sampling method is vulnerable to researcher bias as the respondents are recruited at the researcher's discretion e.g., family and friends. Therefore, the results cannot be generalised to the wider sampling population as respondents chosen by the researcher may not share the same characteristics and are therefore not truly representative (Kumar, 2014; Ochoa & Porcar, 2018).

This research does stipulate certain respondent requirements, such as age, role, and employment status. However, the data collection does not require specific control characteristics to reach a quota. Therefore, whilst quota sampling is a useful technique, it is not suitable for this research.

Snowball Sampling: is a non-probability approach which utilises networks to further the collection of data (Marcus et al., 2017). The researcher will usually identify a small group of participants based on convenience or purposive sampling, and once data has been collected from them the research will ask them to identify other participants to take part in the study. As the data collection continues in this manner, the process continues thus creating a 'snowball' effect (Sharma, 2017). The snowballing technique ends when either the quota is reached or saturation point (with regards to the information being pursued) has been achieved. Snowball sampling is useful for identifying participants likely to provide the required information for the focus of the research, thus lowering costs and sample variance. The researcher may only have initial access to a small group of individuals at the outset, however this technique can provide accessibility into more extensive networks (Marcus et al., 2017). This notwithstanding, snowball sampling is predicated on the initial participants, if this is biased or flawed in some way then the rest of the sample will be affected. It should also be noted that snowball sampling can become unmanageable if a large network opens to the researcher. Saturation point may become difficult to achieve and extremely time consuming, therefore a quota will need to be set however, this brings with it its own set of limitations (Kumar, 2014). Furthermore, this technique is vulnerable to researcher bias during the snowball process as contacting a recommended participant remains at the discretion of the researcher. Whilst snowball sampling has its merits, participants for this research have already been identified in sufficient numbers and therefore this technique is not required for this study.

4.5.3 Sample Size

Calculation of the sample size is an important consideration and is largely dependent on the purpose of the research and the level of accuracy required in the results (Kumar, 2014). Underpinning this are further subsets of consideration such as analysis techniques, variables, characteristics of the cohort, sample sizes used in analogous studies, available resources, incidence, and completion rates (Malhotra, Birks & Willis, 2013). In qualitative research the sample size is less of a concern given that it tends to focus on in-depth exploration or identification

of a particular phenomenon (Bryman, 2016). However, in quantitative research larger sample sizes are typically required, this is the case for studies requiring SEM analysis. According to Shah and Goldstein (2006) the sample size can impact SEM analysis in terms of model fit, parameter estimates and statistical power.

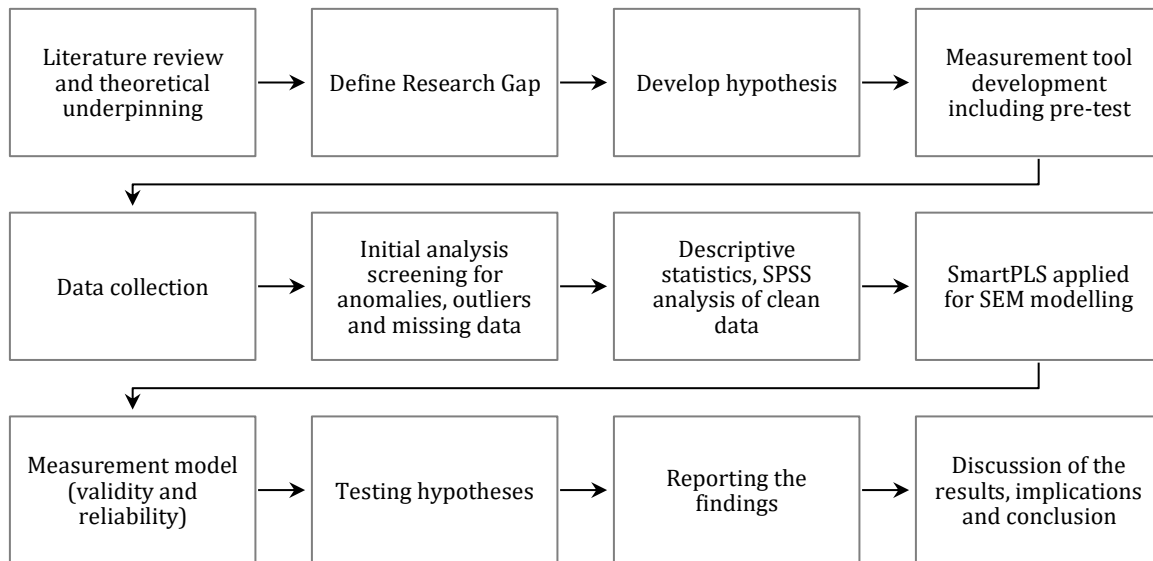
Whilst there is no established rule determining sample sizes in quantitative research, the aim is often centred around generalisation. However, this is an oversimplification, and the sample size estimates are widely debated. Correlation of factors, or between indicators, the impact of missing data, and the number of factor indicators form a basis for the sample size calculation (Kline, 2015). Shah and Goldstein (2006) advocate the acquisition of five responses per variable observed in the model. However, the variation amongst conceptual models makes it difficult to calculate a sample size. Therefore, rather than draw inferences from the established literature, the sample size will consider indicators. Given that this study is based on a confirmatory quantitative research design, and in consideration of Shah and Goldstein's (2006) recommendation in terms of five responses per observable variable, this research requires a large dataset. Saks's (2006) model comprises of six antecedent constructs (job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support; rewards and recognition, procedural justice, and distributive justice), two engagement constructs (job engagement and organisation engagement) and four outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit, and organisational citizenship behaviour). There are twelve constructs in focus (thirteen once OCB is distilled into its two subcomponents for the individual and the organisation), therefore if Shah and Goldstein's (2006) guidance are adhered to then 60 responses are required as a minimum.

Sample sizes for previous studies utilising either elements of the Saks (2006) model or the model in its entirety range from 87 (Malinen, Wright & Cammock, 2013) to 457 (Juhdi, Pa'wan & Hansaram, 2013) with a mean of 258 from 10 primary data studies. As SEM analysis will be used in this research, a large sample is required beyond the 60 proposed by Shah and Goldstein (2006). Therefore, a target above the mean of 258 responses will be targeted.

4.6 Data Collection Methods

Having clarified the sampling technique for the research, the process of data collection needs to be examined. This is an important part of the research design (see Figure 11), as distribution of the questionnaires must be effective enough to achieve the desired response rate without bias or manipulation. Furthermore, collection of the data and issues related to response rates are discussed in this section.

Figure 11: Research design of this study



4.6.1 Pre-pilot Study

A draft of the intended self-administered questionnaire was submitted to the three onsite agencies and warehouse management for checking structure, language, order and accessibility of the questionnaire. Any suggested amendments were made accordingly. At this stage the suggestion from the Agency gatekeeper was that all three-agency logos be presented on the front of the survey to show respondents that all agency staff were included. In terms of language, the word 'exhilarating' was replaced by 'exciting' (see OE05 in the items listed in Table 14) after feedback from both a PhD student and after discussion with an Agency member. The term 'intention to quit' was discussed with the supervision team and a postgraduate research group, it was debated whether this was appropriate for a UK study given its American origins. An alternative 'turnover

intention' was rejected for being too ambiguous, 'intention to leave' may be confused with the very nature of temporary work, therefore 'intention to quit' remained on the questionnaire.

Once amendments were made, eight questionnaires were initially distributed to PhD students within the faculty and a member of one agency for pre-testing. No data was analysed at this stage; however, the timing of the completion process was carefully logged. This was due to the size of the questionnaire, given its many constructs, and the time needed to remove temporary agency staff off the warehouse floor to complete the hardcopy. Feedback from the eight respondents required the phrasing of '*my boss*' to '*my supervisor at The Client organisation*' to be made in the Perceived Supervisor Support questions (PSS). This was an important point, as TAWs have dual roles, and the role of the supervisor needs to be much clearer to measure PSS accurately. The location was added to OCBI question 1 '*I would willingly give my time to help other employees who have work-related problems at the warehouse*'. This was added to ensure the context was solely focused on The Client organisation and not in general or in other assignments. Feedback at this stage found the semantic structure of the questionnaire helped to clarify the nature of the statements. Once these changes were completed, the questionnaire was ready for distribution (see Appendix A for the questionnaire used in this study).

4.6.2 Pilot Study

Pilot studies are a logical step in ensuring the quality and validity of the measurement tool (Bryman, 2016). In the case of this research, established measures for each construct were used. Pre-testing, pilot testing and validity were therefore previously established in other studies (Saks, 2006; Anaza & Rutherford, 2012a; Anaza & Rutherford, 2012b; Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013; Malinen, Wright & Cammock, 2013; Mahon, Taylor & Boyatzis, 2014; Farndale et al., 2014; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019). However, as these were initially designed with permanent employees in mind, a pre-test was required to expose any issues with suitability to a new context. Whilst a pilot study is an important process prior to data collection, it was not feasible in this case. The sample were based onsite at the warehouse and time away from the warehouse floor was limited. Data collection was scheduled over a three-day period.

4.6.3 Ethical Considerations of Self-Administered Questionnaires

As previously stipulated, ethical considerations are a vital step in research design and planning data collection (Bryman, 2016). There are several fundamental ethical considerations that need to be addressed before commencing research. Researchers need to be mindful of the impact data collection can have on respondents, particularly when dealing with sensitive topics (Fisher & Anushko, 2008).

Research ethics for data collection must include compliance with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), this applies to any individual or organisation that processes personal data. The research involved the collection, processing, and storage of personal data, therefore GDPR protocols must be considered. This includes transparency about the purpose of the data, storage limitation in only retaining the data for no longer than its research purpose (Clarke et al. 2019). Technical and organisational measures must ensure the protection of personal data against unauthorised or unlawful access as well as accidental loss, destruction, or damage. Data subject rights include the right to access, rectify, erase, restrict processing, object, and withdraw from the process under GDPR regulation (Almeida, Mira da Silva & Pereira, 2019).

Therefore, researchers should ensure the dignity and privacy of the respondent. Anonymising the data by avoiding any identifying questions and allocating a code to the questionnaire is appropriate. Furthermore, storing the data securely in a locked desk and ensuring data entry is completed on a secure server with password protection also safeguards against unnecessary exposure (Kumar, 2014). This study is not designed to put respondents at risk of injury, distress, or harm. Therefore, to ensure compliance with ethical protocols, prior to data collection a 'light-touch' ethical approval form was submitted to the School of Management Ethics Committee for consideration and approval. Once approval has been granted, data collection can begin.

Informed consent is a key principle of research ethics. This presides on the notion that participants are able to enter the study of their own volition having been supplied with adequate information about the nature of the research and that they give consent before data is collected (Josephson & Smale, 2021)

Consent typically takes place in two stages, the first is where the participant is given information about the study to reflect on. The second is obtaining consent (or not), therefore the researcher repeats the terms of the study and the individual will respond to each point giving clear consent before full consent has been given (Kadam, 2017). Written consent is appropriate where literacy is good, or when research may be taking place in stages. Consent forms provide additional proof that consent has taken place and for future copyright use (Josephson & Smale, 2021). Oral consent can be applied when there are challenging circumstances, for example there is limited capacity for literacy, concerns with signing documents, risk of discovery, time limitations, situations factors, and remote data capture (McCarty et al., 2019).

Potential respondents for the study were verbally explained the purpose of the study and that participation was completely voluntary. The right to withdraw from the study was an option at any time and the information shared with the researcher would be allocated an anonymous code and stored securely. No identifiable information would be shared beyond the researcher (this was only relevant to participants taking place in the prize draw at the end of the questionnaire whereby a phone number was required). The research would be used to inform a report to the [REDACTED] agency and they may go on to share results with The Client organisation. The data would also be used for academic research purposes i.e. a PhD thesis and subsequent academic papers.

Individuals still agreeing to complete the questionnaire were then allocated into a room to read through the questionnaire and begin filling it out. The questionnaire again provided respondents an outline of the purpose of the research and assuring them their data would be anonymised (see extract below)

This research project is investigating perceptions of job and organisation engagement. Your participation in this research is completely voluntary and you may cease completing the questionnaire at any time.

All the information you provide will be collected anonymously and held securely by the researcher. The information will be used in a PhD study, some of which will feed into academic publications and a report for [REDACTED] Agency, elements may be shared with The Client organisation. Your anonymity is assured.

However, respondents had the option to enter a prize draw of five chances to win a £50 Amazon voucher. This required respondents to place a contact number on the back of the questionnaire. This could have been a possible identifying factor. Therefore, secure locked storage, which only the researcher would have access to was important to stipulate and follow (see appendix A). The questionnaire assured respondents that the data would only be used for this research and to inform a lead Agency based at the warehouse site of results, some results may be used to inform The Client organisation via the Agency.

4.6.4 Survey Distribution

Questionnaires can be distributed in several ways, which include face-to-face interaction, over the telephone or electronically. Electronic methods are becoming increasingly popular due to developments in software packages and mobile devices, thus efficiently streamlining the process (Ruel, Wagner & Gillespie, 2016). This makes self-completion questionnaires cheaper, easier, and more convenient than interviews. This data collection tool can be easily disseminated to a larger cohort than individual interviews or focus groups, therefore the application of self-administered questionnaire was used in this research.

4.6.5 Survey Constraints and Completion

The research was influenced by several factors, these included the commercial interest of the lead Agency and client organisation, a limited period of access to warehouse staff for data collection and operational challenges of distribution.

The data collection needed to meet the requirements of the agency and for a PhD study simultaneously. This was predicated on a cross-sectional study of the TAW population which could generate quantitative data for commercial reporting and presentation. However, access to warehouse staff was only granted over a three-day period, therefore a large questionnaire was used to maximise data collection in such a restricted timeframe.

The researcher was given access to a room onsite where an Agency ‘gatekeeper’ was available to recruit respondents from the warehouse floor. Permission from The Client organisation was granted to the researcher to be onsite for three days and gather data from as many temporary staff as possible. The site had circa 700 temporary agency staff working across three shift patterns at the time of data collection. The Agency ‘gatekeeper’ was managing the largest cohort of temporary workers circa 450. The Agency ‘gatekeeper’ had access to all areas of the warehouse environment and would enter sections of the warehouse to ask temporary agency workers to take part in this research. They would then be scheduled to leave the warehouse by their section manager and come to an allocated room to complete the questionnaire.

As data collection would need to take place onsite at the warehouse itself, hardcopies of the questionnaire were printed and taken by the researcher to the location. Respondents were placed in a quiet room to complete the questionnaire. As respondents were given a break from the warehouse as well as refreshments, the length of the questionnaire was not flagged as problematic by respondents. The researcher was located outside the room in case the respondent needed any clarification on questions or the process. Upon completion of each questionnaire, respondents were asked to place it in a blank A4 envelope and seal the top. The envelope was then placed in a sealed ‘mailbox’ through a narrow slit. This was done to reassure all respondents that their data was secure and no one at the warehouse had access to reading their completed questionnaire or identifying their data after they had left the room.

4.6.6 Data Analysis Tools

Statistical analysis techniques are a necessary process of interpreting numerical data. Through these techniques, researchers aim to understand, explain, and enhance our existing knowledge (Hanushek & Jackson, 2013). This approach is particularly useful in determining causal relationships and interaction between variables. Statistical analysis can essentially be categorised as either first or second-generation analysis. First generation statistics are wholly appropriate for certain types of research where basic scenarios are presented, such as T-Tests, ANOVAs or regressions and correlations (Nesselroade & Grimm, 2018). However, data can require more complex analysis where, for example causal models emerge. Second generation analysis is used to examine further complexity, for example multi-group moderators, mediators, indirect effects,

goodness of fit or latent variables. In other words, causal networks can be examined, and stimulus effects modelled through the more encompassing and scalable forms of second-generation analysis (Harrison et al., 2020). Underutilised in behavioural research, second generation techniques offer extensive analysis through greater scalability of analysis.

The purpose of this research is to determine whether the commonly held antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement are moderated to a similar degree in temporary agency workers as opposed to traditional workers. Statistical analysis is required to determine and measure the degree to which each antecedent factors affects employee engagement, the interaction between job and organisation engagement and the outcomes. Therefore, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26 will be used to analyse the preliminary data. Analysis at this stage will ‘clean’ the raw data by assessing normality, identifying outliers, and establishing the reliability and validity of the constructs through Cronbach’s alpha.

4.6.7 Preliminary Data Analysis

Prior to SEM analysis, it is important to examine the data set to ensure its suitability for further multivariate analysis. This can range from cosmetic amendments to assessment of the variables for accuracy, missing values, outliers, and normality of distribution (Ruel, Wagner III & Gillespie, 2016).

Outliers: are particularly important to identify early on as these can skew the data by way of their extreme scores, for example a univariate outlier can be identified by applying a frequency distribution of z-scores across all the variables (Harrison et al., 2020).

Missing Data: Quantitative data sets tend to be large in nature and therefore it is common to have several questionnaires returned with missing data. This can happen for several reasons including accidental omission, a refusal to answer certain questions, the need for privacy, a language issue or an omission by the researcher to enter the data value (Ruel, Wagner III & Gillespie, 2016). Myers (2011) simplifies the causes into three categories (a) missing not random (MANR) - Data has been deliberately withheld by the respondent, this can typically occur when asked about income, it can be a sensitive data point for some. Therefore, a pattern of missing data related to

the 'income variable' may appear, (b) missing at random (MAR) - data is missing due to a non-random, systematic process. There is an element of potentially observable missing data, for example a random participant being asked a question on current affairs and not following the news, (c) missing completely at random (MCAR) - there is no pattern of missing data observed and one could not predict these missing data values.

Missing data can be problematic for two main reasons, firstly it can reduce the sample size. If the number of missing data values is high, then it can have a detrimental effect on generalisability. Secondly, missing data points can negatively impact the efficiency of the statistical test and bias estimates (Hair et al., 2013). However, if missing data is random, then this can be assessed on a case-by-case basis and potential solutions found. Systematic missing data needs to be reviewed for an explanation and to assess the level of 'acceptability'. Olinsky, Chen and Harlow (2003) suggest that missing data values of 5% or less of the entire data set will still produce reliable results. Moreover, Cohen et al., (2013) proposes that 5%-10% is acceptable. Not all missing data requires removal, for example Ruel, Wagner III and Gillespie (2016) see value in a participant's choice of refusal to answer a certain question. This can provide a unique data point to be considered during analysis. If missing values are common or clear patterns emerge of missing data, then removing the responses via listwise deletion or case deletion are typically applied (Harrison et al., 2020). Listwise deletion is a popular method of dealing with missing data values, mainly because it is integrated in many software analyses packages such as SPSS. However, it is not without its critics, Myers (2011) cautions researchers when applying Listwise deletion without careful review can affect bias and power. Therefore, the additional application of normality tests can further examine the data sets for anomalies.

Non-Response Bias: can occur when it is not possible for the researcher to compare or analyse the respondent characteristics of those who did not take part in the survey with those who did (Whitehead, Groothuis & Blomquist, 1993). There are several ways to test for non-response bias, for example if the sample set characteristics are known, then respondents can be compared to those who failed to participate in the survey. Characteristics such as gender, age and level of education can reveal significant differences (Coolican, 2017). However, in the case of this research the sample set characteristics were unknown and could not be determined to such a degree as to mean

test this data. Another method compares the final quarter of collected responses with the characteristics of the final quarter of outstanding non-responses (Harrison et al., 2020). This works on the assumption that the final quarter of respondents represent a group reluctant to complete the questionnaire. However, this approach is rather limited as it is difficult to estimate if this truly the case. It is also difficult to apply it to certain sampling techniques, such as convenience sampling (Bryman, 2016).

Normality Tests: essentially examine the ‘shape’ of the data through how it is distributed. Normality of distribution is commonly assessed by two types of statistical test ‘Kurtosis’ and ‘Skewness’ (Coolican, 2017). Kurtosis expresses the sharpness of distribution and the degree to which the tails of the data distribution differ from the tails of normal distribution. If there is high kurtosis or ‘heavy tails’, then this indicates outliers are present and further investigation is needed into the data values. Light tails are relative to normal distribution. Skewness is concerned with the symmetrical distribution of the data from a central point. If the data is observed in equal symmetry either side then normal distribution is present (Harrison et al., 2020).

In the context of this research, responses from the questionnaire were manually entered as variables into an SPSS database (using SPSS 26). Each variable representing a question from the questionnaire was entered as a heading, with each respondent’s data value entered in each corresponding cell. In line with sound ethical practice, the respondent is given a unique anonymised identifier. Once the data entry was completed, listwise deletion was used to filter any missing data values. However, PLS-SEM uses a non-parametric method in this study, therefore the data set does not need to be normally distributed. This notwithstanding, the results of skewness and kurtosis values will be analysed to mitigate any anomalies.

Common Method Bias (CMB): has been brought into question since the seminal work of Campbell and Fiske (1959), since then several researchers have highlighted the issue of CMB in research (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Bagozzi 1984; Cote & Buckley, 1988; Greenleaf, 1992; Baumgartner, Weijters & Pieters, 2021). The underlying concern is that when researchers employ a measuring instrument such as a questionnaire, several issues need to be considered. According to MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012) CMB occurs when variations in responses are due to the measurement

instrument and what it attempts to reveal, rather than the actual inclinations of the respondents. The instrument itself introduces a bias into the data capture. Therefore, the variances the researcher is trying to examine can be contaminated by the measurement instrument. One way to combat CMB is to ensure respondents are given the ability to answer questions as accurately as possible, this is particularly pertinent to respondents who may have English as a second language, have a lack of education or have not considered the topic presented to them previously (Baumgartner, Weijters & Pieters, 2021). By reducing ambiguous terms and complexity in question items, this can help combat the influence of CMB. The use of a semantic differential scale helps to do this by presenting opposing statements for further clarity and consideration (Huang, Chen & Khoo, 2012; Stoklasa, Talášek & Stoklasová, 2019).

Other issues include respondent fatigue or low motivation to engage with the subject matter presented in the measurement instrument (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012), content that arouses suspicion (Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 2001), agreeableness (Baumgartner, Weijters & Pieters, 2021), lengthy scales (Ziegler, Poropat & Mell, 2014), forced participation, low altruism or presence of the researcher (Gorrell et al., 2011) and entering responses at speed without considering the questions (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). Yet, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012) acknowledge there must often be a ‘trade off’ in reality.

Researchers will inevitably meet CMB at some point and it is almost impossible to completely avoid. To mitigate its contamination, researcher should group related themes together, use established measures or the same scale attributes throughout the questionnaire and provide an example answer to demonstrate the use of the scale (Weijters, Schillewaert & Geuens, 2008).

Descriptive Statistics: Having addressed any data errors and finalised the cleaning of the data, descriptive analysis is the next logical step in understanding the data. SPSS is typically used to examine mean, mode and median frequencies. It is also useful in examining variations in any demographic data, in particular mean and mode frequencies in this research. The results of which will be presented further on in this thesis in Chapter 5 (section 5.4).

4.7 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a second-generation statistical analysis technique sometimes referred to as simultaneous equation modelling, causal analysis, or causal modelling. It has emerged due to the need to test complete theories and concepts (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins & Kuppelwieser, 2014). Its popularity is due to its ability to permit simultaneous approximations of comprehensive causal networks and the incorporation of latent variables whilst estimating the effects across multiple groups (Ullman & Bentler, 2003). At its most basic level, SEM can analyse the factors and relationships between independent and dependent variables through a multiple regression approach. Within SEM, path analysis and confirmatory factor analysis are two types of SEM process which illustrate that SEM is capable of an exploratory or confirmatory approach (Hair et al., 2016). SEM can model numerous paths in a single analysis by combining several measurements, for example by using factor analysis and assessing how variables load on the constructs and secondly, by assessing the load of independent factors from hypothesised paths (Mueller & Hancock, 2018). This amalgamation of measures enables errors to be clearly identified and hypothesis testing through factor analysis. Therefore, SEM is a suitable form of analysis for more complex processes. As this research is based on a positivist approach and aims to confirm the validity of factors discussed in the previous chapter, the use of SEM, and in particular the ability of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is highly appropriate.

4.7.1 Contrasts between a Covariance-based Approach and Variance-based SEM

Further consideration of SEM requires the selection of either a covariance-based approach or variance-based approach. The key difference between either approach is threefold a). the analytical objectives of the study b). the statistical fit and c). the statistical assumptions (Reinartz, Haenlein & Henseler, 2009).

Covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM): minimises the gap between the structure of an observed and predicted matrix, whilst calculating the path estimates. Covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) measures for correlations and variable indicators among constructs that theoretically support and identify each factor (Mia, Majri & Rahman, 2019). This approach has several advantages a). it allows for interactive and complex effects to be highlighted and examined, b). Indicators with low

loadings and/or large error terms can be disregarded thus improving the quality of the latent construct, c). Mutual covariation of all latent constructs permits a quantitative analysis of discriminant and convergent validity across all d). it allows for the concurrent optimisation of correlations amongst constructs (Reinartz, Haenlein & Henseler, 2009; Roldán & Sánchez-Franco, 2012). CB-SEM is often used when models consist of moderating and mediating relationships, for example a Chi-square test can be used to detect invariance amongst multiple groups. CB-SEM tools such as AMOS and LISREL can be utilised effectively for such analysis (Hair, Gabriel & Patel, 2014). Despite its popularity, the CB-SEM approach has been criticised, as it assumes that data is normal in multivariate parameters (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011).

CB-SEM relies on a goodness of model fit, in other words model testing and confirmatory outcomes. Some researchers warn against the use of PLS-SEM for this purpose (Westland, 2015; Hair et al., 2019). PLS-SEM does not reduce the divergence between estimated and observed covariance items, for example the model-fit measures of a Chi-square based measure and any extensions, typically seen in CB-SEM measures, are not applicable here. PLS-SEM examines the interplay between theory testing and prediction (Mueller & Hancock, 2018). Therefore, the assessment of ‘goodness of fit’ does not apply to PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2021).

Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM): is a variance-based technique and essentially a variation of the SEM tool. It shares some similarity with the process of regression analysis; however, it is far more advanced in determining measurement errors. PLS-SEM enables researchers to estimate models that have numerous constructs, structural paths, and indicator variables without applying distributional assumptions on the data (Hair et al., 2019). When using statistical models that aim to demonstrate causal relationships, PLS-SEM provides a sound causal-predictive method in highlighting estimated structures for this purpose (Sarstedt et al., 2017). This approach has greater statistical power and ability to identify significant relationships amongst the population data (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019). This can be extremely useful when exploring or developing a theory. In contrast to CB-SEM, PLS-SEM does not rely on multivariate distribution of the data or a robust theoretical foundation. This makes PLS-SEM suitable for theory-building as well as confirmatory analysis. By estimating partial model structures, PLS-SEM combines analysis of the principal constructs with ordinary least squares regressions. This is less restricting than the CB-SEM

approach which relies on limited assumptions (Hair et al., 2019). PLS-SEM considers the total variance to estimate parameters, whereas CB-SEM selects only the common variance to estimate the parameters. This makes CB-SEM far more restrictive in its assumptions (Hair et al., 2017). Hair et al., (2019) states that PLS-SEM is most appropriate for use when “the structural model is complex and includes many constructs, indicators and/or model relationships” (p.5). The researchers add that where the aim is to try and understand increasing complexity and develop theory or test a theoretical framework from a predictive position, then PLS-SEM is highly appropriate.

Compared to CB-SEM, PLS-SEM offers greater flexibility where sample sizes may be smaller, and the number of constructs remain large. The PLS-SEM algorithm considers the relationships between constructs separately, not simultaneously (Mueller & Hancock, 2018). Therefore, it measures partial regressions through separate items using ordinary least squares regressions (Sarstedt et al., 2017). PLS-SEM can also support research where distributional assumptions are lacking, although this should not be the singular reason for using PLS-SEM. Where data is non-normal, both CB-SEM and PLS-SEM can result in skewed distributions. If the researcher suspects this, then bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrapping can be applied (BCa) to adjust for confidence intervals (Hair et al., 2019).

In summary, the common factor-based approach to SEM utilises common factors to represent unobserved conceptual variables. Using the AMOS software package for SEM analysis is appropriate when estimating factor-based frameworks and models. Such an approach uses weighted constructs to show unobserved conceptual variables. AMOS does not estimate composite-based models. However, the SmartPLS software package is capable of estimating composite-based models but does not deal with factor-based models. It is therefore an important consideration to select the most appropriate software to analyse the data for the most accurate outcomes.

4.7.2 Selection of an Appropriate SEM technique for this Study

Several employee engagement studies have utilised SEM in their analysis (Anaza & Rutherford, 2012a; Anaza & Rutherford, 2012b; Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013). CB-

SEM is most appropriate when the aim of the researcher is to compare or confirm outcomes of a theory or theories, whereas PLS-SEM is a preferred approach for the analysis of relationships between complex and numerous constructs. The PLS-SEM approach can help researchers further understand the increasing complexity of relationships when applying an established model to a new context (Ringle et al., 2020). Table 15 below highlights the important of the data cleaning process and its suitability for large complex models with multiple relationships.

This research aims to test an existing model in an entirely new context, the model is anchored to a well-established theoretical foundation (social exchange theory). However, it is unknown if such a basis can be applied to an entirely different context. Therefore, the research is essentially confirmatory based. Software for PLS-based SEM typically use SmartPLS or PLS-Graph (Ringle et al., 2015). In this case, PLS-SEM will utilise SmartPLS (version 4.0) to examine the data and test the hypotheses.

Table 15: Data characteristics, model characteristics and model evaluation capability of PLS-SEM

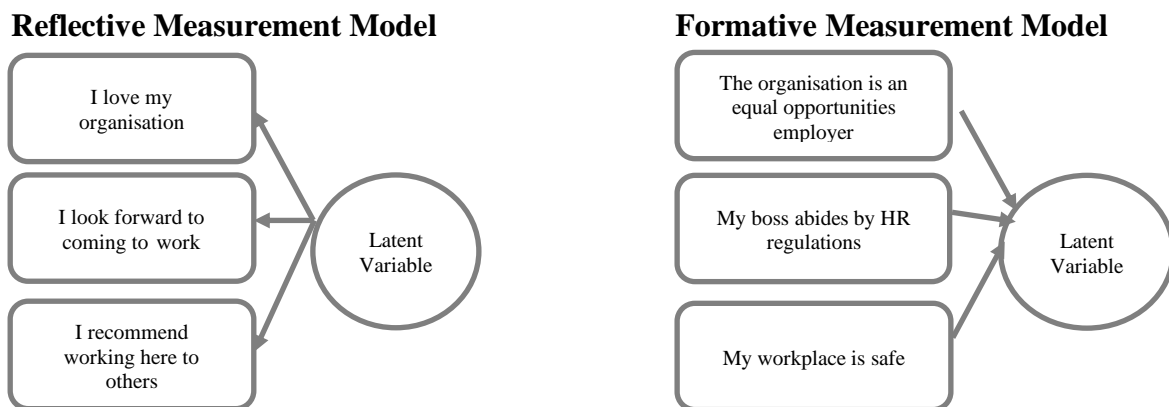
Research Design	PLS Characteristics (Hair et al., 2021)
Sample Size	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capable of achieving high statistical power from small samples • Can enhance precision in large samples (estimations)
Data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nonparametric so no distributional assumptions • However, collinearity and important outliers may interfere with results • Data cleaning should omit missing values or have no more than % missing. • Suits ordinal scale measures
Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Handles multiple relationships in complex models • Handles formative and reflective measurement models
Estimation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maximises the amount of unexplained variance i.e R^2 values • Used for predictive modelling and not compromised by inadequacies in the data • Consistent and unbiased in estimating data in composite models • High statistical power compared to CB-SEM and multiple regression
Measurement & Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Model fit does not apply as it does with CB-SEM • Formal models assessed by convergent validity, Indicator collinearity and significance if indicators • Reflective models assessed by internal consistency, indicator reliability, discriminant and convergent validity.

4.7.3 The Assessment of Measurement Model

The first stage of evaluating PLS-SEM results is to assess the measurement model, the criteria of which differ for formative and reflective constructs. The measurement model essentially pertains to the measurement of the constructs, otherwise referred to as the latent variables and the observed variables. Both formative and reflective measures are taken (Mueller & Hancock, 2018). Formative measures are otherwise known as the ‘casual index’ and refers to the direction the arrows point to in SEM models, these stem from observed variables to constructs. Reflective measures assume that the constructs are responsible for the measurement where the arrows stem from the construct to the observed variable (Hair et al., 2017). It is important that researchers account for this when employing constructs to ascribe logical relationships in the structural model. Therefore, a formative measurement model is used for each indicator item that is not predicted to be correlated. However, the reflective measure is utilised when measurement items (latent variables) are caused by the construct, here a correlation is expected (Ringle et al., 2020).

Figure 12 below shows an example of the structure of both reflective and formative models. Reflective indicators can be removed or be interchangeable (within reason) without impacting the nature of the latent variable. The arrows for the formative measure are impacting upon the latent variable, if one of the items were to be removed then the construct would be incomplete.

Figure 12: Reflective and formative measurement models



If the measurement model meets the necessary criteria, the next step is to assess the structural model (Hair et al., 2017). The assessment of measurement model is concerned with convergent validity, discriminant validity and internal consistency reliability (Mueller & Hancock, 2018). According to Hair et al. (2019) interpreting PLS-SEM results requires a ‘robustness check’ of the indicator loadings to assess the stability of the results. For example, loadings above 0.708 suggest that the construct is responsible for over 50% of the indicator’s variance. This provides an acceptable level of reliability for the item. loadings closer to 1.0 indicate a higher degree of internal consistency of the constructs (Hair et al., 2019). When it comes to assessing internal consistency reliability, the measurement model relies on higher levels 0.70-0.90 are considered satisfactory to good. However, items with reliability values of 0.95 and over are undesirable and may inflate correlations among indicators. Alternatively, Cronbach’s alpha can be used to check of internal consistency reliability. Whilst this approach relies on similar thresholds, it can show lower values of reliability. In other words, it is less precise as a measure of reliability. However, there is an argument that Cronbach’s alpha can produce rather conservative measures or, in contrast, measure of the composite reliability to show a very liberal value. Therefore, a measure that exists between composite reliability and Cronbach’s alpha is needed (Ringle et al., 2020).

One popular approach is using bootstrap confidence intervals. This approach tests the construct reliability is beyond the minimum threshold (above 0.70) and below the maximum threshold (0.95). The reflective measurement model is also concerned with convergent validity, this is essentially the degree to which the construct converges to indicate the variance of its items. It does this through calculating the convergent validity and the average variance extracted (AVE) across all items and on each construct (Hair et al., 2019). Another key step of the reflective measurement model is to evaluate ‘discriminant validity’. This is the degree to which a construct is empirically different from other constructs in the model. This is an important measure as it can highlight whether a particular construct is unique amongst other constructs in the model. To do this, a common test is used - the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT). The item correlation’s mean value is relative “to the (geometric) mean of the average correlations for the items measuring the same construct” (Hair et al., 2019 p.5). If HTMT scores are high, then this indicates there are issues with discriminant validity. The threshold value of 0.90 would show items as conceptually very high in similarity e.g., affective organisational commitment and normative or continual organisational

commitment. However, if the constructs are more distinct, a lower threshold such as 0.85 is more likely. This notwithstanding, bootstrapping can be used to test the HTMT value is below 1.00 and lower than 0.90-0.85. Many social science-based studies involve a reflective measurement, this has been adopted for this study. Results from this study are presented in Chapter 5.

4.7.4 Assessing the Structural Model

Once the reliability and validity of the model have been assessed, the next step of the PLS-SEM process is to assess the structural model. The structural model expresses the relationships between constructs and shows how constructs are related (Hair et al., 2017). Independent variables are presented on the left of the model, whilst dependent variables appear on the right. Essentially, the variables appearing on the left are predicting the variables on the right (Ringle et al., 2020). Constructs are either classed as endogenous or exogenous variables. Endogenous variables can be independent variables or dependent or independent at the same time. These typically show single arrows emerging out of them and travelling to other variables or constructs on the model. Opposed to this, exogenous variables are independent variables that have one arrow emerging from them and point towards a construct and no links to show other arrows pointing towards them (Hair et al., 2016).

Assessment of the structural model can utilize several tests which include the coefficient of determination (R^2), the relevance of the path coefficients, an f^2 effect size, or a cross validated redundancy measure (Q^2) (Hair et al., 2019). Coefficients for analysing the relationships between constructs estimate several regression equations. Prior to this, the researcher must check for collinearity as not to bias results.

Path coefficients present hypothesised relationships between constructs with values varying between -1 to +1. According to Hair et al. (2014) weak relationships will appear nearer to -1 and vice versa. Furthermore, by examining the statistical significance of the coefficient through t and p values (less than 0.05) can also highlight strong relationships between constructs.

The next test is examining R^2 values via the endogenous constructs and thereby establishing the explanatory power of the model (Shmueli & Koppius, 2011). The R^2 values range from 0 - 1, the

greater the value the higher the explanatory power. R2 values of 0.25 are considered weak, whereas a value of 0.75 would be considered high and 0.50 moderate. (Hair et al., 2019).

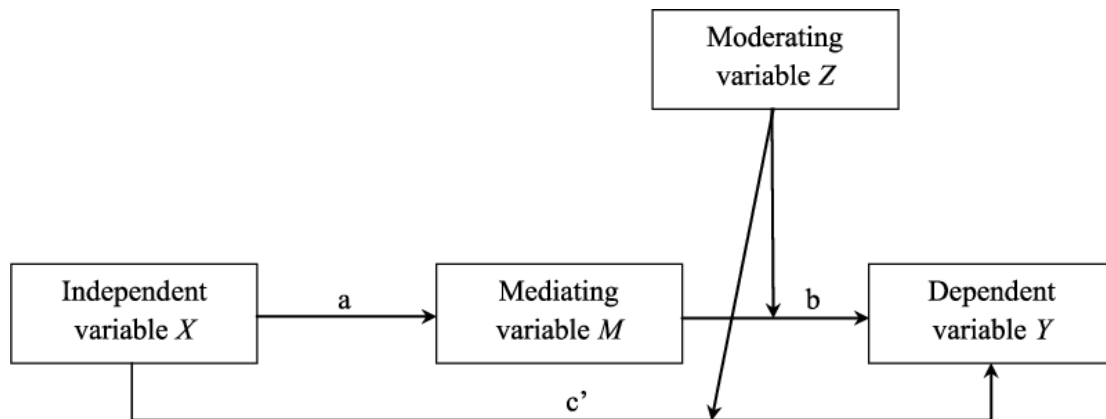
4.7.5 Mediation and Moderation

Both mediation and moderation analysis (see Figure 13 below) are commonly applied in organisational research (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). A mediator or mediation variable explains the process by which two variables are connected. Whereas a moderator or moderating variable will affect the strength of the connection. Therefore, when we apply analysis, we may apply either mediation analysis to explain relationships. This can be done through linear regression or using an ANOVA (Harrison et al., 2020). Alternatively, moderation analysis is used to understand which variables affect the direction and strength of a particular relationship (Muller, Judd & Yzerbyt, 2005).

By using mediation and/or moderation the research moves beyond reporting on a basic relationship between two variables. Instead, we are attempting to understand a causal or correlational variables (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). A mediator is the construct between two variables. The mediator is considered the way in which an independent variable influences a dependent variable. Mediation can also be fully or partially shown, full mediation offers a full explanation of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. It shows a direct effect between the latent and observed variables to a significant degree (Muller et al., 2005). Partial mediation shows a significant statistical relationship between the latent and observed variables, even when the mediator is removed from the model. Significance is reduced but is still present at a significant degree (Harrison et al., 2020). In terms of this research, the mediators are job engagement and organisation engagement.

One approach to effectively examining mediator and moderators is using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). It can mitigate control error and using the bootstrapping technique, it can provide estimates for indirect effect (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017).

Figure 13: Influence of a mediator compared to a moderator (adapted from Borau et al., 2015)



Moderating variables tend to be categorical (ethnicity, religion, race) or quantifiable in nature (height, age, weight, income). They can be useful in determining the external validity of the study for example job engagement may have a stronger relationship to job satisfaction for younger temporary employees working on a particularly demanding packing line in the warehouse. However, in terms of this research is it the mediator relationships being examined and not moderators.

4.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the research design, approach, and methods available and filtered through the options to determine an appropriate methodology. The philosophical assumptions established the ontological foundation of an objectivist position thus placing emphasis is the epistemological position of positivism. Examination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches established merit in both and acknowledgement that they can be complimentary rather than fierce rivals. However, for the purposes of this study, a quantitative approach has been selected as the most appropriate in the context of this study. Instrument development was the next logical consideration and a set of established questionnaires reflected by the original Saks (2006) study were adopted. The order of items, use of accessible language and the insertion of a semantic differential scale as a response format were reviewed and justified. The focus then shifted to the sampling procedure and target population. The sample frame, sample technique and size were established for the purposes of applying Saks (2006) model in a new context and in consideration of a quantitative approach. Survey distribution and completion were also discussed alongside ethical

considerations. The pre-pilot test highlighted the requirement for minor adjustments and allowed the researcher to ascertain completion times. The handling of data was then discussed, and this is where Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) revealed itself to be an appropriate tool for analysis in this study. Consideration was given to using Covariance-based (CB-SEM) (AMOS) and Partial least squares (PLS-SEM) for analysis. PLS is a variance-based technique and shares some similarity with the process of regression analysis, however, it is far more advanced in determining measurement errors. PLS-SEM enables researchers to estimate models that have numerous constructs, structural paths, and indicator variables without applying distributional assumptions on the data. To do this robustly, the stages of preliminary analysis were discussed, including missing data, outliers, normality, and common method bias. The use of structural equation modelling was then explored for the purposes of this study along with the mediation and moderation as potential lenses. In the next chapter, the findings from applying the methods discussed here will be presented.

5 RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter is structured as follows, sections 5.2 and 5.3 present the preliminary data analysis, including the response-rate and data cleaning process. Section 5.4 reports the descriptive statistics. This is followed by Section 5.5 which evaluates the application of PLS-SEM in establishing the validity and reliability of the measurement model and the structural model. The application of multigroup analysis is discussed in section 5.6 and 5.7 compares results found by the Saks (2006) results. Finally, a summary of this Chapter can be found in section 5.8.

5.2 Response Rates

Hardcopies of the self-administered questionnaire were distributed to all three agency cohorts based in the UK warehouse (client organisation) over a two-week period beginning in May 2018. In total, 325 potential respondents were approached and given the option to take part in the study, by agreeing to complete a questionnaire each respondent was given 45 minutes off the warehouse floor, a beverage, and a snack. In total, 298 questionnaires were submitted resulting in 277 usable questionnaires after data cleaning. A benefit of using PLS-SEM is its aptitude in modelling limited sample sizes (Sarstedt et al. 2016). However, Hair et al (2016) stipulate the minimum sample should reflect the number of connectors pointing to the largest latent variable $\times 10$. In this case, there are six constructs directed at job engagement and organisational engagement, therefore 10×6 requires a minimum of 60 respondents for SEM to be used as an analysis tool. The sample-set is 277 and therefore comfortably above the minimum threshold.

5.3 Preliminary Data Analysis

Prior to any analysis via SmartPLS, it is important to scrutinise the data for any errors or potential issues. Commonly referred to as ‘data cleaning’ or ‘data screening’, this process aims to detect, diagnose, and edit data abnormalities before moving onto PLS-SEM analysis (Van den Broeck et al., 2005). Items considered to be outliers or those with missing data can impact the validity and reliability of the results.

5.3.1 Missing Data

As the data collection was conducted on-site at the warehouse, and respondents were given adequate time and privacy to complete the self-administered questionnaires, there was very little issue with missing data in the main body of the hardcopy. This is despite respondents being able to leave the room at any time and completion being non-compulsory. However, examination of the demographic data revealed several missing values. Missing values are a common issue in quantitative data collection and can be attributed to several causes, including refusal to answer the question, not understanding the question, accidentally missing a question and an oversight on the researcher's part when inputting the data (Bryman, 2016). Responses were entered into an excel spreadsheet and scrutinised for missing values. When examining demographic data, 43 respondents (15.5%) did not provide an answer for their age range and eight respondents (2.9%) did not complete the gender question. Eight respondents did not answer the question related to wanting a permanent and direct role with The Client organisation (2.9%). However, the questionnaire items related to the constructs were completed and therefore included in the study.

5.3.2 Outlier Analysis

The next stage is to analyse the data for any anomalies in the values otherwise known as outliers, for example 233 in the age category instead of the intended 23 years old. Outliers may indicate an error or highlight variability in the data, and this could cause an issue during SEM data analysis and skew the results (Bryman, 2016). This is particularly important if the sample size is relatively small. Cousineau and Chartier (2010) describe the univariate outlier as a frequent issue. This is an outlier that falls outside of the expected range with either a markedly lower or higher value compared to the rest of the data set. It is therefore important to analyse the data set for such anomalies. This is done by evaluating the Z scores (also referred to as standard scores) whereby the raw data is assessed for its standard deviation relationship from the Mean of the group values. Z scores are useful for standardising values of normal distribution (ND), this enables researchers to assess the probability of a score appearing within a curve of standard normal distribution (SND). Z scores can also be useful when we need to compare two sets of scores from different cohorts.

To interpret a z score, the SND will always have a Mean of 0 and SND data will resemble the same distribution curve as ND. If a Z score is above the Mean, it is positive, for example if the data is equal to +1 then it falls 1 standard deviation above the Mean, and below the Mean is a negative e.g., -1 is one standard deviation below the Mean (Bryman, 2016). According to Hair et al. (2016) the threshold for the group values should be less than 4 standard deviation points away from the Mean if the sample size is over 200 respondents. In this case, the sample is 277 respondents and therefore the threshold of 4 is established as the cap and any items beyond this can be considered univariate outliers. To examine the Z-scores, SPSS version 29 was used to analyse and locate any data exceeding a Z-score of 4 (see Table 16). As shown in Table 16 no score reached above 4, therefore no univariate outliers were present in the data set.

Table 16: Z-Scores demonstrating the highest and lowest standard scores

Constructs	Items	Minimum Z-score	Maximum Z-score
Job Characteristics	JC1	-1.85163	1.27739
	JC2	-2.16755	1.35527
	JC3	-1.94297	1.13276
	JC4	-2.55153	1.02829
	JC5	-2.01738	1.04584
	JC6	-2.04422	1.01071
Perceived Organisational Support	POS1	-2.01213	1.14500
	POS2	-1.87533	1.20803
	POS3	-1.34485	1.72691
	POS4	-1.83822	1.22293
	POS5	-1.94859	1.28165
	POS6	-2.16029	1.19643
	POS7	-2.64144	1.06871
	POS8	-1.70053	1.56299
Perceived Supervisor Support	PSS1	-2.24784	0.87075
	PSS2	-2.39115	0.93091
	PSS3	-2.00848	1.08178
	PSS4	-1.16380	1.88200
Rewards and Recognition	R&R1	-1.36125	1.32450
	R&R2	-1.74143	1.01741
	R&R3	-1.31915	1.45313
	R&R4	-2.39084	1.16875
	R&R5	-2.44920	0.84519
	R&R6	-1.17484	1.76775
	R&R7	-1.83556	1.06835
	R&R8	-1.58079	1.34441
	R&R9	-1.55077	1.29737
	R&R10	-1.32339	1.66263
Procedural Justice	PJ1	-1.34614	1.69697

	PJ2	-1.30058	1.66679
	PJ3	-2.22965	1.16339
	PJ4	-2.42428	1.34791
	PJ5	-1.95910	1.31657
	PJ6	-1.78756	1.17308
	PJ7	-1.42148	1.53962
Distributive Justice	DJ1	-1.98515	1.12204
	DJ2	-2.00419	1.18000
	DJ3	-2.14027	1.22697
	DJ4	-2.12396	1.18791
Job Engagement	JE1	-2.55938	1.10154
	JE2	-2.06319	1.22859
	JE3	-2.66330	1.16411
	JE4	-0.89393	2.20088
	JE5	-2.64626	0.98604
Organisation Engagement	OE1	-2.73043	1.00054
	OE2	-2.86230	1.05939
	OE3	-1.51103	1.89042
	OE4	-2.73015	1.31906
	OE5	-2.77528	1.24461
	OE6	-2.69569	1.14421
Job Satisfaction	JS1	-2.64036	0.84031
	JS2	-0.72548	2.58922
	JS3	-3.07433	0.63678
Organisational Commitment	OC1	-1.89269	1.07168
	OC2	-2.36898	1.08186
	OC3	-1.93851	1.26802
	OC4	-2.75256	1.07729
	OC5	-2.99354	0.82111
	OC6	-2.43497	1.02695
Intention to Quit	ITQ1	-0.92187	1.91329
	ITQ2	-0.83691	2.10142
	ITQ3	-2.91036	0.77317
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (individual)	OCBI1	-3.52865	0.78888
	OCBI2	-2.49050	1.05530
	OCBI3	-3.00524	0.96879
	OCBI4	-3.40167	0.87938
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (organisation)	OCBO1	-2.26876	1.15051
	OCBO2	-2.88995	0.83962
	OCBO3	-2.79697	1.01445
	OCBO4	-2.66436	1.07708

5.3.3 Assessing for Normality

As discussed previously, due to the non-parametric approach of PLS-SEM in this study, normality testing is not required. However, in the interest of good practice and for additional verification, skewness and kurtosis ratios will be examined. Skewness relates to the normal distribution of the data while Kurtosis is concerned with the ‘shape’ of the data (Bryman. 2016). This analysis is particularly important to small sample sizes of thirty or below as normality may be an issue and invalidate the process of analysis. However, for sample sets above 200 assessing for normality is not essential (Hair et al., 2016). According to Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2013) skewness and Kurtosis both have optimal values of zero, however normal distribution should be below the threshold of ± 2.58 . Kline (2015) states that a threshold of ± 3 is also acceptable. Table 17 shows the results of normality testing for this study. The values presented show an acceptable level of both skewness and Kurtosis.

Table 17: Assessing for skewness and kurtosis values

Construct	Item	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistics	St. Error	Statistics	St. Error
Job Characteristics	JC1	-0.458	0.149	-0.800	0.297
	JC2	-0.313	0.149	-0.714	0.298
	JC3	-0.621	0.149	-0.778	0.297
	JC4	-0.859	0.150	-0.070	0.299
	JC5	-0.718	0.149	-0.685	0.297
	JC6	-0.696	0.149	-0.690	0.297
Perceived Organisational Support	POS1	-0.619	0.149	-0.685	0.297
	POS2	-0.465	0.149	-0.959	0.297
	POS3	0.263	0.149	-1.031	0.297
	POS4	-0.408	0.149	-1.010	0.297
	POS5	-0.471	0.149	-0.719	0.297
	POS6	-0.637	0.149	-0.459	0.297
	POS7	-0.908	0.150	0.186	0.298
	POS8	-0.117	0.151	-0.846	0.300
Perceived Supervisor Support	PSS1	-1.022	0.148	-0.122	0.295
	PSS2	-1.031	0.147	0.104	0.294
	PSS3	-0.671	0.149	-0.722	0.296

	PSS4	0.501	0.148	-0.891	0.295
Reward & Recognition	R&R1	-0.074	0.149	-1.418	0.297
	R&R2	-0.570	0.149	-1.116	0.297
	R&R3	0.157	0.149	-1.313	0.296
	R&R4	-0.650	0.149	-0.257	0.297
	R&R5	-1.136	0.149	0.249	0.297
	R&R6	0.399	0.149	-1.097	0.297
	R&R7	-0.563	0.148	-0.943	0.295
	R&R8	-0.205	0.150	-1.227	0.299
	R&R9	-0.183	0.149	-1.231	0.298
	R&R10	0.209	0.149	-1.094	0.297
Procedural Justice	PJ1	0.076	0.149	-1.185	0.298
	PJ2	0.122	0.150	-1.215	0.300
	PJ3	-0.595	0.150	-0.603	0.300
	PJ4	-0.472	0.152	-0.235	0.303
	PJ5	-0.418	0.151	-0.780	0.301
	PJ6	-0.439	0.150	-1.063	0.298
	PJ7	0.052	0.151	-1.224	0.302
Distributive Justice	DJ1	-0.589	0.150	-0.811	0.299
	DJ2	-0.543	0.150	-0.821	0.299
	DJ3	-0.630	0.150	-0.515	0.299
	DJ4	-0.590	0.150	-0.586	0.299
Job Engagement	JE1	-0.648	0.150	-0.434	0.300
	JE2	-0.500	0.151	-0.748	0.302
	JE3	-0.771	0.152	-0.036	0.303
	JE4	0.898	0.149	-0.460	0.298
	JE5	-0.873	0.150	-0.012	0.299
Organisation Engagement	OE1	-0.841	0.149	-0.115	0.298
	OE2	-0.796	0.149	-0.061	0.296
	OE3	0.229	0.151	-0.859	0.301
	OE4	-0.503	0.150	-0.245	0.299
	OE5	-0.670	0.149	0.031	0.297
	OE6	-0.592	0.150	-0.414	0.299
Job Satisfaction	JS1	-1.144	0.148	0.336	0.294
	JS2	1.425	0.150	0.892	0.298
	JS3	-1.753	0.148	2.240	0.295
Organisational Commitment	OC1	-0.529	0.148	-1.006	0.294

	OC2	-0.712	0.149	-0.396	0.296
	OC3	-0.459	0.148	-0.759	0.295
	OC4	-0.769	0.149	-0.118	0.296
	OC5	-1.178	0.148	0.677	0.295
	OC6	-0.861	0.149	-0.056	0.297
Intention to Quit	ITQ1	0.778	0.150	-0.791	0.298
	ITQ2	0.947	0.149	-0.452	0.297
	ITQ3	-1.254	0.149	0.737	0.298
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (Individual)	OCBI1	-1.409	0.148	1.683	0.295
	OCBI2	-0.853	0.149	-0.054	0.298
	OCBI3	-0.983	0.149	0.319	0.297
	OCBI4	-1.125	0.148	0.720	0.295
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (organisation)	OCBO1	-0.636	0.150	-0.480	0.298
	OCBO2	-1.237	0.149	0.842	0.297
	OCBO3	-0.947	0.150	0.379	0.299
	OCBO4	-0.792	0.150	-0.061	0.299

5.4 Descriptive Statistics

Once the data cleaning has been completed and the appropriateness of the values established for further analysis, the next stage is to observe the descriptive statistics. In this case, the descriptive statistics summarise the characteristics of the sample population. For this study, demographic data was gathered from the 277 respondents and included items such as gender, age, and agency status (see Table 18).

Table 18: Demographic Characteristics

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male Gender	178	64.2
Female Gender	90	32.5
Prefer not to say	1	0.4
Undisclosed	8	2.9
Total	277	100
Age		
18-24	33	11.9
25-34	87	31.4
35-44	58	21.9

45-54	35	12.6
55-64	19	6
65+	2	0.7
No Response	43	15.5
Total	277	100

Employment Status	Frequency	Percentage
Desire to gain a permanent position with The Client Org.	192	69.3
No desire to gain a permanent position with The Client Org.	32	12.6
Undecided about taking a permanent position with Client Org.	42	15.2
No Response	11	2.9
Total	277	100

Gender (see Figure 14 below): In a sample size of 277, the results show a higher number of male respondents $n=178$ (64.2%) compared to female $n=90$ (32.5%) and one respondent that preferred not to disclose their gender $n=1$ (0.4%). Eight respondents did not answer the gender question $n=8$ (2.9%). Furthermore, three temporary agencies were working at The Client organisation and data secured from each of the cohorts. The demographic breakdown is as follows (see Figure 15 below).

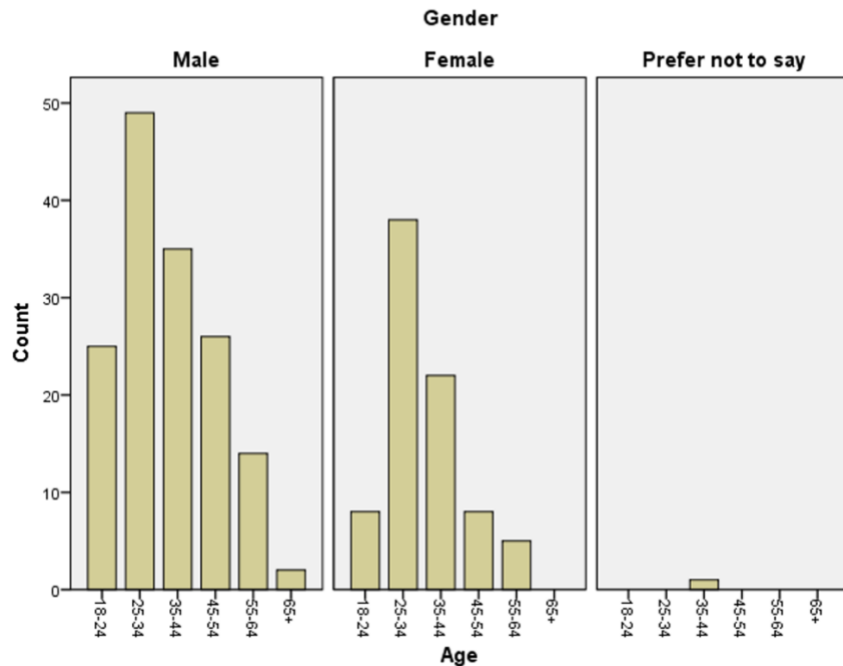


Figure 14: Analysis of respondents by gender

Figure 15: Analysis of gender at client organisation

Age: In terms of age, $n=43$ (15.5%) respondents did not answer this question. For those that did, most respondents belonged in the 25-34 years, and this was the case across all three agencies (see Figure 16).

Age Profile:

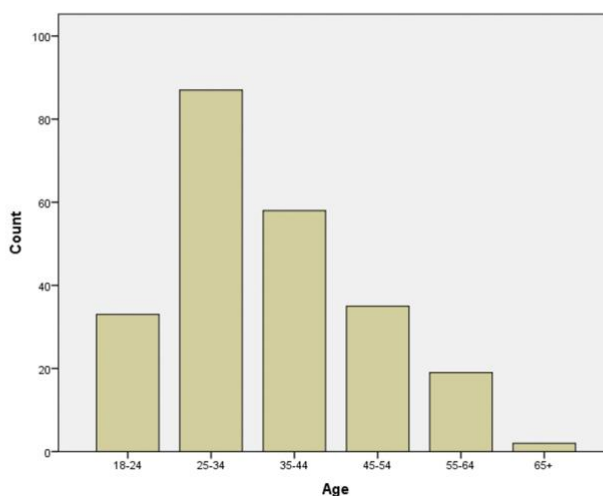


Figure 16: Analysis of respondent age categories

5.4.1 Sample Size and Gender

In comparison to previous studies using Saks work, the number of usable responses in this study is in line with previous studies. These studies used self-completion questionnaires using measures featured in the Saks model and this study. For example, Anaza and Rutherford, (2012a) used data from 272 responses in their study of USA frontline employees with a gender mix of 72.8% female and 27.2% male to examine relationship between job satisfaction, employee patronage and employee engagement. In a further study by Anaza and Rutherford, (2012b) examining Employee-customer identification and job engagement, data from 297 USA frontline employees with a gender mix of 74% female and 26% male was analysed. Both studies are near the sample size used in this research. However, the gender mix is more weighted towards female respondents compared to 64.3% of male respondents in this study.

Weighted toward higher numbers of male respondents is a study by Biswas and Bhatnagar, (2013) into Mediator analysis of employee engagement. Capturing data from 246 full-time managers and executives from six organisations based in India, response rates were 87.1% male and 12.9% female. This may be due to the cultural climate within these organisations. This weighting is also reflected in a study by Biswas, Varma and Ramaswami (2013) and may be attributed to the same cultural norms. This study linked distributive and procedural justice to employee engagement. Of the 238 responses from senior managers and executives from manufacturing and service industries in India 74.4% males, 25.6% female. Examining work and organisation engagement in the chemicals industry based in the Netherlands and an auto-engineering industry based in the UK, Farndale, et al. (2014) received 298 usable responses showing a gender mix of 84.4% male, 15.6 % Female. This is unsurprising given the nature of the industries being male dominated.

An interesting gender mix examining organisation engagement is research conducted by Mahon, Taylor and Boyatzis, (2014) who examined antecedents of organisational engagement. Of the 285 responses from a for-profit organisation and a non-profit organisation based in the USA, for profit employee responses accounted for 65% male and not-for-profit respondents were only 25% male. This could be due to the specific organisations used in the study rather than a reflection of the sector itself. Given the extant literature, the sample size and gender mix for this thesis reflects previous studies and therefore provides an acceptable level of data across the genders. [REDACTED]

5.4.2 Sample Age

Of the 277 respondents, 43 (15.5%) did not answer the question relating to age range. The largest proportion of respondents (31.4%) was in the 25-34 range. The median age in this study 36-45. Within The Client organisation employees age distribution has remained in steady state for several years (Company Inclusivity Report, 2022). [REDACTED]

This median age is somewhat reflective of previous multidimensional engagement studies. Age Mean ranges fall between 33 up to 50 years of age. Most studies show the largest cohorts for those 30-39 years old (Saks, 2006. Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Biswas, Varma & Ramaswami, 2013; and Juhdi, Pa’wan & Hansaram, 2013)

5.4.3 Employee Status and Agency Profile

Demographic data collected also included information about the TAWs current employment status with their agency. Of the 277 useable responses, $n=131$ (47.3%) were working full-time for the agency and at The Client organisation. Part-time TAWs accounted for $n=115$ (41.5%). Thirty-one respondents (11.2%) did not answer the question. In terms of the time spend working for their agencies, this ranged from five months ($n=1$) to ten years ($n=2$). Experience of working with The Client organisation ranged from two months ($n=1$) to seven years ($n=1$).

5.4.4 Future Employment Status with Client Organisation

Additional status information was gathered about the respondents’ desire to gain permanent employment with The Client Organisation. Figure 17 below shows the number of respondents according to agency who wish to gain employment with The Client organisation. Results show a high number of TAWs would be happy to work directly for The Client organisation. Results showed that $n=192$ (69.3%) of the 277 respondents would take up the opportunity to work on a

permanent basis for The Client Organisation, n=42 (15.2%) were undecided and n=35 (12.6%) had no desire to work for The Client organisation on a permanent basis. This category of data was captured to ascertain whether TAWs had any reason to be engaged with The Client beyond their basic contractual obligations.



5.4.5 SmartPLS Structural Equation Modelling

Having ensured the data was screened for any anomalies and assessed for its appropriateness for further analysis, it is now time to apply structural equation modelling. Given the predictive and behavioural-causal nature of the study, Lowry and Gaskin (2014) suggest variance-based PLS-SEM as an ideal approach. Therefore, the latest version of SmartPLS 4 software was selected to test both measurement and structural models. In compliance with good academic practice, the measurement model was to be assessed first, followed by the structural model. As discussed in Chapter 4 (section 4.7.3), the measurement model is concerned with establishing the validity and reliability of the constructs. The structural model assesses the significance of structural relationships between variables to test the hypotheses (Hair et al., 2016).

5.4.6 Assessment of the Measurement Model

As discussed in Chapter 4 section 4.7.3, there are three criteria for examining a reflective measurement model: Internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Within this criteria, individual results are examined (Hair et al., 2016). However, before proceeding with these measures, it is appropriate to check for measurement errors, this is where a common method bias statistical test is normally applied (Kock, 2015).

Stage 1. Establishing Reliability (internal consistency)	Stage 2. Establishing Construct Validity
Cronbach's alpha	Convergent validity - examined through average variance extracted (AVE)

Composite reliability testing	Discriminant validity – examined through Fornell-Larker criterion, cross-loadings and Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT)
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Common Method Bias (CMB): arises by the measurement method rather than the effects being observed in the study itself. This can happen when several indicators in SEM share common variation due to data items being collected with the same type of measure and sometimes be exacerbated by social desirability when completing the questionnaire (Kock, 2015). Harman’s single factor test is typically applied to analyse for CMB. This test is prevalent in social science studies, particularly behavioural research (Chin et al., 2016). However, according to Kock (2015) and Gaskin (2020) common method bias is not a typical assessment measure in PLS analysis. Instead, CMB can be identified during the collinearity stage and assessed by the variance inflated factors (VIF) scores. Those factors lower than 3.3 are free of common method bias (see section 5.4.9 for the collinearity assessment and Table 26).

Indicator Reliability: is an important check in SEM analysis as it assesses the degrees of commonality between indicators measuring the same construct (Hair et al., 2013). To do this, the values of the outer loadings are examined and a threshold of over 0.70 or above shows sound indicator reliability, whereby the indicators are representing the construct to a high degree (Hair et al., 2016). However, outer loadings between 0.40 to 0.70 may require removal if Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and composite reliability are increased. Outer loadings falling between 0.50-0.60 are accepted when the outer loadings of other indicators measuring the same construct appear higher (Hair et al., 2013). To reiterate, it is the significant outer loadings 0.70 or above that are strong indicators of the construct and offer the best representation of validity.

Table 20 shows the AVE for each construct. The assessment criteria of >0.70 threshold show that distributive justice (0.758), job satisfaction (0.797), organisation engagement (0.746), perceived organisational support (0.769) and perceived supervisor support (0.854) are strong and valid representations of the construct in question. Acceptance of scores within 0.60-0.70 show the constructs of job characteristics (0.646), job engagement (0.676), organisational commitment (0.688), organisational citizenship behaviour individual (0.655), procedural justice (0.604), and

rewards and recognition (0.678) as having reliability. Intention to quit also has an acceptable AVE score ((0.697), however there is an issue with Cronbach's alpha. This will be discussed in the next section.

Internal Consistency Reliability: Having assessed indicator reliability, construct reliability needs to be examined and this is typically done through Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2013). However, Cronbach's alpha is a more traditional means of calculating construct reliability and there has been a recent shift in some of the literature towards to the use of composite reliability (Hair et al., 2016; Latif, 2020). This is because the calculation of composite reliability is less sensitive to *the number* of indicators in the measurement scale and provides greater accuracy when estimating the reliability of the construct (Hair et al., 2016). Both criteria share similar thresholds, for example values between 0.70 to 0.90 translates to sound reliability. Values falling between 0.60 to 0.70 are also considered acceptable in some exploratory cases, however if the values fall below 0.60 then the internal consistency reliability is weak (Hair et al., 2016). With the exception of the construct *intention to quit*, examination of the results from Cronbach's Alpha showed that all of the constructs meet the threshold for consistency reliability. Intention to quit fell below a satisfactory threshold of 0.70 achieving a score of 0.581. This falls below 0.60 to determine weak reliability.

Rho and composite validity (CR) represent the same reliability indicator but are statistically analysed in different ways. In SmartPLS, composite reliability rho_a and rho_c are presented. This is essentially a quality criterion for construct validity and reliability. Rho_c is a primary measure used to assess internal consistency reliability with results 0.70-0.90 indicating sound reliability and values falling between 0.60-0.70 for exploratory research (Joreskog, 1971). However, items above 0.95 may show items that are redundant, therefore reducing levels of construct validity within rho_c results (Diamantopoulos et al., 2012). Note that Cronbach's alpha is conservative in its assessments, whereas rho_c can be considered as liberal in comparison (Dijkstra, 2010). The construct reliability resides within these measures and is presented as rho_a (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015). Therefore, our primary focus is on rho_a results.

As presented in Table 20 below, composite reliability results show each construct meets and exceeds the acceptable threshold of internal consistency. Composite reliability (rho_a) shows

almost all constructs are above the 0.70 threshold except for intention to quit (0.681). At the lower end are job satisfaction (0.745), job engagement (0.760), and reward and recognition (0.778). Items presenting in the 0.80s include job characteristics (0.824), organisational citizenship behaviour - individual (0.832), organisational citizenship behaviour – towards the organisation (0.847) and organisational commitment (0.892). The highest markers are for distributive justice (0.904), organisation engagement (0.916), perceived supervisor support (0.916) and perceived organisational support (0.932).

Convergent Validity: There are typically two types of validity measures, convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity essentially considers the indicators and how these come together or converge to soundly represent the latent construct. To establish whether the indicators are converging effectively, the convergent validity of the constructs is usually examined via Average Variance Extracted (AVE). AVE works by calculating the sum of the squared loadings and dividing them by the number of the measures (Hair et al., 2013). The threshold for AVE is 0.50 or above, thus suggesting that the construct accounts for at least 50% of the variance (Latif, 2020). AVE was calculated in PLS-SEM and the results are included in Table 20. Results show that rewards and recognition (0.597) have the lowest AVE of the constructs, however it is above the 0.50 threshold. 60-70% variance can be attributed to the constructs of procedural justice (0.604), organisational commitment (0.643), job characteristics (0.646), organisational citizenship behaviour – individual (0.655), job engagement (0.676), organisational citizenship behaviour – towards the organisation (0.676), and intention to quit (0.699). Items above 0.70 include organisation engagement (0.746), distributive justice (0.758), perceived organisational support (0.769), and job satisfaction (0.797). Only one item with an AVE of 0.80 and above appeared, this was perceived supervisor support (0.854) which indicates strong validity of the construct. All AVE values are above the 0.50 threshold for reflective constructs and therefore convergent validity is met.

Table 20: Reliability and convergent validity results

Indicator Reliability	Internal Consistency Reliability		Indicator Reliability	Internal Consistency Reliability	
	Constructs	Item			Outer Loading >0.70
Job Characteristics (JC)	JC3	0.782	0.824	0.818	0.646
	JC4	0.799			
	JC5	0.828			
	JC6	0.804			
Perceived Organisational Support (POS)	POS1	0.882	0.932	0.925	0.769
	POS2	0.905			
	POS4	0.904			
	POS5	0.850			
	POS6	0.842			
Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)	PSS1	0.920	0.916	0.914	0.854
	PSS2	0.925			
	PSS3	0.926			
Rewards and Recognition	RR2	0.830	0.778	0.773	0.597
	RR4	0.859			
	RR5	0.779			
Procedural Justice (PJ)	PJ3	0.799	0.785	0.782	0.604
	PJ4	0.754			
	PJ5	0.790			
	PJ6	0.764			
Distributive Justice (DJ)	DJ1	0.884	0.904	0.893	0.758
	DJ2	0.917			
	DJ3	0.887			
	DJ4	0.791			
Job Engagement (JE)	JE1	0.802	0.760	0.760	0.676
	JE3	0.834			
	JE5	0.829			
Organisation Engagement (OE)	OE1	0.871	0.916	0.915	0.746
	OE2	0.835			
	OE4	0.870			
	OE5	0.901			
	OE6	0.841			
Job Satisfaction (JS)	JS1	0.893	0.745	0.745	0.797
	JS3	0.892			
Organisational Commitment (OC)	OC2	0.810	0.895	0.888	0.643
	OC3	0.782			
	OC4	0.845			
	OC5	0.822			
	OC6	0.884			
Intention to Quit (ITQ)	ITQ1	0.751	0.681	0.589	0.699
	ITQ2	0.913			
Org.Citizenship Behaviour-Individual (OCBI)	OCBI1	0.845	0.832	0.825	0.655
	OCBI2	0.785			
	OCBI3	0.806			
	OCBI4	0.801			
Org.Citizenship Behaviour-Organisation (OCBO)	OCBO1	0.805	0.847	0.841	0.676
	OCBO2	0.821			
	OCBO3	0.821			
	OCBO4	0.842			

5.5.2. Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity deals with the differentiation between the constructs. It is examined to establish if each construct is truly distinct from the others (Hair et al., 2019). There are several

statistical tests used to establish whether each of the constructs are truly distinct from one another, namely Fornell-Larker, Cross Loadings and Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio, with HTMT being the most recent measure (Hair et al., 2016). Fornell-Larker criterion observes the square root of each AVE result to establish whether it is greater than the correlation of the rest of the model constructs (Hair et al., 2016). When examining Fornell-Larker, the top figures in each column should be greater than those underneath for AVE. As seen in Table 21 the constructs meet the criteria for discriminant validity as all are clearly distinct. However, the construct of *intention to quit* is cause for concern, despite meeting the criteria for Fornell-Larker, there are minus figures appearing in the data and this is another indication that the measurement tool for this construct is problematic. This warrants further analysis.

Table 21: Results of Fornell-Larker Analysis

	DJ	ITQ	JC	JE	JS	OC	OCBI	OCBO	OE	PJ	POS	PSS	R&R
DJ	0.871												
ITQ	-	0.836											
	0.375												
JC	0.651	-0.292	0.804										
JE	0.358	-0.221	0.384	0.822									
JS	0.491	-0.398	0.547	0.539	0.893								
OC	0.575	-0.395	0.643	0.530	0.651	0.802							
OCBI	0.354	-0.185	0.478	0.472	0.507	0.631	0.810						
OCBO	0.499	-0.296	0.477	0.363	0.499	0.717	0.618	0.822					
PJ	0.690	-0.401	0.626	0.310	0.449	0.591	0.409	0.483	0.566	0.777			
POS	0.650	-0.400	0.645	0.327	0.504	0.665	0.419	0.530	0.627	0.697	0.877		
PSS	0.480	-0.350	0.533	0.377	0.535	0.601	0.400	0.464	0.504	0.515	0.522	0.924	
R&R	0.657	-0.338	0.704	0.340	0.505	0.624	0.447	0.520	0.568	0.631	0.583	0.481	0.773

Note: DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

Cross Loading Results: is used to establish discriminant validity. This test is concerned with how well each indicator loads onto its parent construct in comparison to the other constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2016). Table 22 shows that all items load onto the parent constructs above other constructs (including intention to quit), thus establishing discriminant validity.

Table 22: Results of Cross-loading Analysis

	DJ	ITQ	JC	JE	JS	OC	OCBI	OCBO	OE	PJ	POS	PSS	R&R
DJ1	0.884	-0.324	0.586	0.331	0.451	0.508	0.295	0.434	0.55	0.632	0.575	0.452	0.598

DJ2	0.917	-0.307	0.573	0.316	0.426	0.508	0.332	0.465	0.552	0.59	0.581	0.399	0.587
DJ3	0.887	-0.339	0.608	0.339	0.405	0.538	0.304	0.438	0.55	0.569	0.59	0.398	0.552
DJ4	0.791	-0.346	0.49	0.254	0.436	0.443	0.307	0.399	0.424	0.628	0.517	0.432	0.555
IQ1	-0.225	0.751	-0.138	-0.154	-0.24	-0.212	-0.103	-0.197	-0.219	-0.175	-0.209	-0.195	-0.197
IQ2	-0.378	0.913	-0.317	-0.21	-0.399	-0.413	-0.191	-0.285	-0.379	-0.444	-0.421	-0.361	-0.344
JC3	0.436	-0.274	0.782	0.262	0.464	0.507	0.34	0.336	0.466	0.447	0.482	0.396	0.529
JC4	0.499	-0.239	0.799	0.403	0.492	0.548	0.474	0.423	0.539	0.464	0.478	0.416	0.587
JC5	0.607	-0.262	0.828	0.278	0.428	0.51	0.369	0.38	0.477	0.594	0.571	0.507	0.609
JC6	0.552	-0.16	0.804	0.266	0.361	0.493	0.329	0.384	0.454	0.513	0.549	0.396	0.532
JE1	0.267	-0.214	0.286	0.804	0.466	0.416	0.388	0.3	0.441	0.308	0.275	0.324	0.205
JE3	0.304	-0.168	0.344	0.835	0.415	0.442	0.382	0.303	0.468	0.213	0.276	0.28	0.359
JE5	0.313	-0.165	0.317	0.827	0.449	0.448	0.393	0.291	0.532	0.244	0.256	0.325	0.273
JS1	0.421	-0.369	0.493	0.483	0.893	0.568	0.444	0.39	0.562	0.415	0.464	0.492	0.423
JS3	0.455	-0.34	0.484	0.48	0.892	0.594	0.461	0.501	0.561	0.386	0.434	0.464	0.479
OC1	0.401	-0.391	0.403	0.368	0.486	0.707	0.352	0.429	0.603	0.44	0.489	0.389	0.411
OC2	0.483	-0.339	0.544	0.441	0.541	0.827	0.493	0.558	0.782	0.466	0.55	0.481	0.507
OC3	0.424	-0.207	0.44	0.362	0.397	0.778	0.484	0.588	0.609	0.417	0.47	0.396	0.456
OC4	0.442	-0.265	0.528	0.452	0.503	0.825	0.572	0.582	0.662	0.47	0.493	0.501	0.527
OC5	0.436	-0.33	0.544	0.443	0.633	0.797	0.581	0.643	0.665	0.507	0.551	0.563	0.535
OC6	0.564	-0.364	0.609	0.472	0.558	0.869	0.54	0.641	0.752	0.538	0.631	0.544	0.553
OCBI1	0.293	-0.141	0.428	0.437	0.46	0.585	0.845	0.553	0.511	0.35	0.333	0.37	0.391
OCBI2	0.335	-0.149	0.406	0.318	0.386	0.5	0.785	0.479	0.421	0.349	0.436	0.341	0.401
OCBI3	0.295	-0.172	0.375	0.36	0.32	0.484	0.806	0.47	0.461	0.355	0.322	0.298	0.306
OCBI4	0.23	-0.139	0.338	0.401	0.47	0.466	0.801	0.495	0.421	0.27	0.278	0.282	0.353
OCBO1	0.387	-0.277	0.353	0.296	0.373	0.583	0.474	0.805	0.552	0.37	0.47	0.394	0.36
OCBO2	0.42	-0.228	0.377	0.248	0.421	0.547	0.525	0.821	0.488	0.338	0.396	0.303	0.38
OCBO3	0.391	-0.212	0.358	0.301	0.376	0.541	0.51	0.822	0.478	0.383	0.345	0.323	0.428
OCBO4	0.44	-0.251	0.468	0.339	0.465	0.672	0.528	0.842	0.598	0.483	0.51	0.482	0.528
OE1	0.499	-0.372	0.522	0.469	0.605	0.741	0.532	0.584	0.871	0.471	0.57	0.418	0.513
OE2	0.456	-0.321	0.538	0.459	0.528	0.749	0.529	0.624	0.835	0.465	0.528	0.404	0.501
OE4	0.571	-0.303	0.525	0.509	0.501	0.703	0.426	0.505	0.87	0.528	0.566	0.434	0.486
OE5	0.573	-0.319	0.558	0.548	0.562	0.763	0.494	0.57	0.901	0.531	0.562	0.475	0.495
OE6	0.493	-0.294	0.475	0.541	0.52	0.723	0.446	0.512	0.84	0.447	0.481	0.446	0.455
PJ3	0.568	-0.462	0.546	0.25	0.394	0.513	0.331	0.448	0.5	0.799	0.62	0.435	0.559
PJ4	0.491	-0.221	0.434	0.259	0.299	0.481	0.306	0.356	0.417	0.754	0.49	0.359	0.414
PJ5	0.573	-0.275	0.428	0.202	0.34	0.431	0.298	0.351	0.396	0.79	0.509	0.379	0.482
PJ6	0.513	-0.265	0.523	0.248	0.355	0.405	0.332	0.336	0.433	0.764	0.535	0.42	0.496
POS1	0.568	-0.318	0.587	0.321	0.496	0.622	0.406	0.501	0.57	0.626	0.882	0.487	0.564
POS2	0.611	-0.381	0.614	0.301	0.436	0.628	0.388	0.476	0.577	0.637	0.905	0.494	0.565
POS4	0.578	-0.364	0.584	0.315	0.446	0.605	0.39	0.482	0.608	0.629	0.904	0.512	0.529
POS5	0.558	-0.326	0.491	0.212	0.377	0.492	0.304	0.426	0.472	0.583	0.85	0.379	0.433
POS6	0.536	-0.364	0.537	0.27	0.444	0.552	0.333	0.429	0.505	0.576	0.842	0.393	0.446
PSS1	0.46	-0.34	0.48	0.338	0.536	0.536	0.377	0.459	0.478	0.483	0.461	0.92	0.427
PSS2	0.413	-0.292	0.484	0.337	0.495	0.548	0.374	0.414	0.439	0.442	0.462	0.925	0.427
PSS3	0.455	-0.335	0.513	0.369	0.455	0.581	0.358	0.413	0.478	0.5	0.522	0.926	0.477
RR2	0.552	-0.288	0.585	0.301	0.373	0.513	0.307	0.416	0.461	0.545	0.47	0.371	0.803
RR4	0.493	-0.268	0.54	0.245	0.387	0.477	0.346	0.433	0.436	0.49	0.415	0.381	0.814
RR5	0.473	-0.21	0.549	0.284	0.44	0.477	0.416	0.395	0.446	0.436	0.412	0.319	0.769
RR7	0.512	-0.281	0.497	0.211	0.36	0.458	0.311	0.36	0.409	0.477	0.513	0.425	0.699

Note: DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) analysis: HTMT has grown in popularity due to its ability to estimate discriminant validity more accurately. It does this by observing the relationship between two variables (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). The literature shows some variation in the acceptable threshold for HTMT; however, it tends to reside between 0.85 and 0.90 (Henseler et al., 2015; Latif, 2020). Moreover, a value of less than 1 suggests there is a distinction between the reflective constructs (Hair et al., 2016). The results of Heterotrait-Monotrait analysis are presented in Table 23 below. The results show that all but one value falls below the recommended threshold of 0.90. Organisation engagement and organisational commitment have a HTMT of 0.940 which is above the 0.90 threshold.

Table 23: Results of Heterotrait-Monotrait Analysis

	DJ	ITQ	JC	JE	JS	OC	OCBI	OCBO	OE	PJ	POS	PSS	R&R
DJ													
ITQ	0.496												
JC	0.759	0.386											
JE	0.432	0.323	0.477										
JS	0.605	0.573	0.694	0.717									
OC	0.641	0.512	0.745	0.643	0.798								
OCBI	0.416	0.251	0.572	0.591	0.644	0.731							
OCBO	0.574	0.405	0.566	0.450	0.628	0.822	0.740						
OE	0.660	0.483	0.695	0.702	0.762	0.940	0.644	0.732					
PJ	0.831	0.531	0.778	0.400	0.585	0.692	0.507	0.585	0.664				
POS	0.715	0.508	0.740	0.386	0.604	0.727	0.480	0.591	0.677	0.813			
PSS	0.533	0.450	0.616	0.452	0.649	0.663	0.459	0.520	0.551	0.604	0.561		
R&R	0.794	0.478	0.881	0.440	0.666	0.750	0.561	0.639	0.674	0.807	0.688	0.575	

Note: DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

By re-examining the cross loadings (see Table 24) whilst the correlated items load well onto their parent construct, it is evident that organisational commitment and organisation engagement items are loading very similarly onto each other's constructs (below a standard deviation threshold of .10).

Table 24: Cross loadings similarities

OC to OE	OE to OC	Standard Deviation
0.737	0.782	0.03181981
0.740	0.609	0.09263099
0.686	0.662	0.01697056
0.755	0.665	0.06363961
0.718	0.752	0.02404163

Note: OC=Organisational commitment; OE=organisation engagement

This would typically require organisational commitment to be removed from the model. However, in Chapter two, the literature established that the constructs of organisational engagement and organisational commitment often overlap in terms of what they attempt to measure. Therefore, the construct of organisational commitment will remain with the caveat that discriminant validity has not been fully established for the relationship between organisation engagement and organisational commitment.

5.4.7 Summary of Measurement Model Results

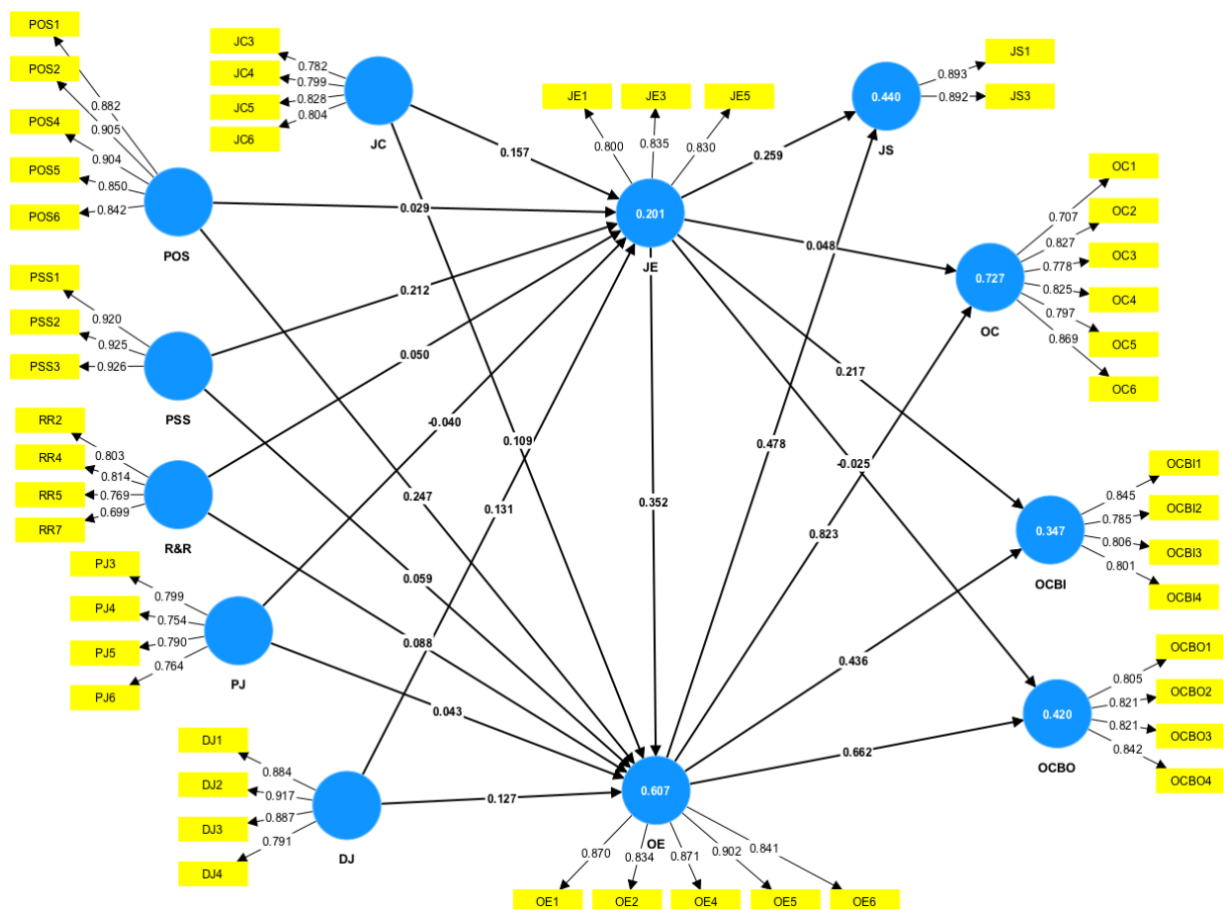
Assessment of the measurement model in terms of a reflective measurement, comprises of three stages of analysis: Internal consistency, examination of convergent validity and establishing discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2016). At this stage we are interested in assessing the quality, reliability and validity of the constructs, this must be done before examining the path analysis and structure of the model (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Investigating the consistency of the measures was done through Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability testing. Convergent validity was established through analysis of the average variance extracted (AVE). The threshold for AVE is 0.50 or above, thus suggesting that the construct accounts for at least 50% of the variance (Latif, 2020). Results showed that all constructs were above the threshold and therefore met the criteria. Establishing discriminant validity was done through three tests, Fornell-Larker criterion, examination of the cross loadings and finally heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT). Again, issues were raised for the construct of *intention to quit*, despite meeting the criteria for Fornell-Larker, there are minus figures appearing in the data and this is another indication that the measurement tool for this construct is problematic. As *intention to quit* has failed to reach the threshold of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability, internal consistency cannot be established. The Fornell-Larker criterion was met, however minus figures were present suggesting very weak data. Therefore, this construct will be removed from the model before the next stage of structural model assessment.

Cross loadings analysis established that items were loading onto their parent constructs correctly, however examination of Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) results flagged some items loading to a similar degree between organisation engagement and organisational commitment. Despite this anomaly, organisational commitment will not be removed from the model as the extant literature documents some overlap between the constructs of engagement and

commitment. Items used in the original Saks model (2006) underpin each construct and this includes variants used for data capture from The Client Organisation perspectives.

An overview of the measurement model is shown in Figure 18 below. This illustration shows the individual items (seen in yellow – the outer model) and how each one is loading onto its latent variable (the inner model - constructs seen in blue). Items 0.70 or above remain all other items were deleted (apart from 0.699 in reward and recognition which was extremely close to 0.70). This threshold shows that the question asked during the survey represents the construct to a strong degree. The central figure appearing in the dependent variables represents R^2 value. Whilst at this stage our concern is focused on the outer loadings and establishing reliability and validity for the measures, the inner model shows the antecedents are influencing job engagement by 20% and 60% for organisational engagement. This will change once we apply path analysis.

Figure 18: Overview of the Measurement Model



Note: DJ=distributive justice; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition. Intention to Quit has been removed from the model.

5.4.8 The Structural Model Assessment

Having assessed for and established the reliability and validity of the measurement model, the next phase of the analysis is to check the structural model and how the constructs are related. This process will enable the research hypotheses to be assessed and is done through bootstrapping (see Figure 19). In contrast to other forms of SEM analysis such as ‘goodness of fit’, SmartPLS observed the structural model through the results of the effect size (f^2), the path coefficient (β), the predictive relevance (Q^2) and the value of the coefficient of determination (Hair et al., 2019). There are several observations we can make to ensure the PLS-SEM results are satisfactory. These are outlined in the Table 25 below (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 25: Observations of PLS-SEM results

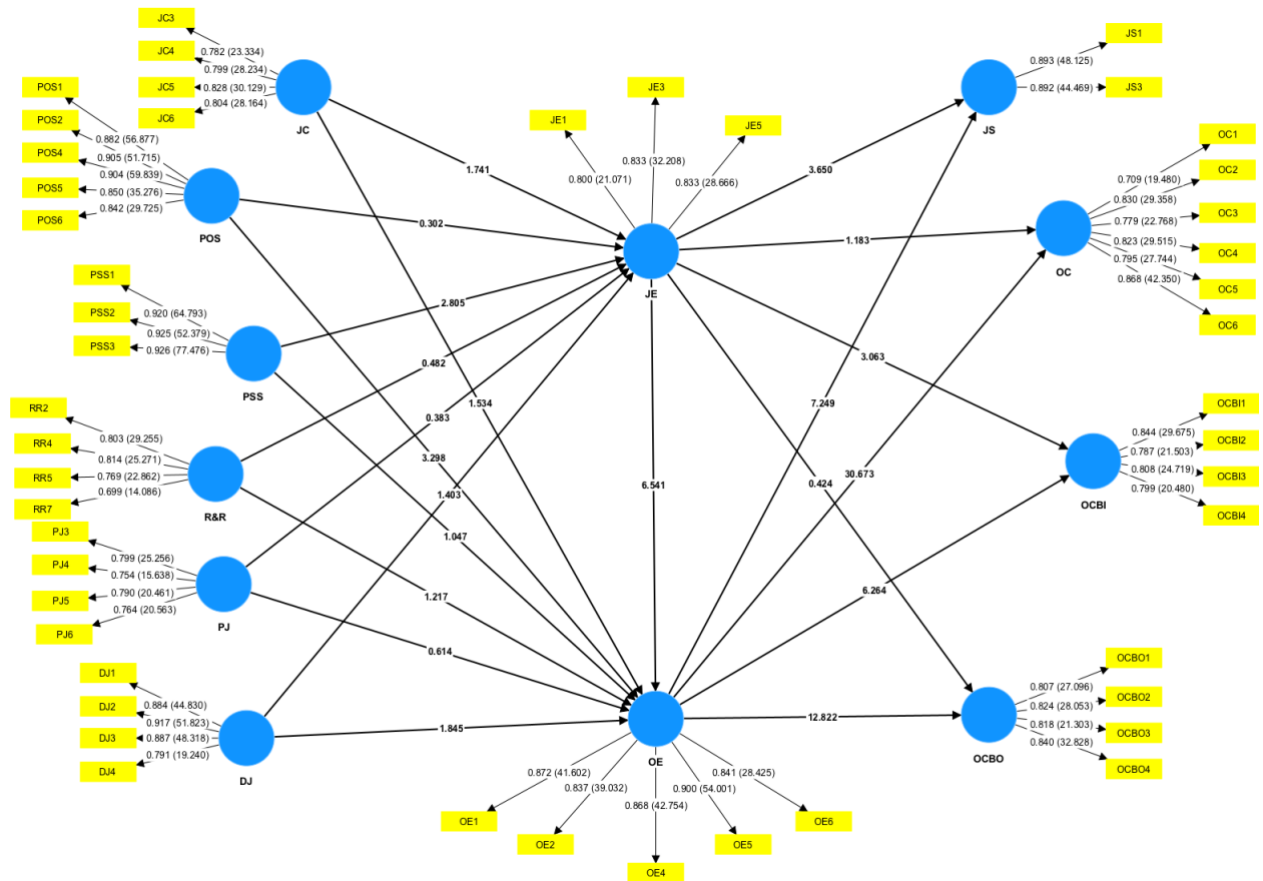
Assessment	Threshold Values
Path Coefficient (β)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflects the hypothesized relationships between all constructs • Reported as levels of significance (p-value and t-value) • Estimated path coefficient values exist between -1 and +1 • Results close to +1 or above indicate a strong positive relationship (high significance) and vice versa
Coefficient of determination (R^2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The second quality assessment criteria for the structural model is the R^2 value • R^2 measures the variance of the constructs and therefore a model’s explanatory power • An R^2 value ranges from 0 to 1 • R^2 value of 0.75 or above represents substantial explanatory power • R^2 Values of 0.50 are moderate and 0.25 weak • Depending on the model and field 0.20 can be acceptable and even as low as 0.10 satisfactory (e.g., stock returns)
Predictive relevance (Q^2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Q^2 value is another way of assessing the partial least squares path model’s predictive ability. • Based on a blindfolding procedure, estimated model parameters and the mean are tested by removing single data points • The predicted data points are then observed with small differences to the original values representing a high Q^2 value • Q^2 values of 0 represent small predictive relevance • Q^2 values of 0.25 and 0.50 or above show a medium to large predictive value of the PLS path model.

Effect Size (f^2)

- The removal of certain constructs may affect the R^2 value, therefore the effect size f^2 should be observed.
- As a guide, f^2 values 0.35 or above represent a large effect size
- Whereas 0.02 represents a small effect size and 0.15 a medium f^2 effect size.

Assessment of the structural model can be completed via a systematic approach, with step one beginning with an assessment of collinearity; step two to investigate the significance of relationships within the model; step three to explore the model's explanatory power and stage four assessing the model's predictive power (Fawad, 2022). The results of the bootstrapping technique are shown Figure 19 below and discussed in further details throughout this chapter.

Figure 19: Bootstrapping Results (including individual item t values)



The path co-efficient are seen in the connecting arrows between the variables, these are measured by t statistics. Items greater than 1.96 show a significant relationship.

5.4.9 Collinearity Assessment

Structural model assessment typically begins with an examination of collinearity (Wong, 2013). Collinearity can occur when two constructs are highly correlated (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006). In PLS-SEM, collinearity is the common method bias measure and observed in the results for ‘Variance Inflation Factor’ (VIF) (Hair et al., 2016). VIF values above 5 either result in the construct being omitted from the model or merged with another similar construct whereas those below 5 are acceptable and show good collinearity (Hair, Ringle & Sarsted, 2011; Becker, Ringle, Sarstedt & Volckner, 2015). Table 26 below shows the results of Collinearity testing for this study through the endogenous constructs.

Table 26: Results of the collinearity testing

	Job Engagemen t	Organisatio n Engagemen t	Job Satisfactio n	Organisational Commitment	Intention to Quit	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (individual)	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (organisation)
Job Characteristic s	2.587	2.617					
Perceived Organisational Support	2.424	2.425					
Perceived Supervisor Support	1.566	1.623					
Rewards & Recognition	2.410	2.413					
Procedural Justice	2.600	2.602					
Distributive Justice	2.496	2.517					
Job Engagement		1.252	1.521	1.521	1.521	1.521	1.521
Organisation Engagement			1.521	1.521	1.521	1.521	1.521

SmartPLS can highlight CMB by assessing variance inflated factors (VIF) of the inner structural model are equal to or lower than 3.3 (Kock, 2015; Gaskin, 2021). If so, the model does not have common method bias. In this case, the path calculation was run, and the results examined. Table 26 shows common method bias results. Figures below <3.3 for collinearity statistics (VIF) of the structural model paths verified there were no measurement errors present to discredit the validity of the results at this stage. If any items were above >3.3 then examination of the *indicator correlations* in SmartPLS would determine which items are highly correlated to other items on the measures and should be considered for omission (Gaskin, 2022).

5.4.10 Path Coefficient (β)

The next step is to run the PLS-SEM algorithm and observe the path coefficient values (see Table 27 below). The path coefficient (β) reflects the hypothesized relationships between the constructs in the model and determines whether these are statistically significant (p values and t values). Strong positive relationships (or negative) appear near +1 and above. Path coefficients estimate between -1 and +1 values, with the relationship between constructs defined by either a negative or positive sign (Hair et al., 2016).

The path coefficients encompass t -values and p values to determine statistical significance. The statistical significance threshold for a t -value is greater than 1.96 and 0.05 for p values ($p < 0.05$). Moreover, t -values achieving higher than 2.57 are reflective of highly significant p values 0.01 ($p < 0.01$). However, Hair et al. (2016) states that there are occasions when t values above 1.65 have shown a highly significant p value of 0.001 ($p < 0.001$). In response, the researcher commenced the bootstrapping procedure on a 5000 sub-sample set. In Table 27 below, the significant relationships are highlighted in bold.

Table 27: The results for the structural model path coefficients (direct effect)

Path Relationships	Original sample (O)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics (O/STDEV)	P values	Hypotheses Results
Antecedent Effects on Mediators					
JC -> JE	0.157	0.090	1.739	0.082	Not supported
JC -> OE	0.110	0.072	1.534	0.125	Not supported
POS -> JE	0.028	0.094	0.302	0.762	Not supported
POS -> OE	0.248	0.075	3.298	0.001	Supported
PSS -> JE	0.213	0.076	2.805	0.005	Supported
PSS -> OE	0.059	0.061	1.047	0.295	Not supported
PJ -> JE	-0.039	0.102	0.368	0.702	Not supported
PJ -> OE	0.042	0.068	0.614	0.539	Not supported
DJ -> JE	0.131	0.094	1.403	0.161	Not supported
DJ -> OE	0.125	0.067	1.845	0.065	Not supported
R&R -> JE	0.049	0.101	0.482	0.295	Not supported
R&R -> OE	0.090	0.074	1.217	0.224	Not supported
Mediator Effects on Outcomes					
JE -> JS	0.259	0.071	3.650	0.000	Supported
JE-> OE	0.352	0.054	6.541	0.000	Supported
JE -> OC	0.047	0.040	1.183	0.237	Not supported
JE -> OCBI	0.215	0.070	3.063	0.002	Supported
JE -> OCBO	-0.026	0.063	0.424	0.672	Not supported
OE -> JS	0.478	0.066	7.257	0.000	Supported
OE -> OC	0.825	0.027	30.712	0.000	Supported
OE -> OCBI	0.438	0.070	6.264	0.000	Supported

OE -> OCBO	0.665	0.052	12.822	0.000	Supported
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Note: DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; OE=organisation engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

In terms of *t*-values achieving higher than 2.57 which are reflective of highly significant relationships, job engagement’s relationship towards job satisfaction, organisation engagement towards organisational citizenship behaviour (individual and organisation) are met and exceeded. Higher still are the results for organisation engagement and its positive relationship to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour (both individual and organisational). Of the antecedents, only perceived organisational support and its relationship to organisation engagement exceeded the threshold of 2.57.

When observing *p* values, only perceived organisational support towards organisation engagement ($p < 0.001$) and perceived supervisor support towards job engagement were significant ($p < 0.005$) in the context of the antecedents’ constructs. Job engagement has a positive influence on job satisfaction ($p < 0.000$), organisation engagement ($p < 0.000$) and organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) ($p < 0.002$). Organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) did not show a significant relationship. Organisation engagement has a positive significant influence on all outcome constructs featured in the revised model, namely job satisfaction ($p < 0.000$), organisational commitment ($p < 0.000$), and organisational citizenship behaviour for both individual and organisational perspectives ($p < 0.000$). As this model uses the constructs of job engagement and organisation engagement as mediators within the model, it is also appropriate to observe the structural model paths for indirect effects (see Table 28 below).

Table 28: Results for the total indirect effects

Indirect Path Relationships	Original sample (O)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics (O/STDEV)	P values
POS -> OC	0.214	0.073	2.938	0.003
POS -> OCBO	0.171	0.06	2.852	0.004
PSS -> OE	0.075	0.028	2.629	0.009
PSS -> JS	0.119	0.049	2.431	0.015
PSS -> OCBI	0.104	0.043	2.404	0.016
DJ -> OC	0.147	0.064	2.280	0.023
POS -> JS	0.131	0.057	2.278	0.023
POS -> OCBI	0.119	0.053	2.256	0.024
DJ -> OCBO	0.110	0.049	2.243	0.025

DJ -> JS	0.116	0.052	2.234	0.026
DJ -> OCBI	0.103	0.046	2.215	0.027
JC -> JS	0.119	0.057	2.112	0.035
JC -> OCBI	0.106	0.051	2.068	0.039
PSS -> OC	0.120	0.058	2.056	0.040
JC -> OC	0.143	0.071	2.029	0.043
JC -> OCBO	0.105	0.054	1.948	0.052
PSS -> OCBO	0.083	0.047	1.773	0.076
JC -> OE	0.055	0.034	1.630	0.103
R&R -> OC	0.091	0.069	1.311	0.190
DJ -> OE	0.046	0.036	1.299	0.194
R&R -> OCBO	0.070	0.054	1.288	0.198
R&R -> OCBI	0.057	0.050	1.144	0.253
R&R -> JS	0.064	0.057	1.13	0.259
R&R -> OE	0.017	0.036	0.482	0.630
PJ -> OCBO	0.020	0.051	0.383	0.702
PJ -> OE	-0.014	0.036	0.383	0.702
PJ -> OC	0.021	0.067	0.316	0.752
POS -> OE	0.01	0.033	0.302	0.763
PJ -> OCBI	0.004	0.05	0.077	0.939
PJ -> JS	0.003	0.056	0.058	0.954

Note: $p < 0.05$. DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; OE=organisation engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

When examining the indirect effects of the constructs on one another, there are several significant relationships. The most significant being perceived organisational support positively influencing organisational commitment ($p < 0.003$) and organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) ($p < 0.004$), job satisfaction ($p < 0.023$) and organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) ($p = 0.024$). Furthermore, perceived supervisor support also has a significant influence on organisation engagement ($p < 0.009$) and job satisfaction ($p < 0.015$), organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) ($p = 0.016$), and organisational commitment ($p < 0.040$). The next indirect effect stems from distributive justice, this is significantly and positively influencing organisational commitment ($p < 0.023$), organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) ($p = 0.025$), job satisfaction ($p < 0.026$) and organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) ($p < 0.027$). Job characteristics significantly influence job satisfaction ($p < 0.035$), organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) ($p < 0.039$), and organisational commitment ($p < 0.043$). All other relationships were found to be not significant.

5.4.11 Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

The second evaluation of the Model's predictive accuracy is done through observing the coefficients of determination values (R^2) (Streukens & Leroi-Werelds, 2016). The coefficient of determination (R^2) assesses the quality of the model and shows the degree of variance in endogenous variables that can be accounted for by the preceding exogenous variables. Essentially, to what degree does the dependent variable change by being influenced by one or more of the dependent variables (Hair et al, 2019). To this effect, R^2 values tend to range between 0 and 1, with values near to 1 having greater predictive accuracy (Hair et al., 2013). For example, R^2 values of 0.10 suggest a low predictive accuracy, 0.30 medium predictive accuracy and >0.50 indicates strong predictive accuracy. Such values demonstrate the predictive strength of the structural model (Monecke & Leish, 2012).

Table 29 shows the R^2 values of the endogenous constructs (antecedents) ranging from 0.201 up to 0.727. These results indicate that Organisational commitment and organisation engagement have the strongest predictive power in the model. Job satisfaction, Organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) and Organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) have medium levels of predictive power, whereas job engagement has low predictive power.

Table 29: R^2 values of the endogenous constructs (antecedents)

Construct	R^2
Organisational Commitment	0.727
Organisation Engagement	0.607
Job Satisfaction	0.440
Organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)	0.420
Organisational citizenship behaviour (individual)	0.347
Job Engagement	0.201

These results suggest that organisational commitment explains 72% of the variance within the model, organisation engagement 60%, job satisfaction 44%, Organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) 42%, Organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) 34% and job engagement 20%

5.4.12 Predictive Relevance - Stone Geisser's Q^2 Value

As well as the size of R^2 values, a Stone-Geisser Q^2 value test can be applied to determine if a model has predictive relevance, in particular its endogenous constructs (Stone, 1974; Geisser, 1975; Götz, Liehr-Gobbers & Krafft, 2010). As part of the blindfolding procedure, the stone-Geisser test evaluates the model's predictive validity. This test is particularly effective in models with larger numbers of constructs in play (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers & Krafft, 2010). According to Chin (2010), a predictive model will have a cross validated redundancy of $Q^2 > 0.05$. Hair et al (2016) supports this with any items above zero showing predictive relevance of the endogenous constructs in the model, stating 0.02, 0.15 or 0.35 respectively having weak, moderate or a strong degree of predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2013). In this instance, job engagement and organisation engagement as well as the outcome variables are our endogenous constructs. The blindfolding technique was used in SEM to analyse predictive relevance.

Table 30: Q^2 values to this effect in all endogenous constructs

Construct	Q^2
Organisational Commitment	0.529
Organisation Engagement	0.467
Job Satisfaction	0.347
Organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)	0.333
Organisational citizenship behaviour (individual)	0.232
Job Engagement	0.142

Results show that organisational commitment ($Q^2 = 0.529$) and organisation engagement ($Q^2 = 0.467$) have strong predictive relevance whereas job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) and organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) have moderate predictive power. Job engagement has the weakest result, falling just below Hair et al's (2013) threshold for moderate predictive relevance. However, all constructs are well above Chin's (2010) $Q^2 > 0.05$ threshold and therefore predictive relevance has been established for all constructs. A summary of R^2 and Q^2 results are listed in Table 31 below.

Table 31: Summary of both R^2 and Q^2 results

Endogenous Constructs	R^2	Q^2
Organisational Commitment	0.727	0.529
Organisation Engagement	0.607	0.467
Job Satisfaction	0.440	0.347
Organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)	0.420	0.333
Organisational citizenship behaviour (individual)	0.347	0.232
Job Engagement	0.201	0.142

5.4.13 Effect Sizes (f^2)

The effect size shown as f^2 measures the strength of the experimental effect. A latent variable may be impacted by other variables. Sometimes exogenous variables may need to be removed and this can have consequences for the dependent variable (Cohen, 1998). F square (f^2) measures any changes in R^2 as a result. The greater the effect size, the stronger the relationship between the variables, for example f^2 of 0.025 is considered a large effect, 0.01 a medium and 0.005 a small effect size (Kenny, 2016). Effect sizes are typically observed after the Q^2 and R^2 values have been analysed. It is not enough for the research to simply report statistical significance, the effect size is often key to understanding the impact of variables in the structural model (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). Table 32 shows the effect sizes for endogenous constructs.

Table 32: Results on Endogenous Effect Sizes (f^2)

Exogenous Variable (Independent)	Endogenous Variables (Dependent)	
	Job Engagement f^2	Organisation Engagement f^2
Distributive Justice	0.009	0.016
Job Characteristics	0.012	0.012
Procedural Justice	0.001	0.002
Perceived organisational support	0.000	0.064
Perceived supervisor support	0.036	0.005
Rewards and recognition	0.001	0.008

Table 32 shows f^2 sizes range from 0.000 to 0.036 for job engagement and 0.002 to 0.064 for organisation engagement. The smallest effect sizes are attributed to procedural justice for both endogenous constructs.

In terms of job engagement, perceived supervisor support has the largest effect on job engagement ($f^2 = 0.036$). A medium effect can be attributed to job characteristics ($f^2 = 0.012$). Small effect sizes are seen for perceived organisational support ($f^2 = 0.000$); rewards and recognition ($f^2 = 0.001$); procedural justice ($f^2 = 0.001$) and distributive justice ($f^2 = 0.009$).

When observing the endogenous construct of organisation engagement, perceived organisational support has the largest effect on organisation engagement ($f^2 = 0.64$) followed by medium effect sizes for distributive justice ($f^2 = 0.016$) and job characteristics ($f^2 = 0.012$).

Smaller effect sizes were seen in the constructs of procedural justice ($f^2=0.002$), perceived supervisor support ($f^2=0.005$) and rewards and recognition ($f^2=0.008$). At the extremes, perceived organisational support has no effect on job engagement and yet the highest effect on organisation engagement. Perceived supervisor support has the largest effect on job engagement and very little on organisation engagement.

5.4.14 Mediation Assessment

Intervening variables that account for the relationship between a predictive construct and an outcome are known as mediators (Dearing & Hamilton, 2006). There are two mediating variables active in the model, job engagement, and organisation engagement. In other words, “the predictor influences the outcome indirectly, by influencing a mediating variable which then influences the outcome” (Dearing & Hamilton, 2006 p. 88). Analysis of mediating variables aims to understand the influence of certain variables on others. Mediation can take the form of direct effect, indirect effect, and partial mediation. Partial mediation is reported when the direct effect and indirect effect are statistically significant (Latif, 2020). However, if the indirect effect is not significant then there is no mediation effect. when the direct effect is not significant, but the indirect effect is then full mediation is reported (Hair et al., 2016). The theoretical model examined two mediating variables, namely job engagement (JE) and organisation engagement (OE) and how may influence the outcomes of job satisfaction (JS), organisational commitment (OC), organisational citizenship behaviour (individual), and organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation).

Mediation outcomes were not hypothesised in this study. However, specific indirect effects were examined and the most significant findings from the 82 path variations are highlighted (see Table 33). Job engagement via organisation engagement had the strongest effect on organisational commitment ($t = 6.309, p < 0.001$) and organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) ($t = 5.822, p < 0.001$). Job engagement alone did not show any significant results, this was the same for organisation engagement. Out of all the antecedent constructs only perceived organisational support via organisation engagement had a significant indirect effect on outcomes, in fact all outcomes were significant (see Table 34).

Table 33: Significant indirect effects via the mediators

Indirect Paths	<i>t</i> values	<i>p</i> values
JE -> OE -> OCBO	5.822	0
JE -> OE -> JS	4.82	0
JE -> OE -> OCBI	4.458	0
JE -> OE -> OC	6.309	0
POS -> OE -> OC	3.28	0.001
POS -> OE -> JS	3.236	0.001
POS -> OE -> OCBI	3.304	0.001
POS -> OE -> OCBO	3.038	0.002

Note: DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; OE=organisation engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

Table 34: Structural model findings – Hypotheses results

Hypotheses	Path Relationships	<i>T</i> statistics	<i>P</i> values	Hypothesis Results
H1a	JC -> JE	1.741	0.082	Not supported
H1b	JC -> OE	1.534	0.125	Not supported
H2a	POS -> JE	0.302	0.762	Not supported
H2b	POS -> OE	3.298	0.001	Supported
H3a	PSS -> JE	2.805	0.005	Supported
H3b	PSS -> OE	1.047	0.295	Not supported
H4a	R&R -> JE	0.482	0.63	Not supported
H4b	R&R -> OE	1.217	0.224	Not supported
H5a	PJ -> JE	1.403	0.161	Not supported
H5b	PJ -> OE	1.845	0.065	Not supported
H6a	DJ -> JE	0.383	0.702	Not supported
H6b	DJ -> OE	0.614	0.539	Not supported
H7a	JE -> JS	3.65	0	Supported
H7b	JE -> OC	1.183	0.237	Not supported
H7c	JE -> OCBI	3.063	0.002	Supported
H7d	JE -> OCBO	0.424	0.672	Not supported
H8a	OE -> JS	7.249	0	Supported
H8b	OE -> OC	30.673	0	Supported
H8c	OE -> OCBI	6.264	0	Supported
H8d	OE -> OCBO	12.822	0	Supported
H10	JE -> OE	6.541	0	Supported

Note: DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition. Intention to quit (H9) was omitted from the structural model.

5.6 Multigroup Analysis (MGA)

Multigroup analysis (also referred to as between-group analysis) allows researchers to test priori or predefined data sets to examine whether any significant differences exist across loadings and path coefficients (Hair et al., 2014; Cheah et al., 2020). Multigroup analysis (MGA) in PLS-SEM is an effective process of determining the influence of effects such as age, gender, work status and income as moderators across multiple relationships, whereas standard moderation would only observe a single structural relationship (Cheah et al., 2020). MGA is useful in assessing the moderating effects of the discrete moderator variables by disseminating data into different groups, for example if gender were a moderator on our hypotheses, then each variable would be separated into three groups (i.e., male, female and other) (Sarstedt et al., 2016). The validity of the outcomes needs to be safeguarded against any issues; therefore, the measurement invariance of composite models (MICOM) process will be applied (Henseler et al., 2016). The MICOM process is run prior to observing any significant results in the path coefficients. In this study, 5000 permutations were set along with a two-tailed test and significance of $p < 0.05$.

Whilst gender does not form part of the hypotheses of this research. A greater need for exploration of gender in TAWs has been raised in the literature review (see section 2.14.2). This may determine future work from this study. Therefore, the MICOM test was applied to the moderating effect of the constructs on gender categories to examine significant relationships between constructs. Structural invariance was established prior to multigroup analysis of gender items (Gaskin, 2014). Table 35 below shows the results of gender differences for individual path relationships. In ascending order, the results determine there are no significant differences between male and female cohorts. The closest to a significant difference is job characteristics and its positive influence on job engagement. This appears to be higher for males than females, whereas perceived organisational support positively influencing job engagement is higher for females. In sum, the results show no significant differences in the path relationships between genders.

Table 35: Gender differences for individual path relationships

Path Relationships	Male	Female	Original difference	Permutation mean difference	Permutation <i>p</i> value
JC -> JE	0.251	-0.127	0.378	-0.003	0.068
POS -> JE	-0.042	0.324	-0.366	-0.002	0.069
JC -> OE	0.159	-0.064	0.223	-0.006	0.164
DJ -> OE	0.035	0.236	-0.201	0.010	0.174
JE -> OCBO	0.030	-0.112	0.141	-0.001	0.298
PJ -> OE	0.090	-0.069	0.158	-0.006	0.302
R&R -> OE	0.063	0.237	-0.173	-0.006	0.311
PSS -> JE	0.159	0.327	-0.168	0.001	0.318
PJ -> JE	0.031	-0.185	0.215	-0.006	0.349
R&R -> JE	0.026	0.222	-0.196	-0.007	0.384
OE -> OCBO	0.638	0.729	-0.091	-0.005	0.430
PSS -> OE	0.111	0.017	0.094	0.000	0.459
OE -> JS	0.458	0.55	-0.092	-0.003	0.539
JE -> JS	0.284	0.215	0.069	0.000	0.656
DJ -> JE	0.103	0.030	0.073	0.005	0.707
OE -> OCBI	0.414	0.467	-0.053	-0.006	0.724
JE -> OC	0.051	0.025	0.026	0.000	0.759
JE -> OCBI	0.264	0.220	0.044	0.001	0.776
JE -> OE	0.324	0.348	-0.024	0.004	0.835
OE -> OC	0.838	0.827	0.010	-0.003	0.862
POS -> OE	0.268	0.270	-0.002	0.004	0.990

Note: DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; OE=organisation engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

5.7 Comparison of Statistical Results with Saks (2006)

In comparison to Saks' findings, the results are observed as follows (see Table 36 below). It should be noted that the threshold for significance was deemed $p < 0.10$ in the original paper, this created additional findings of significance for some relationships. However, this study determines that the *p* value reflect the extant literature and remains at $p < 0.05$.

Table 36: Comparison of Statistical Results with Saks (2006)

Hypotheses	Path Relationships	Current Hypothesis Results	Saks Hypotheses	Saks Hypotheses Results
H1a	JC -> JE	Not supported	(H1a)JC -> JE	Supported
H1b	JC -> OE	Not supported	(H1b) JC -> OE	Not supported
H2a	POS -> JE	Not supported	(H3a) POS -> JE	Supported
H2b	POS -> OE	Supported	(H3b) POS -> OE	Supported
H3a	PSS -> JE	Supported	(H4a) PSS -> JE	Not supported
H3b	PSS -> OE	Not supported	(H4b) PSS -> OE	Not supported
H4a	R&R -> JE	Not supported	(H2a) R&R -> JE	Not supported
H4b	R&R -> OE	Not supported	(H2b) R&R -> OE	Not supported
H5a	PJ -> JE	Not supported	(H5a) PJ -> JE	Not supported
H5b	PJ -> OE	Not supported	(H5b) PJ -> OE	Not supported
H6a	DJ -> JE	Not supported	(H6a) DJ -> JE	Not supported
H6b	DJ -> OE	Not supported	(H6b) DJ -> OE	Not supported
H7a	JE -> JS	Supported	(H7a) JE -> JS	Supported
H7b	JE -> OC	Not supported	(H7b) JE -> OC	Not supported
H7c	JE -> OCBI	Supported	(H7c) JE -> OCBI	Not supported
H7d	JE -> OCBO	Not supported	(H7c) JE -> OCBO	Not supported
H8a	OE -> JS	Supported	(H8a) OE -> JS	Not Supported
H8b	OE -> OC	Supported	(H8b) OE -> OC	Not supported
H8c	OE -> OCBI	Supported	(H8c) OE -> OCBI	Not supported
H8d	OE -> OCBO	Supported	(H8C) OE -> OCBO	Supported
H10	JE -> OE	Supported	Not tested	Not tested

Note: DJ=distributive justice; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; OE=organisation engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

A comparison of results show that three relationships are statistically significant for both TAWs and Saks' permanent employees, namely the antecedent of perceived organisational support has a positive influence on job engagement. Of the mediators, job engagement has a positive influence on job satisfaction and organisation engagement has a significant positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation). Moreover, differences between TAWs and permanent employees were perceived organisational support on job engagement being statistically significant for permanent workers and not TAWs; Perceived supervisor support on job engagement was significant for TAWs and not permanent employees; Job engagement on the outcome of positive organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) was found for TAWs and not permanent employees. Furthermore, organisational engagement was found to be significantly and positively related to the outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) and organisational citizenship behaviour (organisational). Note that Saks used multiple regression to statistically analyse his

data, whereas this study applied a more in-depth statistical approach. The construct of intention to quit also formed a part of the outcome constructs.

When reporting the findings of this study, several notable comparisons emerge from previous research using Saks' multidimensional engagement. These are the studies deemed robust by Baily et al. (2017) and range from 2012-2014 as well as a new addition from 2019 (see Appendix B). The constructs along with hypotheses and results are outlined and initial comparisons noted. In the next Chapter, the hypotheses along with key findings will be discussed along with the results and how these compare with the existing literature.

5.7.1 Conclusion of Results

This Chapter set out to report the results of the analysis and investigate the influence of the antecedent constructs on job engagement and client organisation engagement and subsequent outcomes from the perspective of TAWs. A pre-test was used to check the structure, language and understanding of the items. Once feedback was received, necessary amendments were made to the self-administered questionnaire, and disseminated to the target population. As stated previously, sample sizes for previous studies utilising either elements of the Saks (2006) model or the model in its entirety range from 87 (i.e., Malinen, Wright & Cammock, 2013) to 457 (i.e., Juhdi, Pa'wan & Hansaram, 2013) with a mean of 258 from 10 primary data studies. Of previous studies using Saks' multidimensional engagement, a quantitative approach using self-administered questionnaires were utilised with only one previous study using a qualitative method.

Working from Shah and Goldstein's (2006) recommendation of five responses per observable variable, the model comprises of six antecedent constructs (job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support; rewards and recognition, procedural justice and distributive justice), two engagement constructs (job engagement and organisation engagement) and four outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit, and organisational citizenship behaviour). Therefore, there are twelve constructs in focus, if Shah and Goldstein's (2006) guidance are adhered to, then 60 responses are required as a minimum. However, for SEM analysis required a larger sample size. Furthermore, the final model omitted one construct (intention to quit) leaving 12 of the 13 constructs. This would warrant a minimum of 55 responses. Based on the mean of previous studies applying Saks'

model, a target of >258 usable responses were set. In total 277 responses were used in this research which is slightly higher than the mean of previous studies and well above Shah and Goldstein's (2006) threshold. A response rate percentage was not reported, as the survey was not distributed to specified sample size. Instead, volunteers were sought from the warehouse floor across several work shifts. Respondents comprised of male $n=178$ (64.3%), female $n=90$ (32.5%), and preferred not to say $n=1$ (0.4%). Eight respondents (2.9%) did not answer this question.

5.7.2 Reliability and Validity of the Research Model

Assessment of the research model is done in two key stages when working with PLS-SEM. The first stage was to assess the reliability and validity of the measurement model. This comprised of three stages of analysis: Internal consistency, examination of convergent validity and establishing discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2016). All items were shown to meet and exceed the thresholds for Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability, except for the construct *intention to quit*. The assessment criteria of >0.70 threshold showed perceived supervisor support (0.854), job satisfaction (0.797) and perceived organisational support (0.769) had the highest reliability followed by distributive justice (0.758) and organisation engagement (0.746). These are shown to be strong and valid representations of the constructs in question.

When examining previous results, the measure used by Saks and in this study has not been used in the previous related studies, instead the measurement scales used all consist of three items and are equally established in the literature such as Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1979) and Landau and Hammer's (1986) *withdrawal intention*. The fact that this research used Colarelli's *intention to quit* three-item scale (1984) to replicate the Saks model whereas others have not, is an indication that it may not be as robust as others or suited to SEM analysis. Having assessed for validity and reliability, the second key stage was to assess the structural model for robustness and to examine how the constructs are related. The internal validity of the constructs was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha, this determines whether the scale items reflect what the variable is trying to represent (Hair et al., 2019).

SmartPLS 4.0 was used to analyse both the measurement model and structural model. The measurement model must be assessed before moving onto the structural model to determine 'goodness of fit' (Hair et al., 2019). The measurement model was analysed through internal

consistency using Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability; construct validity tests through average variance extracted (AVE); and discriminant validity through analysis of Fornell-Larker criterion, Cross loadings and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT). The unmodified model revealed several indicator thresholds were not met. Outer loadings above .70 represent the construct to a high degree, however, items falling between 0.50-0.60 can be accepted if other indicators measuring the same construct appear higher. Items between 0.40-0.70 may require removal if the AVE and composite reliability are increased (Hair et al., 2013). Values falling between 0.60-0.70 are considered acceptable, however more caution is required when items fall below 0.60 as this is a sign that internal consistency reliability is weak (Hair et al., 2016).

Having established the reliability and validity of the measurement model, analysis of the structural model can be addressed. This is where hypotheses are enabled, and the structural relationships examined accordingly. This was illuminated through the results of the effect size (f^2), the path coefficient (β), the Coefficient of Determination (R^2), Predictive Relevance (Q^2).

Once the data was gathered, data cleaning processes were applied. This included the identification of any missing values, observing the normality of distribution and assessing the data for outliers. Listwise deletion (LD) eliminated incomplete data lines and no outliers were detected. Whilst normality of distribution is not a necessary requirement of PLS-SEM, a test was conducted to mitigate against any issues with the data later. Categories of demographic data were analysed to create a profile of the respondents (see section 5.4). The next stage of analysis was to assess the measurement model and the structural model using PLS-SEM techniques. The measurement model needs to be assessed first as this process evaluates the validity and reliability of each construct in the model. This is observed through the average variance extracted (AVE) results which demonstrated that validity was met (values achieved above 0.70) and convergent validity of $AVE > 0.05$ was also achieved. Discriminant validity was established as results of the HTMT test showed values of less than 1 between constructs except organisation engagement and organisational commitment. However, the result confirmed what the literature had previously highlighted in terms of potential similarity issues between the measures of these two constructs. Therefore, remained as part of the model. However, the construct of intention to quit performed poorly and this three-item measure did not offer enough validity or reliability to remain as part of this model. As a result, it was

removed before the assessment of the structural model began. Further analysis demonstrated that all other constructs were distinct from one another.

The next stage was to assess the structural model. Collinearity statistics (VIF) of the structural model paths verified there were no measurement errors present to discredit the validity of the results at this stage. Next the path coefficient (β), which reflects the hypothesized relationships between constructs in the model to determine if these are statistically significant (p values and t values) was analysed. T-values of note were the highly significant positive relationships between job engagement and job satisfaction. Higher still were the results for organisation engagement and its positive relationship to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour (both individual and organisational). Of the antecedents, only perceived organisational support and its positive relationship to organisation engagement exceeded the threshold of 2.57.

Observation of p values determined that perceived organisational support towards organisation engagement and perceived supervisor support towards job engagement were significant in the context of the antecedents' constructs. Job engagement had a positive influence on job satisfaction, organisation engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour (individual). The outcomes of organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) did not show a significant relationship. Organisation engagement has a positive significant influence on all outcome constructs featured in the model.

The model's predictive accuracy is done through observing the coefficients of determination values (R^2). The R^2 values of the endogenous constructs (antecedents) ranged from 0.201 up to 0.727. These results determined that Organisational commitment and organisation engagement have the strongest predictive power in the model. Job satisfaction, Organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) and Organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) have medium levels of predictive power, whereas job engagement showed low predictive power. As well as the size of R^2 values, a Stone-Geisser Q^2 value test was applied to determine if the model has predictive relevance. Results showed that organisational commitment and organisation engagement have strong predictive relevance, whereas job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation) and organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) had moderate predictive power. Job engagement showed the weakest result, falling

just below Hair et al's (2013) threshold for moderate predictive relevance. However, all constructs were well above Chin's (2010) $Q^2 > 0.05$ threshold and therefore predictive relevance was established for all constructs.

The effect size shown as f^2 measured the strength of the experimental effect. If a construct were to be removed from the model, its consequences may affect some variables more than others. Job engagement and perceived supervisor support had the largest effect on job engagement whereas small effect sizes were seen for perceived organisational support, rewards and recognition, procedural and distributive justice. Organisation engagement perceived organisational support has the largest effect and smaller effects on procedural justice, perceived supervisor support and rewards and recognition. At the extremes, perceived organisational support had no effect on job engagement and yet the highest effect on organisation engagement. Perceived supervisor support has the largest effect on job engagement and very little on organisation engagement.

A mediation assessment was then carried out. There are two mediating variables presented in the model, job engagement, and organisation engagement. Analysis of mediating variables aims to understand the influence of certain variables on others. Hypotheses results were then analysed to assess which ones were supported and where the null hypotheses could be rejected. Path coefficients (t values and p values) determined that there was a positive and significant influence of perceived organisational support and perceived supervisor support on job engagement. Of the mediation outcomes Job engagement had a positive significant influence on job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) but not organisational commitment or organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation). Moreover, organisation engagement had a stronger influence on all outcome constructs.

These results were then compared with the Saks (2006 model (see Table 37) three significant relationships were shed by both models, namely perceived organisational support on job engagement. Of the mediators, job engagement has a positive influence on job satisfaction and organisation engagement has a significant positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation). There were more significant results for TAWs than permanent employees in the model. Note the significant and positive influence of organisation engagement on all the outcome constructs for TAWs compared to only one for permanent employees - organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation).

Table 37: Comparison of results between TAWs and Permanent Employees

Significant Relationships	TAWs	Traditional
Antecedent Constructs		
JC->JE	No	Yes
POS->JE	Yes	Yes
POS->OE	No	Yes
PSS->JE	Yes	No
Outcome Constructs		
JE->JS	Yes	Yes
JE->OC	Yes	No
JE->OCBI	Yes	No
JE->OCBO	Yes	Yes

Note: DJ=distributive justice; ITQ=intention to Quit; JC=job characteristics; JE=job engagement; OE=organisation engagement; JS=job satisfaction; OC=organisational commitment; OCBI=organisational citizenship behaviour-individual; OCBO=organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation; OE=organisation engagement; PJ=procedural justice; POS=perceived organisational support; PSS=perceived supervisor support; R&R=rewards and recognition.

Mediation outcomes were not hypothesised in this study and therefore a mediation assessment was not required. However, specific indirect effects were examined to see which antecedent constructs had the strongest influence on the outcomes. Job engagement via organisation engagement had the strongest effect on organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation). Job engagement alone did not show any significant results, this was the same for organisation engagement. Examination of the antecedent constructs determined that only perceived organisational support via organisation engagement had a significant indirect effect on outcomes, in fact all outcomes were significant.

Although multigroup analysis was not based on a hypothesis, the literature did allude to a lack of gender-based research in employee engagement and TAWs, therefore the MICOM procedure was employed to prepare for the testing of measurement invariance. Results showed therefore no invariance (all items were not significant) and there were no significant differences between the genders and the path relationships

Further analysis of the previous findings from studies using Saks' (2006) measures of engagement were scoped for a baseline of results (see appendix B). These findings are compared with the results from this study and will be discussed further in chapter 6.

5.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter reported the results from the data collection with a view to evaluating the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement in temporary agency workers. Partial Least Squares (PLS) and a variance-based structural equation modelling (SEM) technique was applied which allowed for simultaneous analysis of the measurement model and the structural model. After preliminary data analysis, including the response-rate and data cleaning process. The descriptive statistics were reported. Following on from this, the application of PLS-SEM was evaluated to determine the validity and reliability of the measurement model and the structural model. The results showed that intention to quit was weak and therefore removed from the final analysis in accordance with best practice (Hair et al., 2019). The application of multigroup analysis is discussed and finally results were statistically compared results found by the Saks (2006) study. Results show several discrepancies between the data sets when the same antecedents, multidimensional engagement and outcomes measures are applied in a TAW context. These will be discussed in the next Chapter.

6 DISCUSSION

6.1 Chapter Introduction

The structure of this chapter begins with revisiting the motivation of this study (section 6.2) the sample profile and response-rates (Section 6.3). An examination of the hypotheses testing and model results and other relevant studies, albeit from a range of contexts, are compared in section 6.4 (antecedents) and 6.5 (outcomes). Furthermore, the implications for research are discussed in section 6.7 and practical implications in section 6.8. The limitations of the study are outlined along with future opportunities (section 6.9) and the chapter concludes with a thesis summary and conclusions (section 6.10).

6.2 Revisiting the Research Motivation

This study set out to answer three interrelated research questions (see Table 38). As the literature review developed, it became evident that work engagement itself had been observed through a narrow lens, usually consisting of one form of engagement. Moreover, the extant literature in the context of TAWs was extremely limited, not only in terms of engagement, but the antecedents and associated outcomes. Furthermore, the focus on temporary warehouse workers is even more limited. Against this backdrop of academic and practical relevance, and a corresponding lack of knowledge relating to TAWs sense of engagement, this study contributes to the body of knowledge in a key area of human resource management that has received relatively little attention to date: the aim being to contribute towards better understanding of the key success drivers and fundamental components of the organisational engagement of TAWs. Against the backdrop of multidimensional engagement applied in traditional employment settings, the following research questions were proposed (see Table 38).

Table 38: Research questions and representative hypothesis

Research Questions	Representative Hypotheses
RQ1. Do the commonly held antecedents of multidimensional engagement influence the TAWs job engagement and organisation engagement in the context of The Client Organisation?	Underpinned by hypotheses H1-H6

RQ2. Does multidimensional employee engagement positively influence TAW outcomes within The Client organisation?	Underpinned by hypotheses H7-H8 (H9 omitted after reliability and validity testing)
RQ3. Does multidimensional engagement comprise of distinct forms of engagement and is this applicable to the context of TAWs?	Underpinned by hypotheses H10

6.3 Sample Profile and Response Rates

Firstly, our attention turns to discussing the demographic data with the existing literature. As stated previously, sample sizes for previous studies utilising either elements of the Saks (2006) model or the model in its entirety range from 87 (Malinen, Wright & Cammock, 2013) to 457 (Juhdi, Pa'wan & Hansaram, 2013) with a mean of 258 from 10 primary data studies. Of previous studies using Saks' multidimensional engagement, a quantitative approach using self-administered questionnaires were utilised with only one previous study using a qualitative method. A breakdown of the studies, their research aims, and results were presented in Appendix B.

Working from Shah and Goldstein's (2006) recommendation of five responses per observable variable, the model comprises of six antecedent constructs (job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support; rewards and recognition, procedural justice and distributive justice), two engagement constructs (job engagement and organisation engagement) and four outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit, and organisational citizenship behaviour – individual and organisation). Therefore, there are twelve constructs in focus, if Shah and Goldstein's (2006) guidance is adhered to, then 60 responses are required as a minimum. However, for SEM analysis required a larger sample size. Furthermore, the final model omitted one construct (intention to quit) leaving 12 constructs in the model. This would warrant a minimum of 55 responses.

Based on the mean of previous studies applying Saks' model, a target of >258 usable responses were set. In total 277 responses were used in this research which is slightly higher than the mean of previous studies and well above Shah and Goldstein's (2006) threshold. A response rate percentage was not reported, as the survey was not distributed to specified sample size. Instead, volunteers were sought from the warehouse floor across several work shifts.

Respondents comprised of male $n=178$ (64.3%), female $n=90$ (32.5%), and preferred not to say $n=1$ (0.4%). Eight respondents (2.9%) did not answer this question.

6.3.1 Sample Size and Gender

In comparison to previous studies using Saks (2006) work, the number of usable responses in this study is in line with previous studies. These studies used self-completion questionnaires using measures featured in the Saks model and this study. For example, Anaza and Rutherford, (2012a) used data from 272 responses in their study of USA frontline employees with a gender mix of 72.8% female and 27.2% male to examine relationship between job satisfaction, employee patronage and employee engagement. In a further study by Anaza and Rutherford, (2012b) examining Employee-customer identification and job engagement, data from 297 USA frontline employees with a gender mix of 74% female and 26% male was analysed. Both studies are near the sample size used in this research. However, the gender mix is more weighted towards female respondents compared to 64.3% of male respondents in this study.

Mediator analysis of employee engagement by Biswas and Bhatnagar, (2013) showed a weighting toward higher numbers of male respondents. Capturing data from 246 full-time managers and executives from six organisations based in India, response rates were 87.1% male and 12.9% female. This may be due to the cultural climate within these organisations. This weighting is also reflected in a study by Biswas, Varma and Ramaswami (2013) and may be attributed to the same cultural norms. This study linked distributive and procedural justice to employee engagement. Of the 238 responses from senior managers and executives from manufacturing and service industries in India 74.4% males, 25.6% female.

Examining work and organisation engagement in the chemicals industry based in the Netherlands and an auto-engineering industry based in the UK, Farndale, et al. (2014) received 298 usable responses showing a gender mix of 84.4% male, 15.6 % Female. This is unsurprising given the nature of the industries being male dominated. To the author's knowledge no studies have applied multidimensional engagement to TAWs or indeed warehouse personnel.

An interesting gender mix examining organisation engagement is research conducted by Mahon, Taylor and Boyatzis, (2014) who examined antecedents of organisational engagement.

Of the 285 responses from a for-profit organisation and a non-profit organisation based in the USA, for profit employee responses accounted for 65% male and not-for-profit respondents were only 25% male. This could be due to the specific organisations used in the study rather than a reflection of the sector itself. Given the extant literature, the sample size and gender mix for this thesis reflects previous studies and therefore provides an acceptable level of data across the genders.

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

6.3.2 Sample Age

Of the 277 respondents, 43 (15.5%) did not answer the question relating to age range. The largest proportion of respondents (31.4%) was in the 25-34 range. Within The Client organisation employees age distribution has remained in steady state for several years (Company Inclusivity Report, 2022).

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

This median age is somewhat reflective of previous multidimensional engagement studies. Men age ranges fall between 33 up to 50 years of age. Most studies show the largest cohorts for those 30-39 years old (e.g., Saks, 2006; Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Biswas, Varma & Ramaswami, 2013; Juhdi, Pa'wan & Hansaram, 2013). This study reflects the extant literature in terms of age profile with the majority of respondents being in the age category of 25-34.

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]	[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

6.3.3 Reliability and Validity of the Research Model

Assessment of the research model is done in two key stages when working with PLS-SEM. The first stage was to assess the reliability and validity of the measurement model. This comprised of three stages of analysis: Internal consistency, examination of convergent validity and establishing discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2016). All items were shown to meet and exceed the thresholds for Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability, except for the construct *intention to quit*. The assessment criteria of >0.70 threshold showed perceived supervisor support (0.854), job satisfaction (0.797) and perceived organisational support (0.769) had the highest reliability followed by distributive justice (0.758) and organisation engagement (0.746). These are shown to be strong and valid representations of the constructs in question. Perceived organisational support (POS) was the strongest construct in this assessment suggesting the measure is highly representative of its construct.

When examining previous results, the measure used by Saks and in this study has not been used in the previous related studies, instead the measurement scales used all consist of three items and are equally established in the literature such as Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1979) and Landau and Hammer's (1986) *withdrawal intention*. The fact that this research used Colarelli's *intention to quit* three-item scale (1984) to replicate the Saks model and it has also been effective in Akingbola & van den Berg's (2019) analysis in CB-SEM using AMOS, others have avoided the measure (Malin, Wright & Cammock, 2013). These mixed results suggest that it may not be as robust as others or suited to PLS-SEM analysis.

Having assessed for validity and reliability, the second key stage was to assess the structural model for robustness and to examine how the constructs are related. The internal validity of the constructs was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha, this determines whether the scale items reflect what the variable is trying to represent (Hair et al., 2019). SmartPLS 4.0 was used to analyse both the measurement model and structural model. Composite reliability was established through construct validity tests through average variance extracted (AVE); and discriminant validity through analysis of Fornell-Larker criterion, Cross loadings and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT).

The unmodified model revealed several indicator thresholds were not met. Outer loadings above .70 represent the construct to a high degree, however, items falling between 0.50-0.60

can be accepted if other indicators measuring the same construct appear higher. Items between 0.40-0.70 may require removal if the AVE and composite reliability are increased (Hair et al., 2013). Caution is required when items fall below 0.60 as this is a sign that internal consistency reliability is weak (Hair et al., 2016). Having established the reliability and validity of the measurement model, analysis of the structural model can be addressed. This is where hypotheses are enabled, and the structural relationships examined accordingly. This was illuminated through the results of the effect size (f^2), the path coefficient (B), the Coefficient of Determination (R^2), Predictive Relevance (Q^2) and Effect Size (f^2).

The next stage was to assess the structural model. Collinearity statistics (VIF) of the structural model paths verified there were no measurement errors present to discredit the validity of the results at this stage. Next the path coefficient (β), which reflect the hypothesized relationships between constructs to determine if these are statistically significant (p values and t values) was analysed. T-values of note were the highly significant positive relationships between job engagement and job satisfaction. Higher still were the results for organisation engagement and its positive relationship to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour (both individual and organisational). Of the antecedents, only perceived organisational support and its positive relationship to organisation engagement exceeded the threshold of 2.57.

Having established reliability and validity of the measurement model and the quality and predicative power of the structural model, the results of analysis are now discussed in more detail.

6.4 Discussion of the Antecedent Findings

This section discusses the results of each construct against the backdrop of the extant literature and previous research findings. The antecedents could be considered as exogenous variables and outcomes as endogenous variables. In the first instance, the exogenous variables are discussed (H1-H6)

Job Characteristics: *Job characteristics have a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation (H1a and H1b).*

The construct of job characteristics was presented as an antecedent to both job engagement and organisation engagement, during analysis there was no significant influence shown for this construct. Therefore, hypotheses H1a and H11b were not supported. The finding from H1a contrasts with Saks (2006) who found job characteristics positively and significantly influenced job engagement. Both measures were taken from Hackman and Oldham's (1976) model of job characteristics which proposes that the job role design has the capability to motivate and enrich the employee's experience. A key component of this measure is *meaningfulness* which was emphasised by Khan (1990, 1992) at work whereby employees may be allowed to apply their skills, assimilate their contribution with their values and gain a sense of a worthwhile endeavour (Ghosh et al., 2015). The finding of this study supports the work of Christian et al. (2011) and Crawford et al. (2010) who examine the role of job characteristics in job engagement, albeit in traditional workforces. Moreover, Akingbola and Van den Berg (2019) examined job characteristics and its relationship with both multidimensional engagement scales amongst a cohort of non-profit organisations. They found little support for a positive significant relationship to both job and organisation engagement. In a sector where meaningfulness is a possible determinant factor, the finding may be an indication that shared values and organisational mission feed into engagement over the individual characteristics of the role. It is reasonable to consider the same implications for TAWs due to type of job roles involved in warehouse work.

Slattery et al. (2010) offered one of the few studies to examine job characteristics in the context of TAWs. They found support for its positive influence on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to quit. Its influence on employee engagement was not hypothesised in their study. However, when examining the indirect effects in this thesis, no significant effect was found for the effects of job characteristics on any organisational commitment or job satisfaction. Therefore, we must draw upon the empirical evidence from traditional workforces, in particular Rai and Maheshwari (2020) found a significant relationship between job characteristics and organisational engagement in banking sector employees. However, the job characteristics are low in autonomy, yet can be high in meaningfulness and responsibility which may account for the significance. Saks' (2006) finding for job characteristic significantly influencing job engagement may also comprise of employees from similar roles (not specified). For TAWs in this study meaningfulness and responsibility were limited, that culminated with the monotony of warehouse tasks, or the lack of opportunities to utilise skills may justify why this construct resulted in a *null* hypothesis. There may also be some dilution within the

perception of this construct, whereby TAWs may attribute positive perceptions of job characteristics to both the Agency who placed them in the role and The Client organisation who determine the role (Flynn, 2005; Slattery et al., 2010). It remains a vastly under-researched area and warrant further exploration.

Perceived Organisational Support: *Perceived organisational support (POS) has a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation (H2a and H2b).*

Several authors have attributed POS to engagement, organisational commitment, and reciprocity behaviours (OCB) (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Despite both hypotheses predicted to positively influence both job engagement and organisation engagement, results determined POS was only significant in influencing organisation engagement. This is in partial contrast to Saks who found that POS significantly influences both job engagement and organisation engagement. Out of indirect effects in this study, POS is the only antecedent construct significantly influencing the outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) and organisational, but only through the mediation of organisation engagement. This suggests that POS out of all antecedent constructs has the largest impact on organisation engagement and all outcome constructs in the model. Therefore, if it were to be removed, then the model would be severely compromised. The influence of POS was also shown to influence job satisfaction in research by Anaza and Rutherford (2012a). However, only the Saks (2006) job engagement scale was used. This is still in contrast to the findings of this study. Research by Bhatnagar and Biswas (2012) used both job and organisation engagement items as a holistic scale of employee engagement and found POS to be a significant antecedent of employee engagement. It positively significantly influenced engagement and organisational commitment in white-collar workers, but only when psychological contracts were positive. Their finding partially supports this study in terms of organisation engagement as the scale was not split between the engagement constructs in their study. A further study by the researchers Biswas & Bhatnagar (2013), examined POS in terms of job satisfaction and organisational commitment through employee engagement as the mediator. Results showed that multidimensional employee engagement is significantly associated to the positive outcomes of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, again partially supporting the results found in this study. Moreover, POS had powerful positive

indirect effects on all outcomes. Again, the scale was not split between constructs and therefore it is not clear as to whether JE or OE has the largest influence on the results. The influence of POS is also supported by Mahon, Taylor and Boyatzis (2014) who found a positive significance to organisation engagement. However, job engagement was not examined in their study. Overall, POS has a valid place in this model and can provide valuable insights into the health of a client organisation-TAW relationship by predicting attitudes and behaviours. In consideration of the extant literature, this study reflects elements of previous studies in traditional employees and provides a new insight of this construct, engagement, and TAWs.

Perceived Supervisor Support: *Perceived supervisor support (PSS) has a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation (H3a and H3b).*

Perceived supervisor support (PSS) was hypothesised to have a significant influence on both job engagement and organisation engagement, however only job engagement was found to be significant. This result differs from Saks who found no significance for either form of engagement. From the previous multidimensional engagement studies, PSS does not appear as a construct. Therefore, the literature on PSS and multidimensional engagement is extremely limited. Eisenberger et al. (2002) defines PSS as the level of support, care and appreciation supervisors bestow on their subordinates. The extant literature shows the influence of POS and PSS on one another, the markers of an interrelationship show POS has been shown to be important when PSS is low (Maertz et al. 2007). This may be the case for Saks finding. However, in this study POS was found to be significantly influencing organisation engagement, whereas PSS is significantly influencing Job engagement. This is suggesting that at an organisational level, the support perceived by the TAW is also reflected in their positive levels of organisation engagement. Whereas a supportive supervisor positively influences the job role and job engagement as a result. This has important implications for client organisations wishing to attract and retain quality TAWs for the duration of their contract. Increased engagement has been shown to enhance employee performance (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000; Hakanen et al., 2012) productivity, innovation, profitability, and revenue growth for the organisation (Gelade & Young, 2005; Christian et al., 2010; Rich et al., 2010; Ngwenya & Pelsler, 2020).

Whilst PSS studies and TAWs are yet to be popularised, a meta-analysis examining PSS in part-time and full-time cohorts found that PSS scored significantly lower in part-time employees (Gordon et al., 2019). This suggested that supervisors may differ in the support, care and appreciation granted to different cohorts. However, this contrasted with the results shown in this study. A further explanation could be that TAWs are more susceptible to perceptions of support whether it be from the organisation or supervisors. [REDACTED]

[REDACTED]. The organisation itself emphasising warehouse job roles as essential in enabling the company to achieve its goals. Whereby individual supervisors are perceived as an extension of The Client organisation demonstrating supportive attitudes and behaviours towards the TAWs as part of the wider mission.

Rewards and Recognition: *Rewards and recognition have a positive impact on (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation (H4a and H4b).*

Both hypotheses proposed to have a significant influence on both job engagement and organisation engagement, however this construct had no significant influence on either form of engagement. Saks did not offer a hypothesis on this construct but did analyse the result and found no significance. This may be due to limited findings previous research or differing organisational cultures from the sample set. Research by Akingbola and van den Berg (2019) found significant support for the relationship between reward and recognition and organisation engagement, but not job engagement. This suggests that employees may separate their perceptions and affiliate incentive schemes with the organisation rather than individual job roles. This result gives support to the notion of engagement existing in separate contexts for employees. There is limited literature on the construct of reward and recognition as an antecedent of engagement. This construct is closely linked with social exchange theory (SET) (Blau, 1964) suggesting the reciprocal nature of the employer-employee relationship can be enhanced by intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and recognition (Schaufeli, 2013). As TAWs can be placed into menial jobs at a low wage, it would be reasonable to assume that reward and recognition would form a significant influence on engagement (De Witte & Naswall, 2003; Burgess, 2006). However, this study found it was not the case. It could be argued that the influence of reward and recognition and its relationship to employee engagement is more of an indirect relationship. Furthermore, when flanked by the elements of the job characteristics

model (Hackman & Oldham, 1986) and the positive perceptions of supervision and organisational support (Khan, 1990; Bhattacharya & Mukherjee, 2009) TAWs employees are more likely to increase their efforts and subsequently their level of work engagement (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013).

Procedural Justice: *Perceptions of procedural justice positively impact (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement at The Client Organisation (H5a and H5b).*

Both hypotheses were not significant and therefore were not supported in this instance. The result reflects the same finding as Saks (2006). This contrasts with research by Bhatnagar and Biswas (2012) who found that procedural justice has a significant influence on multidimensional employee engagement, but only when the employee's psychological contract is positive. Malinen, Wright and Cammock (2013) found that organisation engagement was significantly related with procedural justice and distributive justice. However, both studies examined permanent employees only. Procedural justice by nature is concerned with the policies and processes within an organisation and their impact on the individual (Loi, Lam & Chan, 2012). Again, we can look to SET to explain why justice can form positive relationships with employee engagement (He, Zhu & Zheng, 2014). In the case of TAWs, procedural justice stems from both Agency and The Client organisation. However, TAWs are unlikely to have decision-making powers in either setting. Therefore, their expectation of procedural justice may be low (Chembel et al., 2015b). Despite this, Camerman et al. (2007) found that high level of perceived justice in TAWs resulted in committed relationships with their organisations. This finding is not supported in this study. *This could be due to the co-operative structure of The Client organisation or cultural climate in warehouse. The Client organisation has a well-publicised set of principles including the partner voice and there are structured opportunities for partners to provide input.* However, TAWs appear aware this is not something that is open to them directly. This result also contrasts with POS and PSS which are positive, this may suggest that the support of both organisation and supervisors mitigate the need for input for the TAWs.

Distributive Justice: *Perceptions of distributive justice positively impact (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement for at The Client Organisation (H6a and H6b).*

Distributive justice was hypothesised to have a significant influence on both job engagement and organisation engagement, this was not supported. The result reflects the same finding as Saks. However, research by Biswas et al. (2013) examined distributive justice with POS as a mediator, results showed that POS fully mediated multidimensional employee engagement. Harnessing distributive justice with complimentary construct such as POS enhances its influence on employee engagement. In the case of TAWs limited research exists to determine if this is true of non-traditional employees. Distributive justice is concerned with fairness of rights and resource allocation, one could argue that TAWs have little say in the matter and are higher risk of injustice in the workplace (Connelly, Gallagher & Webster, 2011). Again, TAWs may enter The Client organisation with a low expectation of distributive justice, or they may perceive it to be the remit of the Agency more so than The Client's responsibility. Alternatively, Camerman, Cropanzano and Vandenberg (2007) emphasised the role of strong communication and information sharing between organisation and employee to build trust and perceptions of justice. Client organisations may differ in communication levels between its permanent and TAW workforce; therefore, evaluations of justice may be low as a result. This suggests that agencies wishing to retain good employees should factor in communication that builds perceptions of fairness and justice.

In summary, only antecedent hypotheses H2b perceived organisational support (POS) onto organisation engagement (OE) and H3a perceived supervisor support (PSS) onto job engagement (JE) were shown to have a significant relationship with the mediating variables. Only H2b reflected the same outcome as the Saks study (2006). This suggests that POS plays an important role on how permanent employees and TAWs are influenced to engagement with the organisation. Whereas Saks (2006) found support for POS onto JE, this research did not. This may reflect the nature of the job roles allocated to TAWs or that organisational support may be viewed as a dual responsibility between agency and client organisation. Furthermore, POS when analysing indirect effects, it was the only antecedent construct significantly influencing positive outcomes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) and organisational. This was not hypothesised and yet provides a valuable indication of its power within the model. Moreover, POS was significantly influencing the outcomes through the mediator of OE but not JE. This suggests that TAWs perceiving The Client organisation to value their wellbeing and contributions are more likely to be engaged with the organisation itself over the job role. The influence of job characteristics on job engagement (H1a) was supported in Saks (2006) study, but not in this research. This is

understandable given the role of warehouse tasks from a TAW perspective. Furthermore, Saks (2006) did not find support for PSS onto JE, whereas this did, thus suggesting the role of supervisors showing care and appreciation for a job well done, no matter how menial is important in this context.

6.5 Discussion of the Outcome Findings

The Discussion now turns to hypotheses reflecting the endogenous variables and related hypotheses (H7-H8) for the outcomes of multidimensional engagement. Hypothesis H9 was omitted from the model due to poor reliability and validity and no structural analysis took place. Subsequently H9 is omitted from this study. The remaining results were reliant on the mediating variable of either job engagement or organisation engagement.

H7: Job engagement will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, (c) organisational citizenship behaviour (individual), (c) organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)

H8: Organisation engagement will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, (c) organisational citizenship behaviour (individual), (d) organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation)

Job Satisfaction (H7a) was hypothesised to be positively and significantly influenced by job engagement and this was supported. The result reflects the same finding as Saks. In contrast, this study found that organisation engagement positively and significantly influences job satisfaction (H8a) whereas Saks did not. The indirect significant influence of POS was also shown to influence job satisfaction in research and is supported by Anaza and Rutherford (2012a). However, this was used a control variable in their study and all eleven items of multidimensional engagement measure were not used, instead five items from the job engagement scale were used. Using the full scale of multidimensional engagement Akingbola & van den Berg (2019) found no support for a significant relationship between engagement and job satisfaction, this contrasts the finding of this study. Farndate et al. (2014) used only three items from Saks organisation engagement measure but nevertheless found organisational engagement to be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour organisation. TAW contracts are inherently short and may

be undertaken as a necessity rather than choice, furthermore the lack of job security has been shown to lead to low levels of job satisfaction (Hunefeld, Gersenberg & Huffmeier, 2020). However, both job engagement and organisation engagement were high in this study and resulted in a significant influence on job satisfaction. This might be explained by TAWs at this site desiring the flexibility of temporary work or the opportunity for a ‘foot in the door’ to gain permanent employment with the organisation (De Graaf-Zijil, 2012). This is certainly supported in the demographic data with $n=198$ of the TAW sample expressing this the case.

Organisational Commitment (H7b) was hypothesised to be positively and significantly influenced by job engagement. However, this was not supported and is the same outcome as the Saks (2006) study. This supports the same finding from a more recent multidimensional engagement study by Akingbola & van den Berg (2019). In contrast, organisation engagement was found to have a significant positive influence on organisational commitment (H8b) which was not found by Saks. Research by Bhatnagar and Biswas (2012) found evidence of procedural justice, person-organisation fit and perceived organisational support positively influencing organisational commitment and employee engagement. This research found evidence of POS having a significant and indirect effect of organisational commitment. A further study used the Saks full multidimensional scale and found a significant relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013). If organisational commitment is proposed as an emotive or affective bond between employee to the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), then this may explain why job engagement did not have a significant influence on organisational commitment, but organisation engagement did. By this definition TAWs are unlikely to form committed relationships with The Client organisation. An issue raised previously by Shrotryia and Dhanda (2018) and Saks and Gruman (2014) was that commitment measurements can be susceptible to overlaps with engagement measures. This is acknowledged in this study as discriminant validity tests showed some similarity. This notwithstanding, previous studies have shown that organisational commitment is highly reflective of SET and from a TAW perspective the norm of reciprocity is valid. Therefore, the higher of support and resources, the higher levels of engagement the more committed an individual is likely to be (cf. Liden et al., 2003; Connelly & Gallagher, 2004; Virtanen et al., 2005; Connelly et al., 2007; Woldman et al., 2018), Again, the indirect influence of POS may play a role in his finding.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is sometimes assessed as a holistic construct which incorporates both organisational citizenship behaviour directed to an individual (OCBI) and organisational citizenship behaviour directed towards organisation (OCBO) (Liden et al., 2003; Saks, 2006). Essentially, it attributes behaviors that are not formally recognized by the organisation's reward system but go above and beyond to support and promote collegiality and the functioning and mission of the organisation (Organ et al., 2005). OCB in its holistic form has received mixed results when applying it to TAWs, for example Pearce (1993) puts high OCB results down to TAWs having a narrow interpretation of their job descriptions compared to permanent colleagues. Whereas Connelly, Gallagher and Webster (2011) argue that TAWs are high attuned to new assignments and the attitudes they form will determine levels of OCB. This notwithstanding research shows that The Client organisation as opposed to the Agency holds the biggest influence on OCB whether this be directly or through affecting engagement (Moorman & Harland, 2002). The OCB construct is also reflective of SET and the norm of reciprocity influencing increased efforts.

Organisational Citizenship Behavior (Individual) (H7c) was hypothesised to be positively significantly influenced by job engagement; the results supported this. Furthermore, it was also supported when examining organisation engagement (H8c). Both results are in opposition to Saks' findings. Akingbola & van den Berg (2019) did not find a significant relationship between job engagement and OCBI, however organisation engagement did have a significant relationship with OCBI. The levels of OBCI found in this study suggest an environment whereby TAWs are engaged in their job and with The Client organisation to such a degree, that going above and beyond to support colleagues and the organisation itself is a significant outcome. This could be due to many the TAWs wanting to work directly for The Client organisation and elements of SIT and SC theory influencing OCB as TAWs affiliate themselves more so with The Client organisation and its inhabitants than their Agencies. **This is despite wearing Agency branded bibs to highlight their category onsite.** Again, this aligns with SET and the reciprocation of support and resources is exchanged for behaviours that fall outside of a standard job description. It also reflects Kahn's (1990) statement regarding the importance of values and bringing all of self to work. One might not expect OBC to be significant in TAWs given their brief role in the organisation, however this result suggests it forms an important part of their attitudinal and behavioural existence with the assignment. It could also be explained by many the TAWs in this sample wanting a permanent role within The Client organisation.

Organisational Citizenship Behavior (Organisation) (H7d) was hypothesised to be positively significantly influenced by job engagement. However, the result did not support this. This is also reflecting Saks' finding. Once again, organisation engagement significantly and positively influenced OCBO (H8d) which is in direct contrast to Saks who did not find support. Whilst Farndale et al. (2014) did not use job engagement and opted to develop a measure of work engagement for this study, organisation engagement was shown to have a positive significant relationship with OCBO whereas work engagement did not. Akingbola & van den Berg (2019) found a significant relationship between job engagement and OCBO.

The outcomes of employee engagement have received significant attention in recent years due to the belief that positive attitudes created by high engagement such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour, have a direct impact on organisational performance outputs (Macey et al., 2009; Bakker & Bal, 2010; Rich et al., 2010) and employee wellbeing (Crawford et al., 2010; Christian et al., 2011). Therefore, it was important to examine several output constructs to see if the findings from the permanent workforce literature rang true for TAWs. Having established that job engagement and organisation engagement are distinct constructs, it was appropriate to examine the influence of job engagement on organisation engagement. Several studies have only utilised one of the two measures in their research, for example both studies by Anaza, & Rutherford (2012a and 2012b) utilised job engagement whereas studies by Juhdi, Pa'wan and Hansaram (2013), Malinen, Wright and Cammock (2013) as well as Farndale, et al. (2014) all utilised Saks' measure of organisation engagement. While job engagement has shown weaker outcomes, it does have a significant positive influence on organisation engagement thus the hypothesis H10 is supported. None of the multidimensional studies have examined the influence of JE on OE, however a number have analysed both constructs are confirmed as distinct (Farndale et al. 2014; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019).

Much of the extant literature places the construct of engagement as a mediating variable between a limited number of antecedents and outcomes (Rich et al., 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2014). This research took what is traditionally a single construct and applied Saks (2006) multidimensional view of two distinct forms of engagement, namely job engagement and organisation engagement as the mediating variables between antecedent and outcome variables. It therefore became important to determine the distinctive nature of these two constructs as well as their relationships with another variable in the model. This brings us to

final hypotheses **H10**, which predicted that *Job engagement will have a significant positive influence on organisation engagement*. When examining indirect effects, job engagement through organisation engagement positively and significantly influenced all outcome variables: job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour both individual and organisation. As with previous studies, the constructs of job engagement and organisation engagement were shown to be significantly different from cross-loading analysis, but also in the relationships they have with the constructs in this model (Biswas, Varma & Ramaswami, 2013; Farndale et al., 2014; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019). Therefore, having established them as distinct constructs, a logical step in the analysis was to examine whether job engagement positive and significantly influenced organisation engagement which it did. However, the results show that it is organisation engagement that has the largest influence within the model, as its impact on all outcome constructs was significant. Job engagement only had a significant influence on job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour directed to an individual (OCBI). This suggests that the role of the organisation in engagement holds far more importance for TAWs than the job itself.

In summary of the outcome findings, OE significantly influenced all constructs whereas JE showed a limited influence. Both job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour directed to an individual (OCBI) were significant outcomes for both mediating variables. The relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction is supported by several permanent employee studies (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006; Abraham, 2012). Furthermore, job satisfaction as also generated positive OCB (Tsai & Wu, 2010). For the TAWs based in the warehouse the job role is less important, instead The Client organisation is shown to hold a greater influence on positive psychological and behavioural outcomes. Therefore, client organisations should not underestimate to opportunity to encourage engagement from temporary workforces.

Multigroup analysis, whilst not hypothesized, revealed the greatest difference between male and female participants was the impact of job characteristics on job engagement, being positive for males and negative for females. This may reflect the different views on the meaning of work in this context. However, descriptive statistics revealed that approximately 25% of respondents indicated they have no intention of leaving their placement in the foreseeable future, suggesting a sizeable proportion of respondents are highly satisfied with their Assignment. Furthermore, n=192 of the 277 sample reported the desire to gain a permanent

role with The Client organisation which suggests many the cohort perceive the organisation in a positive light and as a long-term employment prospect. This may be attributed to high levels of perceived organisational support and perceived supervisor support influencing positive multidimensional engagement rather than necessity over choice.

6.6 Contributions of the Study

Despite the increasing number of TAWs and their significant place in the economy, relatively little is known about their sense of work engagement and how this might influence work behaviour. Against this backdrop of practical relevance, and a corresponding lack of knowledge relating to TAWs sense of engagement, this study contributes to the body of knowledge in a key area of organisational behaviour through the lens of TAWs, that has received relatively little explicit attention to date: the aim being to contribute towards better understanding of the key drivers and fundamental components of engagement for TAWs.

This research is the first (to the author's knowledge) to apply the Saks (2006) model in its entirety since its inception. Until now, only part of the model has been used (e.g., Akingbola et al., 2019). This could be due to the number of variables involved in data collection and the complexity of analysis required. Furthermore, this research recognises multidimensional engagement as two distinct constructs, that of job engagement and organisation engagement. Previous studies have either used one of these as a mediator or grouped them together as one homogenous measure. This is the only study since Saks (2006) to divide the two forms of engagement. Moreover, it highlights the importance of treating the two constructs as distinct forms of engagement, with results demonstrating the influence of organisational engagement over job engagement. If research is to inform practice and policy, then results support using the constructs in their individual form. Furthermore, the model has been applied for the first time to the context of TAWs.

████████████████████ Limited findings are reflective of the original model of Saks (2006), for example the positive influence of perceived organisational support on organisation engagement; job engagement having a significant relationship with job satisfaction and organisation engagement with organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation). However, significant support for the influence of job characteristics on job engagement and perceived organisational support on job engagement were not found in this study in comparison to Saks (2006). This notwithstanding, several additional significant relationships were found, namely the significant influence of perceived supervisor support on job engagement; job engagement's relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour directed to an individual (OCBI) and organisation engagement having a significant and positive relationship to all outcomes: job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour (individual) and organisational citizenship behaviour (organisation). The research went on to expand the scope of the research and extend the original model by differentiating effect of job engagement on organisation engagement.

This research extends the original scope of the model by examining the relationship between job and organisation engagement in a new context – that of TAWs. The most surprising finding in this study is the effect perceived organisational support has within the model. POS through organisation engagement had an indirect yet significant positive influence on all outcomes. Thus, highlighting the importance of nurturing a culture of care, support and the wellbeing for temporary workers, not just permanent employees.

A further contribution of this study is in its methodology. Notably, its use of a semantic differential questionnaire tool as opposed to the standard interval scales used in the previous studies. This was selected due to the diverse sample and method of data collection which required respondents to sit alone in a room to complete the questionnaire. By providing opposing statements, the nature of the question can be clearer to the respondent. Furthermore, is respondent is encouraged to reflect on the strength of their answer. The data collection tool also split the constructs of job engagement and organisation engagement rather aggregate them as a holistic view of multidimensional engagement as with previous studies (e.g., Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2012; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Biswas et al., 2013; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019).

The final methodological contribution is attributed to the use of the application of new statistical techniques - partial least squares (PLS) in structural equation modelling (SEM). This is the first study to apply PLS-SEM to the Saks (2006) model and to the researcher's knowledge – multidimensional engagement. Previous studies have used multiple regression analysis or AMOS for covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) analysis. Whilst SEM shares some similarity with regression analysis, the complexity of the constructs and pathways involved in this model, it was appropriate to use SEM to further detect any measurement errors. In contrast to AMOS, PLS is less restricting in its assumptions and does not rely on multivariate distribution of the data or a robust theoretical foundation (Hair et al., 2016) in this case we were testing an established model in an entirely new context. Therefore, by using SmartPLS the sensitivities of the data are dealt with robustly.

Whilst most of the engagement literature has been based on the JD-Resources model there remains contentious debate as to whether the JD-R model is more of a framework housing the constructs of job demands and job resources (Saks & Gruman, 2014). It does not deal with the question of what resources will drive positive engagement or why. The employee is almost a passive recipient in this theory. Therefore, Kahn's theory introduced the notion that certain factors will affect an individual's sense of self in the workplace. This study emphasizes the absorption a temporary employee can feel towards their role within The Client organisation. Thus, reflecting Kahn's original (1990) theory of personal engagement albeit from a traditional worker perspective. TAWs apply cognitive, behavioural and emotional elements of self into their work.

Building on the theoretical foundations of Khan's (1990) work engagement theory, this research contributes further insight into the unique relationships between antecedent and outcome constructs via job engagement and organisation engagement. As Saks' (2006) model also draws upon Khan's (1990) ideas and to date no known study has applied Saks' entire model (2006) let alone with an alternative workforce (Baily et al., 2017; Saks, 2019). It is Khan's (1990) and subsequent research by May, Gibson and Harter (2004) to empirically find perceived organisational support (POS) enhanced psychological safety, job role fit increased meaningfulness and resources positively impact psychological availability. This may explain why POS was found to be a dominant variable in this research along with job characteristics which included items dealing with resources and fit. Several antecedent variables also reflect the nature of Khan's theory (1990), for example to measure job characteristics this study used

Hackman and Oldham's (1975) measure which includes an assessment of meaningfulness in the work or job role. This was shown to have a significant influence on job engagement thus adding support for Khan's theory and highlighting the value of job design for TAWs. In terms of practice, this could inform future interventions by the organisation to nurture a positive psychological, cognitive, and physical environment for TAWs alongside permanent colleagues. In particular, the training of supervisory staff would be beneficial as they are perceived as an extension of the organisational culture and values.

Whilst Saks (2006) multidimensional engagement builds upon Khan's foundation, the model is also theoretically grounded in Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Blau, 1964), this becomes clearer when we examine the antecedents and outcomes. The literature associated with SET relationships at work tend to fall into five categories: perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange; organisational commitment; team support; perceived supervisor support; and trust. Most themes are reflected in this research. The notion that reciprocity exists in the workplace between employee and employer is at the heart of this theory, therefore one could expect the construct of reward and recognition to be significant. However, this was not the finding suggesting that engagement is driven by more psychological conditions. In the case of TAWs, who are prone to the cognitive categorization of low commitment and engagement (Wollard & Shuck, 2011), SET behaviours, attitudes and beliefs may have not been supported in this study. However, the findings demonstrate support for social exchange theory as the norm of reciprocity appears to be a key driver for not only job and organisation engagement, but the outcomes beyond the basic incentive of reward and recognition schemes (Bhattacharya & Mukherjee, 2009).

Furthermore, Liden et al. (2003) found SET is germane to TAW research whereby the norm of reciprocity is experienced as part of the dual contract and exchange relationship. This is certainly the case when TAWs perceive The Client organisation as a supportive, caring, and appreciative environment resulting in higher organisation engagement and a strong positive influence on job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviours. Martinez, De Cuyper and De Witte (2010) suggest that SET encompassed ideas of fairness and TAWs maybe more susceptible to social comparison. This may inform human resource practice to go beyond reward and recognition schemes as incentives to drive higher engagement. Furthermore, SET has been shown to underpin positive OCB outcomes as well as

commitment (Giunchi et al., 2014), its influence is also suggested in this study through the application of the semantic statements, the norm of reciprocation is present.

Social categorization theory is also applicable in this research, as results indicate a desire to be a part of the organisation in the long-term. Therefore, TAWs may affiliate themselves with The Client organisation over the agency. This may suggest a sense of belongingness is present because according to Mael and Ashforth (1992) this can inform an employee's notion of self-categorisation.

6.7 Implications for Research

This study presents a basis for researchers to build upon. This is essentially a single case study, and the findings are not generalizable to the wider context of TAWs. Therefore, further testing of the model would be beneficial to establish whether the validity and reliability of the measures involved stand against a range of diverse contexts. Furthermore, the range of antecedent and outcome research continues to grow, therefore it may benefit from the use of pertinent variables (e.g., organisational identity, co-worker support, individual differences, HRD processes, job performance).

Measuring employee engagement is replete with complexity, to test the Saks (2006) model in a new context, the measurement tools in this study were the same scales used in Saks' (2006) original work. However, Saks uses multiple regression analysis to examine the constructs and since then, statistical tools have evolved. When examined under a more sophisticated statistical analysis tool such as PLS-SEM, it was through this analysis that Colarelli's (1984) *Intention to quit* did not meet the minimum threshold for reliability or validity (Hair et al., 2019). An alternative measure for this construct may therefore need to be identified for future testing. Organisational commitment was also borderline when it came to the structural path analysis, however it remained in the model due to its proximity to engagement. This notwithstanding, the findings of this study add a unique perspective to the notion of multidimensional engagement.

In terms of the model itself, this research responds to Shuck's (2010) call for greater statistically rigorous tools to be used in the examination of Saks (2006). This research also adds support

for the concept of multidimensional engagement. This is a form of employee engagement that continues to attract interest (Bailey et al., 2017), however there needs to be further studies using the constructs of multidimensional engagement in their distinct forms. Moreover, multidimensional engagement offers an opportunity to examine the impact of HRM interventions on both job and organisation engagement if these factors were placed in the antecedent constructs. This may not only extend the model and contribute to the existing literature, but the strength of a particular intervention could be assessed to inform HRM policy, practice, and communications.

This research is an exemplar single case study of a real-world organisation (Yin, 2013) [REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED] The data has shown key differences between the permanent employees used in previous multidimensional studies and TAWs. The addition of qualitative studies in this context may provide a greater understanding of the phenomena occurring and associated variables worthy of further examination (Stake, 2010). It may also increase the external validity of the model. This research took place during the spring and is a single snapshot of TAW perceptions during a period of a warehouse in steady state [REDACTED] However, peak levels of TAWs are commissioned for the festive period. A longitudinal study may provide greater insight into employee engagement over the peaks and troughs of warehouse activity.

Finally, due to the nature of TAW and the dual contracts it comes with, researchers could gather comparative data on the Agency for several the variables used in this study, for example POS, organisation engagement, organisational commitment (Liden et al., 2003). This is particularly useful in understanding perceptions of the dual relationship and how this may impact the actors involved (Biggs & Swailes, 2006). Furthermore, there is an opportunity to examine the impact of agency or client organisation disengagement and how one may influence the other (Wagner & Harter, 2006). This may have implications for practice in both contexts. Prior to this study, there is limited empirical knowledge as to which constructs are related or influence multidimensional forms of employee engagement (Bailey et al., 2017) and even less so for TAWs. Few models exist to conceptualize such a range of antecedents and outcomes. Theoretical frameworks along with new models are emerging in this area, thus there is an exciting opportunity for researchers to develop the topics discussed here further.

6.8 Implications for Practice

A frequent criticism of employee engagement is its complex nature being difficult to harness for organisational practice (Saks, 2017). When attempting to transpose the research findings into practice several issues arise. For example, there is no agreed definition, terminology associated with engagement varies (e.g., work engagement, job engagement, role engagement, organisation engagement). There are several valued conceptual theories competing for validation which may account for the phenomena found, and associated engagement measures vary in focus and robustness. The key finding from researching engagement and TAWs was the lack of empirical studies investigating antecedents and outcomes in this context.

This study confirms the value of employee engagement on positive attitudes and outcome behaviours. It highlights the distinct nature of two forms of employee engagement, namely job engagement and organisation engagement. These are shown to be relevant forms of engagement for TAWs as predictors of positive outcomes and warrant attention by The Client organisation. With an increasing importance placed on organisational performance and competitive advantage, flexible workforces are an asset and in particular TAWs who are engaged, committed and willing to go above and beyond the scope of their contractual obligations provide exceptional value (Moorman & Harland, 2002). Some organisations may question if it is worth investing training and resources into temporary workers given the stereotyped transactional basis of the relationship. Indeed, previous studies have shown TAWs are less likely to engage in citizenship behaviours (Kidder, 1998; Stamper & Van Dyke, 2001). However, social exchange theory explains the motivation for TAWs engaging in organisational citizenship behaviours, furthermore the findings from this study debunk the assumption that TAWs do not experience enough of a psychological connection to their job and client organisation to become engaged, committed, satisfied or willing to exhibit positive behaviours that go beyond their contractual obligations. This has important implications for induction, task allocation, communication, and supervision of TAWs from The Client organisation perspective as it would be easy to assume less investment of time and resources is needed to retain and optimize the performance of quality employees.

Not all antecedents are significant drivers of engagement, however this may fluctuate not only within the organisation, but across different entities, sectors, and workforces. Therefore, making strides towards the improvement of one antecedent may not be sufficient to evoke

meaningful change. However, the role of support offered by the organisation as well as supervisors made a positive impact on engagement and outcomes for TAWs. Therefore, with the indication that negative perceptions of human resource practice are reflected in subsequent behaviours and attitudes, organisational policies and practices need to be considered (Moorman & Harland, 2003; Liden et al., 2003).

The results of this study have shown a marked difference between job engagement and organisation engagement, suggesting that organisational culture creates the climate for positive engagement rather than the job roles allocated to TAWs. We also see an insight of this through the influence of perceived organisational support having a strong relationship with organisation engagement and an indirect influence on psychological outcomes.

Understanding the elements that contribute to the retention of TAWs and strengthen relationships with the dynamic was an important objective in this thesis. The creation of an organisational culture that promotes positive engagement for TAWs goes beyond the ‘shop floor’. It needs to permeate through the organisation’s values, management, and communications. Furthermore, intrinsic, and extrinsic reward and recognition schemes, though shown in HRM practice (Jiang et al., 2009) may not influence TAWs. Instead, fair, caring, and supportive treatment that values a TAWs contribution and has synergy with an individual’s values appears to be far more important to their time at The Client organisation. The multigroup analysis revealed a substantial number of TAWs wished to gain permanent employment with The Client Organisation. This is either reflective of established engagement or simply a need for secure employment. However, The Client has access to an optimized talent pool for other roles in the organisation, whether they become directly contractually employed, part-time or full-time permanent employees. This saves time and resources for the organisation and individual. Moreover, the retention of quality employees or attracting returning quality TAWs for seasonal work enables organisations to remain competitive, profitable, and reputationally sound.

6.9 Limitations and Future Opportunities

As with all research, the researcher acknowledges this study has limitations. Firstly, employee engagement is by nature a multifaceted and complex phenomenon that may not always lend itself to quantitative data techniques alone. This research used a self-report questionnaire which

is limited in the scope of data it can collect, if further used a relatively unique technique that of a semantic differential structure which may have created some degree of respondent fatigue. Respondents were also asked to complete the questionnaire onsite collecting personal information about their thoughts and feelings toward The Client organisation. Given how many respondents desired a permanent role with The Client organisation $n=178$ social desirability bias cannot be ruled out (Bryman, 2006). Therefore, future research may wish to explore a deeper understanding of the phenomenon through an interpretivist qualitative approach or a mixed-method approach.

The organisation used in this study is highly reputable in the UK and a large portion of the TAW sample expressed a desire to gain permanent employment. Future research may wish to replicate this survey in less prolific and non-cooperatively structured organisations as a comparison study. The heterogenous sample were drawn from the warehouse setting and it may benefit the field to have a wider sample frame to include other groups or contexts. Whilst this is an exemplar case study, it is not generalizable, and therefore caution should be applied when considering the implications beyond this study. Furthermore, the research took place pre-pandemic. The client organisation have expanded their operation since and introduced further automation. Despite these limitations, this study provides direction for future research on the antecedent and outcomes of employee engagement in the context of TAWs.

A range of underpinning theories and models could have been selected to examine engagement in this setting, the model selected is untested in its complete form and in this context and limited in other samples. Intention to quit did not hold up under the more sophisticated analysis of PLS-SEM and was omitted from the final analysis. While this research makes a valuable and unique contribution to the existing literature in temporary agency workers, it is using a model that still requires further research. This includes an assessment of the scales used in the original model against more recently developed robust measures.

6.10 Summary and Conclusion of the Thesis

This study set out to examine multidimensional engagement in the context of TAWs and the relationships between the antecedents of job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, reward and recognition, procedural justice and distributive justice and job and organisation engagement. The study also prepared to examine the outcomes

of both job and organisation engagement through the constructs of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, the intention to quit and organisational citizenship behaviour from an individual and organisational perspective.

This area of inquiry is highly complex due to the transactional nature of the “*dual roles*” adopted by TAWs and several areas for further research have already been highlighted in this thesis. The work presented in this research explored some of the key factors which may influence TAW engagement. The results of this study showed that the largest impacts were demonstrated by positive relationships between perceived organisational support and organisation engagement and perceived supervisor support on job engagement. Both constructs emphasise the importance of support for TAWs. Overall, organisation engagement had a significant positive influence on all outcome constructs, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour (towards individuals) and organisational citizenship behaviour (towards The Client organisation). This highlights the important role of The Client organisations using temporary agency workforces and suggests that placement engagement plays a significant role in positive outcomes for the individual and organisation. The outcome of this finding suggests that organisations that invest time and resource into their TAWs may in turn retain quality contingent workers if required. The results also suggest that agencies could increase the potential to retain quality contingent workers through vicarious engagement.

This research contributes to the existing body of knowledge in an under-researched and yet important area of study. This variation on the established Saks (2006) model which was originally developed using data from traditional employees, has provided contrasting findings in terms of TAW perceptions. The findings highlight key areas for consideration by both agencies and organisations which employ contingent workers as well as theoretical implications for researchers investigating this area of organisational behavior.

The research also provides findings that form the basis of potential insights into areas requiring further investigation, particularly those which are seen to differ from the evidence provided by the limited body of existing research, and those which are newly revealed because of this investigation.

Despite the contributions of this study, future researchers could consider undertaking a longitudinal study to offset the limitation of a cross-sectional study as well as analyse secondary data (e.g. agency data and client data). Future research could also consider conducting a qualitative or mixed methods study to further explore the nuances of this highly secretive work environment. For example, former TAW employees of this industry, client managers and agency staff. Other opportunities to mitigate the constraints reported in this study include conducting cross-case analysis of different warehouses and across different industries.

Appendix A: Self-Report Questionnaire

Instructions

Thank you for taking part in this survey. Please take some time to read through each question, neither you nor your answers will be identifiable, so please answer as honestly as you can.

This research project is investigating perceptions of job and organisation engagement. Your participation in this research is completely voluntary and you may cease completing the questionnaire at any time.

All the information you provide will be collected anonymously and held securely by the researcher. The information will be used in a PhD study, some of which will feed into academic publications and a report for the [REDACTED] Agency, elements may be shared with The Client organisation. Your anonymity is assured.

Your participation is very much appreciated and as a token of our appreciation, all fully completed questionnaires will be entered into a prize draw if you wish to place a phone number only at the end of the questionnaire. There are 4 gift cards worth £50 each available to win.

Q1. How old are you?

18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+

Q2. Please state your gender

Male	Female	Prefer not to say

Q3. Are you employed part-time or full-time?

Part-time	Full-time

Q4. Are you signed to one agency or multiple agencies?

One agency	Multiple agencies

Q5. If given the opportunity, would you like to work for The Client organisation directly?

Yes, I'd love too	Not bothered	No

Thank you for completing this part of the survey. We will now move onto your experience here at The Client organisation. Please mark the box that is closest to how you feel.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. The centre indicates a fairly neutral view, while two end boxes indicate a stronger opinion

Please take a few moments to think about your assignment with The Client organisation.
Please indicate how you feel about your assignment in terms of the following:

Q6: Please indicate how you feel about your job in terms of the following statements:

Statement	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Opposing Statement
JE1: I “throw” myself into the work	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I find the work unexciting
JE2: Sometimes I’m so into it, I lose track of time	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Time drags when I’m in work
JE3: It’s all consuming – I’m totally into it	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The work does not interest me
JE4: My mind often wanders, and I think of other things when I’m working	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My mind usually stays focused on the work
JE5: I am highly engaged in the work	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I’m not engaged with the work at all

*The numbers only appear on the researcher’s copy for coding purposes. The respondent is reliant on the statements rather than numbers to make a decision.

Q7. Please indicate how satisfied you feel about your job in terms of the following statements

JS1: Overall, I am satisfied with the role I have been assigned at The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Overall, I am NOT satisfied with the role I have been assigned at The Client organisation
JS2: In general, I do not like the role I have been assigned at The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	In general, I like the role I have been assigned at The Client organisation
JS3: In general, I like working at The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	In general, I don’t like working at The Client organisation

Q8. Please indicate how dissatisfied you feel about your job in terms of the following statements

IQ1: I frequently think about quitting this assignment	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I have no intention of quitting this assignment
IQ2: I plan to search for a new job during the next few months	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I am happy to stay in my current role
IQ3: If I have it my way, I will be working for this client organisation a year from now.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I cannot wait to quit

Q9. Please indicate how you feel about your assignment supervisor in terms of the following statements

PSS1: My supervisor at The Client organisation cares about my opinions	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My supervisor at The Client organisation does not care about my opinions
PSS2: My supervisor at The Client organisation really cares about my wellbeing	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My supervisor at The Client organisation does not care about my wellbeing
PSS3: My supervisor at The Client organisation strongly considers my goals and values	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My supervisor at The Client organisation never considers my goals and values
PSS4: My supervisor at The Client organisation shows little concern about me	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My supervisor at The Client organisation shows great concern about me

Q10. Please indicate how you feel about you're The Client organisation in terms of the following statements:

OE1: Being a part of The Client organisation is fascinating	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Being a part of The Client organisation is completely uninteresting
OE2: One of the most exciting things for me is getting involved with things happening within The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I am not interested in getting involved with things happening within The Client organisation
OE3: I am not interested in the "goings on" at The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The "goings on" at The Client organisation are extremely interesting
OE4: Being assigned to this client organisation makes me "come alive"	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I find being assigned to this client organisation is tedious
OE5: Being assigned to this client organisation is exiting	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Being assigned to this client organisation is boring for me
OE6: I am highly engaged with The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I am not engaged at all with The Client organisation

Q11. Please indicate how you feel about you're The Client organisation in terms of the following statements:

OC1: I would be happy to work for The Client organisation until I retire	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I have no intention of working for The Client organisation any longer than I need to
OC2: Working at The Client organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Working at The Client organisation has no real personal meaning to me
OC3: I feel that problems faced by The Client organisation are also my problems	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Problems faced by The Client organisation are not my problems
OC4: I feel personally attached to my work at The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I do not feel any attachment to my work at The Client organisation
OC5: I am proud to tell others that I am working at this client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I am embarrassed to tell others that I work for this client organisation
OC6: I feel a strong sense of belonging to this client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I feel no sense of belonging to this client organisation

Q12. Please indicate how you feel about the people you work with at The Client organisation in terms of the following statements:

OCBI1: I would willingly give my time to help other employees who have work-related problems at the warehouse	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I would not willingly give my time to help other employees who have work-related problems at the warehouse
OCBI2: I would adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I would not adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off
OCBI3: I would give up my time to help other employees who have work or non-work-related problems	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I would not give up my time to help other employees who have work or non-work related problems
OCBI4: I would willingly assist other employees with their duties	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I would not willingly assist other employees with their duties

Q13. Please indicate how you feel about helping The Client organisation in terms of the following statements:

OCBO1: I would willingly attend events that are not compulsory, but that help the image of The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I would not attend any events that are not compulsory to help the image of The Client organisation
OCBO2: I would be happy to offer ideas to improve the functioning of The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I have no interest in offering ideas to improve the functioning of The Client organisation
OCBO3: I would willingly take action to protect The Client organisation from potential problems	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I would avoid taking action to help protect The Client organisation from potential problems
OCBO4: I would defend The Client organisation when other employees criticise it	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I would not defend The Client organisation when other employees criticise it

Q14. Please indicate how you feel about The Client organisation in terms of the following statements:

POS1: The Client organisation really cares about my wellbeing	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation does not care about my wellbeing
POS2: The Client organisation strongly considers my goals and values	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation does not consider my goals and values
POS3: The Client organisation shows little concern for me	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation shows a real concern for me
POS4: The Client organisation cares about my opinions	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation does not care about my opinions
POS5: The Client organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation would not be prepared to help me if I needed a special favour
POS6: Help is available from The Client organisation when I have a problem	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation would not help me out if I needed a favour
POS7: The Client organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation would not forgive my honest mistake
POS8: Given the opportunity, The Client organisation would take advantage of me	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation would avoid taking advantage of me if given the opportunity

Q15. Please indicate how you feel about how The Client recognises your contribution in terms of the following statements:

RR1: If I work hard, I believe I will receive a pay rise	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	No matter how hard I work I won't receive a pay rise
RR2: I believe working hard will give me job security	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	There is no job security, no matter how hard I work
RR3: No matter how hard I work, I won't get a promotion	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	If I work hard, I will receive a promotion
RR4: Working hard gets you more freedom and opportunities	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Working hard restricts your freedom and opportunities
RR5: Working hard gets you respect from the people you work with	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Working hard does not get you respect
RR6: No matter how hard I work, I won't receive praise from my supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My supervisors will always acknowledge my hard work
RR7: Training and development opportunities happen as a result of hard work	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Hard work does not result in more training and development opportunities
RR8: The harder I work the more challenging my work assignments become	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	No matter how hard I work, my assignments are generally straight forward
RR9: My hard work is rewarded publicly by my employer (e.g. employee of the month, a mention in the company newsletter etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My hard work is not rewarded publicly by my employer
RR10: No matter how hard I work, there's no token of appreciation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Hard work often results in my employer rewarding me with a token of their appreciation

Q16. Please indicate how you feel about fair The Client organisation is in terms of the following statements:

PJ1: I've been able to express my views and feelings about how The Client organisation allocate resources	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I've not had the opportunity to share my views and feelings with The Client organisation about how they allocate resources
PJ2: I've had an influence over the decision-making process and outcomes with The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I've not had any influence over the decision-making process and outcomes with The Client organisation
PJ3: Procedures are fair and consistent at The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Procedures are often unfair and inconsistent at The Client organisation
PJ4: Decisions made by The Client organisation, and which affect me, are made with the input of others	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Decisions made by The Client organisation, and which affect me, are influenced by the views of one person
PJ5: Decisions made by The Client organisation are often based on accurate information	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Decisions made by The Client organisation are not based on accurate information
PJ6: When I think something is unfair, I have the opportunity to challenge it with the supervisors at The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I do not have the opportunity to challenge something that I think is unfair at The Client organisation
PJ7: The Client organisation warehouse rarely abides by good ethical and moral standards	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The Client organisation warehouse consistently abides by good ethical and moral standards

Q17. Please indicate how you feel about the outcomes of your work with The Client organisation is in terms of the following statements:

DJ1: The effort I put into my work is reflected in the outcomes (outcomes could mean satisfactory pay, treatment by management, recognition etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The effort I put into my work is not reflected in the outcomes (outcomes could mean satisfactory pay, treatment by management, recognition etc.)
DJ2: The outcomes reflect the work I have completed at The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The outcomes do not reflect the work I have completed at The Client organisation
DJ3: The outcomes reflect the work I have contributed to The Client organisation	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The outcomes do not reflect the work I have contributed to The Client organisation
DJ4: If I'm honest, the outcomes are accurate given my performance	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	The outcomes are inaccurate and do not reflect my performance

Q18. Please indicate how you feel about your role with The Client organisation is in terms of the following statements:

JC1: I have lots of freedom to make my own decisions about how I go about my work	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I have no freedom to make decisions at work, I am told what to do every step of the way
JC22: From the start to its completion, I get to work on one main piece of work	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	I am one part of an overall piece of work, it's usually finished by others
JC3: There is loads of variety in my job, I get to use lots of my skills and talents	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My job is limited in variety, and I don't get to use many of my skills
JC4: My job is important as it affects the wellbeing of others	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My job is unimportant and has little impact on others
JC5: Managers and colleagues always let me know if I'm doing a good job	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Managers and colleagues never let me know when I'm doing a good job
JC6: My job performance is monitored, and I know how I'm performing	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	My job is not monitored to measure my performance, I'm not sure how I'm performing.

Appendix B: Analysis of the results of previous studies on employee engagement

Citation	Focus of the Study	Methods	Hypotheses	Results
Saks (2006).	<p>Antecedents: job characteristics (JC); perceived organisational support (POS); perceived supervisor support (PSS); reward & recognition (R&R); procedural justice (PJ); distributive justice (DJ). Mediators: Job Engagement (JE) and organisation engagement (OE) and how these impact the outcomes of Job Satisfaction (JS); organisational commitment (OC), intention to quit (ITQ), organisational citizenship behaviour in terms of the individual (OCBI) and the organisation (OCBO)</p>	<p>Self-report survey</p> <p>Analysis: Multiple Regression</p> <p>Saks (2006) 5-item scale of Job engagement</p> <p>Saks (2006) 6-item scale of organisation engagement</p>	<p>H1. Job characteristics will be positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>H2. Rewards and recognition will be positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>H3. Perceived organisational support (POS) will be positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>H4. Perceived supervisor support (PSS) will be positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>H5. Perceptions of procedural justice will be positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>H6. Perceptions of distributive justice will be positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>H7. Job engagement will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, and (c) organisational citizenship behaviour, and negatively related to (d) intention to quit.</p> <p>H8. Organisation engagement will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, and (c) organisational citizenship behaviour, and negatively related to (d) intention to quit</p>	<p>P value significance rated at <0.10 in article + Relationship between POS and Job Engagement + Relationship between POS and Organisation Engagement</p> <p>POS was the only significant antecedent of both Job Engagement and Organisation Engagement.</p> <p>Reporting Results $p < 0.05$ as significant</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job and organisation engagement found to be significantly different constructs. • Antecedents are related to both job and organisation engagement • Both job and organisation engagement are positively related to the outcomes. • Regression of Antecedents showed JC and POS were significant predictors of JE • POS was a significant predictor of OE • Regression of outcomes showed JS positively and significantly influenced by JE • OE positively and significantly influenced ITQ and OCBO
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The only significant antecedent result shared with Saks' research is that of POS on OE. • The outcome results of JE on JS and OE on OCBO were also shared and significant. • Antecedent hypotheses not supported, but reflected in both studies, were JC on OE; PSS on OE; R&R on JE and OE; PJ on JE and OE; DJ on JE and OE. • Outcome hypotheses not supported but shared by both studies were JE on OC and JE on OCBO. • This study found key differences in the results: PSS on JE was supported, but not for Saks. On the outcome results - JE on OCBI; OE on JS, OC, OCBI, OCBO were all supported, but not for Saks. • In permanent workers Saks found JC on JE and POS on JE was supported, these were not supported in the context of TAWs. • The influence of JE on OE was not tested in the Saks study, whereas it was factored into the analysis of this work • It should also be noted that Saks results deemed $p < 0.10$ as significant. Analysis of data reverted to a p value of $p < 0.05$ and therefore only those findings $P < 0.05$ were marked as significant when comparing results. 			
Anaza, & Rutherford (2012a).	How job satisfaction and internal marketing impacts employee patronage, and in-turn, how levels of patronage affect employee engagement.	<p>Self-report survey</p> <p>Analysis: AMOS SEM</p>	<p>H1. IM is positively related to employee patronage.</p> <p>H2. Job satisfaction is positively related to employee patronage.</p> <p>H3. Employee patronage is positively related to employee engagement.</p> <p>H4. Job satisfaction is positively related to employee engagement.</p>	+ relationship between job satisfaction, employee patronage and employee engagement. Job satisfaction and employee patronage moderated the relationships between employee job engagement and internal marketing.

		Saks' (2006) measure of reward and recognition as well his 5-item job engagement scale.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Amos-SEM analysis showed Employee patronage (EP) significantly influences job engagement PSS significantly influences POS (hypothesised control variable) POS significantly influences JS (hypothesised control variable)
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> POS relationship to JS as an indirect effect in this thesis was significant We found that job satisfaction is an outcome of positive employee engagement rather than the other way around. This article only used part of Saks' scale (job engagement) 			
Anaza, & Rutherford (2012b),	Employee-customer identification and job engagement.	Self-report survey Analysis: AMOS SEM Saks' (2006) 5-item job engagement scale	H1. Employees who strongly identify with their organisations will display greater job engagement. H2. Employees who strongly identify with their customers will display greater job engagement. H3. Employees who strongly identify with their organisation will display greater employee-customer identification. H4. Employees who are high on customer orientation will display greater job engagement. H5. Employees who strongly identify with their organisation will display greater customer orientation.	-no direct association between organisational identification and job engagement. However, employee-customer identity showed a positive interaction with engagement. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Through Amos-SEM analysis direct effects showed employee-customer identification is directly and significantly related to positive job engagement. Organisational identification has an indirect significant influence on job engagement
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Only part of Saks scale was used in this article (job engagement) Focus on organisational identity, not factored in this thesis however it is an interesting construct in the context of TAWs and may warrant further investigation or as an addition to the model. 			
Bhatnagar & Biswas (2012).	Psychological contracts (PC), Organisational Commitment (OC), Employee Engagement (EE), Procedural Justice (PJ), Perceived organisational support (POS) and Person-Organisational fit (P-O fit)	Self-report survey Analysis: AMOS SEM Saks (2006) 11 item combined scale of job and organisation engagement	Hypothesis 1: Employees who perceive procedural justice will exhibit a positive psychological contract. Hypothesis 2: Employees who experience perceived organisational support will exhibit a positive psychological contract. Hypothesis 3: Employees who experience higher person-organisation fit will experience positive psychological contract. Hypothesis 4: Psychological contract shall predict employee's level of engagement. Hypothesis 5: Psychological contract shall predict employee's level of organisational commitment. Hypothesis 6: Psychological contract will emerge as a mediator between procedural justice, perceived organisational support, person-organisation fit and employee engagement and organisational commitment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Two models tested 1. PJ, POS and P-O fit and their influence on Engagement. Model 2 – PJ, POS and P-O fit on Organisational commitment (OC). Job engagement and organisation engagement measures not reported as separate constructs in this research. PJ + POS + P-O fit leads to higher EE and OC but only when the PC is positive.

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PJ, POS and P-O fit shown to be antecedents of PC • EE and OC shown to be outcomes of PC • Findings support Cropanzano & Wright (2001) and Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) • Supports for PJ linkages to PC but is also independent of organisational justice.
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full multidimensional scale used but not split between JE and OE • Full multidimensional scale used in this article, however the constructs of job and organisation engagement were not split but rather used as a whole. • A shared result partially supported: POS on OE but not JE. • PJ is not supported on JE or OE in this thesis • In terms of outcomes, A shared result partially supported JE on OC is not supported, however OE on OC is significant. 			
Biswas & Bhatnagar (2013)	<p>Perceived organisational support (POS) and Person-Organisation Fit (P-O Fit)</p> <p>Organisational Commitment (OC) and Job Satisfaction (JS)</p>	<p>Self-report survey</p> <p>Analysis: AMOS SEM</p> <p>Saks (2006) 11 item combined scale of job and organisation engagement</p>	<p>Hypothesis 1: POS will be positively related to employee engagement.</p> <p>Hypothesis 2: Employees who experience stronger P-O fit vis-à-vis their organisation will display higher levels of engagement.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3: Employees who are effectively engaged will exhibit a higher level of commitment towards their organisation.</p> <p>Hypothesis 4: Employee engagement shall have a significantly positive influence on an employee's level of job satisfaction</p> <p>Hypothesis 5: Employee engagement will mediate positive relationships of POS and P-O fit with organisational commitment and job satisfaction.</p>	<p>Examined the antecedents of POS and P-O fit on Employee Engagement and the outcomes of OC and JS.</p> <p>+ significant association between POS and P-O fit and employee engagement</p> <p>+ Employee engagement is positively and significantly associated with OC and JS.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mediator results showed that EE is fully mediating the outcomes. • POS through EE to OC 50.44% of explained mediation and is significant • POS through EE to JS accounts for %37.30 of the mediation and is also significant.
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full multidimensional scale used but not split between JE and OE • Shared results show POS has a significant positive influence on employee engagement • Partially supported: Employee engagement has a positive influence on OC – this is only shown for OE in our study • Fully supported and shared is the positive and significant influence on both JE and OE on JS • OE fully mediated the outcomes in our study, but JE did not. 			
Biswas, Varma, Ramaswami & Linking 2013,	<p>The relationships between distributive justice (DJ), procedural justice (PJ) and employee engagement (EE) through social exchange.</p>	<p>Self-report survey</p> <p>Analysis: AMOS SEM</p>	<p>Hypothesis 1: Distributive justice is positively related to POS.</p> <p>Hypothesis 2: Procedural justice is positively related to POS.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3: Procedural justice is positively related to psychological contract.</p> <p>Hypothesis 4: POS is positively related to employee engagement.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5: Psychological contract is positively related to employee engagement.</p>	<p>Research model examined DJ and PJ on POS and PC and the outcome on EE.</p> <p>Job engagement and organisation engagement measures not reported as separate constructs in this research.</p>

	Perceived organisational support (POS) was used as the mediator along with the psychological contract (PC).	Saks (2006) 11 item combined scale of job and organisation engagement	Hypothesis 6a: POS mediates the relationship between distributive justice and employee engagement. Hypothesis 6b: POS mediates the relationship between procedural justice and employee engagement. Hypothesis 6c: Psychological contract mediates the relationship between procedural justice and employee engagement.	+ association between POS and psychological contract and employee engagement. POS and psychological contract fully mediated the relationship between PJ and employee engagement. POS showed fully mediated the relationship between DJ and employee engagement. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> DJ, through POS significantly influenced EE, therefore POS is a full mediator PJ through POS significantly influenced EE, therefore POS is a full mediator PJ through PC significantly influenced EE, therefore PC is full mediator
Stats Reported	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Full multidimensional scale used but not split between JE and OE constructs POS as a mediator was not examined in this thesis, however it's influence on OE is significant (but not JE) so in this case not fully mediated. DJ and PJ are not supported or significant 			
Citation	Focus of the Study	Methods	Hypotheses	Results
Juhdi, Pa'wan & Hansaram (2013)	Investigated the mediating effects of organisational engagement and organisational commitment against HR practices (career management, appraisal, compensation, selection)	Saks (2006) 5 item scale of organisation engagement Self-report survey Analysis: Multiple linear regression as well as Hierarchical regression analyses to test the mediating effect of organisational commitment	Conceptual work : The study aimed to determine the degree of distinctiveness between the factors that influence OC and EE using factor analysis.	+ association found between HR practices and organisation engagement Career engagement is the strongest predictor of organisational engagement. Organisation engagement is negatively associated with turnover intention
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Only OE used and not the full multidimensional scale of EE OE negatively associated to ITQ, same was found in the early analysis of this study however low reliability scores determined it be removed. ITQ items were three items from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1979), whereas this thesis used a three item scale by Colarelli (1984) to replicate Saks. 			
Malinen, Wright & Cammock (2013).	Perceptions of trust and fairness (procedural justice) from an employee's perspective towards senior management in the professional services of a public organisation	Longitudinal study Saks (2006) 5 item scale of organisation engagement Correlation & regression Exploratory factor analysis	Exploratory: the purpose of this study was to determine the influence of employee trust in the SMT and justice perceptions on organisational engagement. We also investigated whether organisational engagement mediated the relationship between trust and justice perceptions on attitudes towards leaving the organisation (turnover intention).	Employees from the professional services of a public organisation Twelve months on, findings showed that trust and perceptions of procedural justice (PJ) were a strong predictor of organisation engagement (OE) Perceptions of procedural justice, trust and withdrawal attitudes were partially mediated by organisation engagement. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> DJ has a significant correlation to PJ

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> OE is significantly correlated with Trust, PJ, and DJ ITQ is negatively and significantly correlated with PJ, DJ and OE
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Only OE scales used OE partially mediated PJ OE significantly related to PJ in this article, however PJ is an antecedent to OE in this thesis and is not supported as a significant relationship ITQ as an outcome is negatively influenced by OE, this was also the initial finding in the measurement model. However, further reliability and validity tests showed it fell below satisfactory levels and was omitted from the structural model. Withdrawal attitudes measure was a version of an ITQ three item scale by Landau and Hammer's (1986). 			
Mahon, Taylor & Boyatzis (2014)	Examined possible antecedents to organisation engagement (OE) including perceptions of shared positive mood, shared personal vision, emotional intelligence and perceived organisational support (POS)	Self-report Questionnaire Saks (2006) 5 item scale of organisation engagement AMOS SEM analysis	Hypothesis 1 Shared personal vision positively associates with organisational engagement. Hypothesis 2 Shared positive mood positively associates with organisational engagement. Hypothesis 3 Perceived organisational support positively associates with organisational engagement. Hypothesis 4 Emotional intelligence positively increases the association of personal shared vision on organisational engagement. Hypothesis 5 Emotional intelligence positively increases the association of shared positive mood on organisational engagement. Hypothesis 6 Emotional intelligence positively increases the association of POS on organisational engagement.	Shared positive mood, shared personal vision and perceived organisational support had a direct positive relationship with organisation engagement. Furthermore, POS and shared vision interacted with emotional intelligence to positively influence engagement.
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Only OE was used as the engagement measure in this article POS had a direct positive relationship with OE this is also reflected in our study. 			
Citation	Focus of the Study	Methods	Hypotheses	Results
Farndale, Beijer, Van Veldhoven, Kelliher & Hope-Hailey (2014).	examined the discriminant validity of organisation and work engagement as well as the nomological network related to each	Self-report Questionnaire Analysis: Multiple regression analysis The survey used three items from Saks' (2006) 6-item measure of organisation engagement along with two new items developed to align with definitions of work engagement and align the dedication aspect of the scale.	H1a. Work engagement is positively associated with affective commitment. H1b. Organisation engagement is positively associated with affective commitment. H1c. Work engagement has a weaker association with affective commitment than organisation engagement has. H2a. Work engagement is negatively associated with continuance commitment. H2b. Organisation engagement is negatively associated with continuance commitment. H2c. Work engagement has a weaker association with continuance commitment than organisation engagement has. H3a. Work engagement is positively associated with active learning. H3b. Organisation engagement is positively associated with active learning. H3c. Work engagement has a stronger association with active learning than organisation engagement has. H4a. Work engagement is positively associated with initiative. H4b. Organisation engagement is positively associated with initiative. H4c. Work engagement has a stronger association with initiative than organisation engagement has.	Organisation and work engagement found to be distinct constructs Both constructs have significant and yet differing degrees of relationships with perceived organisational performance (POP) and the consequences of job satisfaction (JS), affective commitment (AC), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCBO), active learning (AL) and initiative. Organisational engagement (OE) was a stronger predictor of job satisfaction (JS) and affective commitment (AC), whereas work engagement (WE) was a stronger predictor of active learning (AL). <ul style="list-style-type: none"> OE has as positive and significant relationship with affective commitment (AC), active learning

			<p>H5a. Work engagement is positively associated with OCBO. H5b. Organisation engagement is positively associated with OCBO. H5c. Work engagement has a weaker association with OCBO than organisation engagement has.</p> <p>H6a. Work engagement is positively associated with job satisfaction. H6b. Organisation engagement is positively associated with job satisfaction. H6c. Work engagement has a stronger association with job satisfaction than organisation engagement has.</p> <p>H7a. Work engagement is positively associated with perceived organisation performance. H7b. Organisation engagement is positively associated with perceived organisation performance. H7c. Work engagement has a weaker association with perceived organisation performance than organisation engagement has.</p>	<p>(AL), initiative, OCBO, job satisfaction (JS) and organisation performance (POP).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> On examining the strength of relationships with important work outcomes for both work engagement (WE) and organisation engagement (OE). OE has the strongest relationship with affective commitment, active learning and job satisfaction
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This study used 3 items from Saks' 6 item OE measure. OE was shown to have a positive significant influence on OC, JS and OCBO - the same outcome was shown in this thesis OE had the strongest relationship with the outcomes of OC, JS and OCBO when compared to a work engagement measure used (not Saks). The same was found in this analysis and JE. 			
Akingbola & van den Berg (2019).	<p>how job engagement (JE) and organisation engagement (OE) affect behavioural outcomes of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCBO), organisational commitment (OC), job satisfaction (JS) in non-profit organisations. Job characteristics (JC), value congruence and rewards and recognition (R&R) identified as antecedents to organisational engagement and job engagement for non-profit organisations.</p>	<p>Saks (2006) 11 item combined scale of job and organisation engagement</p> <p>Two other antecedents of engagement, job characteristics, and rewards and recognition were measured with scales from Saks (2006). Job characteristics with a six-item scale that Saks adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1980). The items included a core job characteristic of autonomy, task identity, skill variety, task significance, feedback from others, and feedback from the job (Saks, 2006). Rewards and recognition were measured with a 10-item scale that asked participants about the different indicators of rewards and recognition that they receive when they perform their jobs (Saks, 2006).</p> <p>Multiple regression analysis</p>	<p>Hypothesis 1 (H1): Value congruence is positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>Hypothesis 2 (H2): Job characteristics are positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3 (H3): Rewards and recognition is positively related to (a) job engagement and (b) organisation engagement.</p> <p>Hypothesis 4 (H4): Job engagement is positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) commitment, (c) organisational citizenship behaviour—individual, (d) organisational citizenship behaviour—organisation, and (e) will be negatively related to intention to quit.</p> <p>Hypothesis 5 (H5): Organisation engagement is positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) commitment, (c) organisational citizenship behaviour—individual, (d) organisational citizenship behaviour—organisation, and (e) will be negatively related to intention to quit.</p> <p>Hypothesis 6 (H6): Job engagement and organisation engagement mediate the relationship between the antecedents and the outcomes.</p>	<p>Model comprised on the antecedents of value congruence (VC), JC and R&R. Job engagement and organisation engagement were mediators. The outcomes of JS, OC, ITQ, OCBI and OCBO were included.</p> <p>Significant variance of job and organisation engagement.</p> <p>Job engagement and OCBO were significantly related.</p> <p>However, OCBI was not significantly and positively related to organisation engagement.</p> <p>No significant relationship between the antecedent of reward and recognition and job engagement, but also job engagement and the outcome of job satisfaction.</p> <p>No support for the relationship between job engagement and intention to quit.</p> <p>Hypotheses strongly supported were VC →JE; VC →OE; R&R →OE; JE →OCBI; OE →OC; OE →OCBO; OE →ITQ.</p> <p>No support for R&R →JE; JE →JS; JE →ITQ; OE →OCBI.</p> <p>The rest had limited support.</p>

				<p>For H6 neither job nor organisation engagement mediated the relationship between JC and OCBO. Only JE mediated the three OCBI outcomes. OE mediates the remaining 11 relationships.</p> <p>While indirect effect mediation through OE was statistically in many of the models, the indirect effect through JE was significant for OCBI</p>
Comparison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • JE and OE shown to be different constructs in their own right – the same has been shown on our study. • OE and OCBI were not significant in this study, but is significant in this thesis • No support for R&R on JE in this study, this is reflected in this thesis • No support for JE significantly influencing JS – whereas this thesis supports a significant finding • Support for a significant influence of R&R on OE in this article, this is not the case for our analysis – it was not supported (POS was the standout influence for this thesis) • JE had a positive and significant influence on OCBI in this study, this was also the case in this thesis • OE had a significant positive influence on OC and OCBO – this was also the same findings in our study. 			

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