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Engagement Level of Migrants' vs New Zealand Local Employees: A comparative study

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Abstract

The management literature is replete with studies examining the antecedents and outcomes of work engagement. Despite this wide empirical evidence, we understand a little of how these factors work on work engagement with migrant employees. Many western economies have seen a rapid increase in migrants and New Zealand; the setting of the present study, is no different. This provides a useful context to understand whether factors predicting work engagement, or the influence of work engagement on outcomes, is similar or distinct for minority employees. Given the potential methodological issues around quantitative surveys, I conducted two studies to improve generalisability. Study one had a large sample of New Zealand employees (n=870) of which a good size (n=345) self-identified as migrants. Study two had time separated data (independent and dependent variables collected one month apart) and had a sample size of n=302, with n=122 being migrants. Study one focused on a wide range of antecedents (e.g., ethical leadership, organisation-based self-esteem, psychological contract breech, psychological contract violation, and work-life balance). It also focused on two well-being outcomes: anxiety and depression. Study two focused on fewer antecedents (e.g., perceived organisational support and work-life balance only) but more outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions, career satisfaction, positive affect, happiness, and job stress). Each study used migrant status as a moderator to explore potential differences between New Zealand born employees and migrants.

The findings from study one showed overall solid support for antecedents of work engagement and subsequent consequences. Largely, these effects are similar for migrant workers at levels similar to New Zealand workers. However, some statistically significant differences were found. In study one, migrant status had no significant direct effects towards engagement. However, a number of significant two-way moderating effects were found from migrant status, often being beneficial at low levels of the predictors (e.g.,

ethical leadership, organisation-based self-esteem, psychological contract breach, and psychological contract violations), but being less beneficial at high levels. Significant moderated mediation effects showed that migrant status appears to be a worthwhile boundary condition to explore. Finally, only one two-way interaction effect was found between migrant status and dedication towards depression.

Study two findings included not only migrant status but also migrant time in New Zealand, to see whether this had a distinct effect. Overall, neither migrant status nor the length of time in New Zealand had any interaction effects towards work engagement dimensions. Similarly, when it came to consequences, there were no significant moderating effects towards turnover intentions, indicating employees born in New Zealand or migrants had similar effects from work engagement. But there were a number of effects towards career satisfaction, indicating greater benefits from engagement for migrants than New Zealand locals. There were similar effects towards positive affect although not towards happiness or job stress.

Overall, the two studies provided new insights essentially supporting that migrant workers may have different benefits and effects from work engagement. While antecedents seem to be largely disadvantageous in study one, the influence of engagement on outcomes were very positive and enhancing for migrants. Fundamentally, this supports the notion that migrants might report better consequences from engagement. The implications for human resources are discussed.

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Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Aim

The aim of this thesis is to explore the differences (if any) between the engagement levels of New Zealand born and migrant employees. Do workplace factors shape engagement similarly or differently for migrants? Does engagement shape consequences differently for migrant workers? This chapter entails the background, focus and significance of the thesis.

1.2. Background

Work engagement is simply defined as positive state of mind, and one of the extensively research management areas of the current times (Bakker, 2015). Kahn (1990) inaugurated the concept of work engagement and introduced the world to the conceptual framework of this concept. Since, its conception the concept has evolved while Parker and Griffin (2011) argued that work engagement *"taps into a rich and diverse history of ideas about the meaning of work"* (p.61). Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) established a precise connection between profits and engagement and since then engagement has been a piece of great interest to the organisation. Further, research has provided evidence that engaged employees perform better (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011), do not intend to leave the organisation (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and demonstrate higher organisational commitment (Marisa Salanova, Del Líbano, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2014).

Immigration has long been part of New Zealand history. New Zealand has gained the reputation of *"a nation of immigration"* (Salahshour, 2016), with immigrants coming to this country to study, work and live permanently (Salahshour, 2016). Immigrants have been supplementing the New Zealand workforce as the government allows (Clydesdale, 2011). New Zealand has higher inflow and outflow of people than most of the OECD countries while Auckland is ranked fourth most diverse city in the world (Pio, 2016).

1.3. Focus of the thesis

It is widely understood that work engagement is of vital importance to New Zealand organisations. However, given the growing migrant workforce population, this study looks to determine whether the engagement levels of migrant employees are similar or different to New Zealand employees. Specifically, what are the antecedents and outcomes of engagement, and do they differ between migrants and New Zealand employees? Furthermore, given research findings from New Zealand which show differences in influence from work factors towards outcomes, like retention and performance (e.g., Haar & Brougham, 2016) with regard to Maori versus Pakeha employees, this study will also explore the *influence* of engagement on other work outcomes between migrants and New Zealand employees. Thus, engagement might influence performance but be significantly stronger for migrants, because they have greater appreciation for their work compared to (say) their home country.

1.4. Rationale and Significance of the study

It has been suggested by some writers that it is difficult for foreign employees to manage their stress in the absence of adequate social mechanisms (Yao, Thorn, Duan, & Taskin, 2015). Employees will engage more when they have psychological meaningfulness in their work. Catteeuw, Flynn, and Vonderhorst (2007) suggested in their research that engaged employees are likely to be more productive than disengaged employees. Morgan and Finniear (2009) concluded in their research that there is potential where migrant workers can be treated differently in terms of recruitment, training, and deployment. The research also found many workers were fiercely loyal to their employers. Haar and Brougham (2016) concluded in their research that organisational based self-esteem has a greater influence on job outcomes and mood outcomes for New Zealand Maori compared with New Zealand Europeans. They suggested this reflects

the difference in centrality around work, with Maori having much higher unemployment rates (Haar & Brougham, 2016).

Recently, local workers versus migrant workers have received a lot of attention in the New Zealand media. Some employers have claimed migrant workers are better than the local workers (Fisher, 2020; Newshub, 2017). Others have noted that some migrant workers are being exploited with poor work conditions and below the legal minimum pay (Fuatai, 2017; Hurley, 2020). There is not enough research available to justify the claim whether migrant workers are better employees than New Zealand workers – or vice-versa. What is needed is empirical evidence.

This study will attempt to understand if there are any differences in the engagement levels of migrant employees and New Zealand employees, given that New Zealand is an immigrant-receiving country. For example, annual net migration has accounted for more than 40 per cent of the total population growth from 1973 to 1975, 1995 to 1997, and 2002 to 2004 (Maani & Chen, 2012).

1.5. Structure of the study

The structure of this thesis begins with a review of the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory which is later utilised to understand the differences in the engagement level of employees. This is followed by the chapter three, work engagement; this chapter covers the literature review of work engagement from practitioner and academia perspectives. Next chapter is immigration which entails a world view on immigration and migration, then the focus shifts to New Zealand and its history in terms of immigration. This is then, followed by a chapter on theoretical research model. This chapter includes the details on the antecedents used for the data collection. Hypotheses are supported by the literature on ethical leadership, perceived organisational support, psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation and work-life balance.

Thereafter, research design and methods utilised in the study are outlined. Findings and analysis are elaborated in this chapter. The last chapter is discussion, it also sheds light on the strengths and limitations of the study.

The overall objective of this thesis is to compare the engagement level of migrant and NZ born employees. This thesis explores if there are any differences among the engagement levels of these employees. The data in this thesis is (N= 870 (study 1) and N=305 (study 2) from wide range of migrants dominated by Asians, Europeans, and Indians. The findings of this study contribute towards the literature in the migrant work engagement space.

Chapter Two: Theoretical Approach

2.1. Conservation of Resources Theory (COR)

2.1.1. Introduction to COR theory

Hobfoll (1989) presented a new stress model aimed to bridge the gap between *environmental and cognitive viewpoints*. The COR is based on the doctrine that *"individuals strive to obtain, retain, foster and protect those things they centrally value"* for their success (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018, p. 104). The COR theory suggests that individuals' "cognitions have an evolutionary based built in and powerful bias to overweight resource loss and underweight resource gain" (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 104). Hence, COR theory is a motivational theory that explains human behaviours based on need to gain the required and conserve these resources for day-to-day survival. COR theory has been well used to explain a number of employee experiences in the workplace including team experiences and individual well-being (Haar & Brougham, 2020) and the role of workplace support on employee outcomes (Ollier-Malaterre, Haar, Sunyer, & Russo, 2020).

The role of resources is the foundation of COR theory. Within COR theory, resources are described as anything that can help individual to achieve their goals (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). The resources may be positive or negative in nature. So, a supportive supervisor has a positive effect and is a resource gain (e.g., Haar et al., 2017), while conflicts between work and home are detrimental and reflect a resource loss (e.g., Haar, 2013). Regardless of whether it is a gain or drain, if it contributes to attain goal, it is a resource. Hobfoll (1989) identified four types of key resources. They are:

1. O*bject resources* are physical resources that have value due to their physical nature like home, car.

2. *Condition* resources are the ones that are valued and sought-after like employment, seniority.

3. *Personal characteristics* are the resources that help in managing stress like self-efficacy, optimism.

4. *Energies* are a resource that includes time, money, and knowledge; on its own energies do not have a great value. However, energies aid individuals to acquire other resources (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018).

COR theory posits, that stress occurs (i) when resources are vulnerable to loss, (ii) when resources are lost, and/or (iii) when resources are not gained despite significant effort. The key resources are employed not only to manage stress, but also to build a reservoir to meet future needs. Hobfoll (1989) stated stress occurs when if there is actual or perceived loss of resources. An accurate assessment of resources motivates individuals to strive for better resources and deploy means to avoid any loss of resources (LePine, Zhang, Crawford, & Rich, 2016).

2.1.2. Principles of conservation of resource theory

COR theory has four principles. The first principle states that resource loss is disproportionately significant than resource gain. Humans tend to tie even the small losses to failure to survive. As a result, the impact of resource loss in comparison to resource again not only felt sharply but also it affects people more rapidly and at increasing speed over time. Hence, resource losses can be critical and more so than an equal number of resources gained by comparison.

The second principle is resource investment, which stipulates that to protect against resource loss people must invest in resources. In order to gain more resources or recover from losses, individuals need to establish coping strategies, which may include (i) replacement of the resources lost, (ii) indirect investment of resources. For example,

Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) demonstrated, while emotional exhaustion led to poor job performance, by investing more in organisational citizenship behaviour directed to their supervisor and co-workers, employees can not only slow the resource loss but can gain some short-term resources. Thus, employees can seek out opportunities to replace lost resources or invest in more resources.

The third principle is *paradoxical* and states resource gain is more important when resource loss is imminent. Thus, acquiring new resources becomes more important when an individual faces a situation of resource loss. Due to the situation, the individual might be more engaged and gain momentum and strength to acquire more resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

The fourth principle is called the *desperation* principle, which states individuals might become irrational and defensive when their resources are outstretched and exhausted. This type of behaviour aimed to self-preserve (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In the defensive mode, individuals might develop new coping mechanisms and develop abilities to retain current resources without additional resource loss. In this stage, individuals might regroup seek help to wait for the stressor to pass (Hobfoll, 2011b).

2.1.3. Corollaries of Conservation of resources theory

COR theory also proposed a few corollaries that help in making specific, complex and multifaceted predictions (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In addition, these corollaries can enable people to develop strategies to deal with stressful situations at different levels (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

The first corollary states that vulnerability and resilience are developed via resource possession and the lack of resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). People with more resources are well positioned to invest in resources, linking this corollary to principle two. Conversely, people with low resources are more susceptible to resource loss and unable to resource gain (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll et al., 2018).

The second corollary states that resource loss is spiral in nature. It becomes increasingly difficult to invest in resources while losing resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). As resource loss is more powerful than resource gain, it causes a stress spiral or loss spiral. This spiral causes losses to gain momentum and impact. The organisations are unable to offset the resources losses due to the inability to invest in more resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Hence, this is referred to as losses beget losses. Hence, it can spiral downwards with employees suffering an initial loss of resources further losing resources and thus ultimately, weakening their position.

The third corollary states the resource gain is also spiral in nature. Although, the resource gain spirals are weak and sluggish. This is because the resource gain spirals are less powerful than resource loss spirals (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Resource gains are undertaken by the organisation to counteract the loses and build more resources. Here we have gains beget gains, although Hobfoll et al. (2018) do note that such gain spirals are likely to be less powerful and impactful compared to loss spirals.

2.1.4. Resource Caravans and Resource Caravan Passageways

COR theory has attempted to explain how the process of gaining and losing resources work. The role of environment in creating the fertile or infertile ground to develop creation, maintenance, and limitation of resources is pivotal (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Hobfoll et al. (2018) suggested that resources do not work in isolation; instead, they are contingent on the organisational ecological environment. This existence of work and organisational settings where the resources interact and work with each other is labelled as resource caravan approach (Hobfoll, 2011a). For instance, self-esteem, self-efficacy and optimism develop from environmental conditions and are highly correlated (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Ghafoor and Haar (2020) used COR theory to test the combined effects of a

psychological factor (organisational-based self-esteem) as well as a work factor (meaningful work) and an environmental factor (supervisor support).

Ghafoor and Haar (2020) stated "that resources flourish and grow in supportive ecological environment where they prevail in groups and, hence, provide individuals with more resources" (p. 12). Thus, COR theory is useful – especially the resource caravan approach – for testing the effects of multiple factors on employee outcomes. They suggest that the resource caravan approach is also more reflective of the reality of workers, including considering their dispositional factors, organisational factors, and work attitudes all together.

The resources exist in an ecological environment that either foster and nurture them or limit and block their creation and existence (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In order to achieve their goals, organisations are required to offer a shared marketplace of resources and enable the internal transaction of resources. For example, providing strong organisational support, allowing employees to share ideas freely etc., are two examples of aspects of caravan creating concepts (Hobfoll, 2011a). Organisation scholars typically emphasise at the individual level but tend to ignore the broader role of organisation culture in the roles it can play in creating resource caravan passageways (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Consequently, studies that focus on individual outcomes need to also consider the effect of environment factors in the development of stress, productivity outcomes, and other employee outcomes including engagement and well-being. Environment factors influence the ability of an individual either to create or lose resources as they grow.

2.1.5. The crossover model under COR

Finally, crossover is an interpersonal process that happens when the job stress and psychological strain experienced by one person affects the level of stress and strain of another person in the same environment (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington,

1989). For instance, having a bad day at work means the partner can come home grumpy and begin an argument with their spouse. This may reflect no action of the spouse, just the crossover of emotions (here, bad emotions). Alternatively, having a bad and stressful day at work would leave an employee drained of resources and this application of the theory means their spouse or family member might bear the brunt of displeasure at home. For example, being exhausted from work and then not cooking dinner – especially if 'their turn to cook' – leaving their spouse feeling neglected and let-down. The crossover model adds an inter-individual analysis by expanding the focus to dyads, teams and organisations (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Thus, these effects can also be felt by co-workers or team members, or other organisational members such as immediate supervisors.

There are three ways to describe crossover effects. Direct crossovers are transfers of feelings, experiences, and resources via empathy among partners. Indirect crossovers have interventions like social support and social undermining. If a partner expresses his/her stress by undermining other now the other partner is stressed due to be undermined. While spurious crossover effects have shared stressors, which lead to common issues. For instance, economic hardship causing stress and anxiety to both partners (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Westman (2001) expanded on crossover model and noted that crossover mechanism is equally applicable to positive and negative crossover. Whilst the strain in one partner prompts the stress in another, similarly, positive work experiences can be beneficial. For example, work engagement by one partner can prompt engagement in the other. Indirect positive crossover can happen, with the resource increase of one person at work can contribute to well-being of both partners. Flexible work arrangements are a good example of spurious positive crossover, as all workers are exposed to same level of resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

2.1.6. COR Summary

Overall, COR is a stress theory which focuses on how humans are motivated to protect their current resources and gain new ones. According to this theory stress occurs, when key resources are lost or threatened to be lost, and when additional resources are not gained despite significant efforts. This stress ultimately affects the performance of an employee in an organisation.

Chapter Three: Engagement

The aim of this chapter is to describe the conceptual framework of engagement. The literature review will explore the evolution of engagement as a concept. This chapter has three parts. In part one, engagement as a concept is explored, also the evolution of this concept in the past three decades is examined along with its antecedents and outcomes. Engagement will be explored distinctly from practitioner and the academia perspective as these approaches vary widely.

3.1. Engagement: History

The term employee engagement appears a relatively new concept, but it goes back to over 30 years when the term appeared for the first time in the academic journals in the year 1990 (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). In the period of 70s and 80s, the focus for Human Resource Departments was employee satisfaction only. This concept had no connection with the quality of services delivered by the employees and even with the performance of an individual employee (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). This concept only considers an employee and its connection with the firm and not about the organisation as a whole, until this period an employee was just considered as 'personnel'. With the advancements in the engagement concept, the focus shifted from satisfaction towards commitment and at that moment the 'personnel' actually became 'human resources' (Endres & Mancheno-Smoak, 2008). It was argued that the employee would be loyal and committed towards an organisation in return of the job offered. Although commitment is a crucial element of engagement, however, it cannot replace engagement (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Thus, for some researchers, engagement is a distinct concept from commitment.

As the global competition increased at a rapid pace, there was a requirement for the employers to become more flexible and competitive (MacLeod & Clarke, 2009). The traditional industries were closing, and employees were cut back, at that moment the

people realised that they need to be more flexible in their career choices and grab the opportunities wherever they find them (Barber, 1999). The old contract of '*job for life*' was broken and people were free to explore and move from job to job. This was benefitting the employees, but the employers were losing their top talents and along with that a good amount of money and crucial resources of the company (Sharma & Kaur, 2014). This is through the costs of recruitment and selection and getting new workers up to speed to equate with the person they replaced.

In the midst of all these events the concept of employee engagement rose and an important act in this period was the publication of a paper in Institute of Employment Studies (IES) titled, *From People to Profits, the HR link to the service-profit chain* (Barber, 1999). This paper emphasised, with the improved behaviour and attitude of the employees at the workplace, there could be an enhancement in the customer satisfaction and retention level and at the same time in the overall sales performance. For the service-based businesses, the old mantra 'Staff is your greatest asset' was demolished and a new one 'Staff is your only asset' was adopted (Barber, 1999). As a result, leaders began to invest greater assets in the incentives of the staff and as a result, there was a drastic increase in the level of the employee commitment, motivation, productivity and eventually the profit rates of the firm (Sharma & Kaur, 2014).

There was acceleration in the adoption of the concept of employee engagement by the firms as another significant study was conducted in the year 2002 by (Harter et al., 2002) which showed a precise link between the employee engagement and the profit rates of the firm. The concept that was introduced back in 1990 was confined only to the academic level, but now this new concept of employee engagement was applied at the practitioner level (Cain, Tanford, & Shulga, 2018). Thus, organisational leaders began to observe that this concept has a capability to affect a number of business measures like

employee recruitment and retention, sales, profits, turnover, customer satisfaction and so on (Cain et al., 2018; Harter et al., 2002).

There has been a drastic evolution in the concept of employee engagement. Three decades ago, when this concept gained popularity, then the focus shifted on overall satisfaction of the employees as the employers had a belief that satisfied employees deliver better services than the unsatisfied ones (Albrecht, 2010). But the employee satisfaction process did not work out which forced the employers to adopt employee commitment. This was introduced to improve staff loyalty to reduce employee turnover. This also failed during the economic crisis as the employers had to lay off employees who in turn started looking for better opportunities instead of sticking to the firm due to loyalty (Vance, 2006). Finally, came the concept of employee engagement through which the employers discovered that the employees were more productive, loyal, satisfied, and efficient if they felt legitimately connected to the company. With the introduction of this concept the employees started to provide the best possible services to the firm (Vance, 2006).

3.2. Engagement: Practitioner Perspective

The Gallup organisation in the US is deemed as the first organisation to use the term 'engagement' and shortly after it was the favourite term among consultants (Schaufeli, 2012). As such, employee engagement and the associations to employee productivity became hot topics within organisations (Endres & Mancheno-Smoak, 2008) and this continues through to today. Gallup defined engaged employees as being passionate and having a profound relationship with the organisation. Specifically, Harter et al. (2002) defined worker engagement as "the individual's involvement and satisfaction with, as well as enthusiasm for, work" (p. 269). Regarding their own specific form of engagement, The Gallup Engagement is defined as, "how each individual employee

connects with his or her company and how each individual employee connects with their customers" (p. 12) (Lucey, Bateman, & Hines, 2005).

Development dimensions international DDI (2005) used the definition "The extent to which people value, enjoy, and believe in what they do" (p.1). DDI also aligns this measure with employee satisfaction and loyalty. The Institute for Employment Studies (Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004) defines engagement merely as a positive attitude of the employee towards the organisation and its values. Gallup's website states: "Engaged employees are those who work with passion and feel a profound connection to their company".

An engaged employee is conscious of the business environment and works with other employees to perform better for the organisation. Towers Perrin's Global Workforce Study (2005) defines engagement as employees' willingness and ability to support their company to succeed. The Global workforce study (2005) shows that there is not one recipe for improving work engagement.

Furthermore, Interactive Business Inclusion Solutions (IBIS) Communication defines engagement with two dimensions: clarity and connection (Endres & Mancheno-Smoak, 2008). Clarity focuses on employee knowledge about the organisation and his/her role within it, while connection focuses on the reaction to that role (Endres & Mancheno-Smoak, 2008). While IBM define engagement as "the extent to which employees are motivated to contribute to organisational success, and are willing to apply discretionary effort to accomplishing tasks important to the achievement of organisational goals" (IBM, 2014)

Sharma and Kaur (2014) and MacLeod and Clarke (2009) stated that the practitioners define engagement as a strong focus on engagement with the financial

incentives like profitability, high staff retention, and increased customer satisfaction. However, Keenoy (2013) reported that the MacLeod and Clarke report is practically weak due to its political focus rather than reality. Keenoy stated authors of the report were heavily focussed on promotion of government policies while relying on management consultancy data rather than constructing an academic object to cater academic niceties. Keenoy (2013) further says that the practitioners use the term work engagement interchangeably with the outcomes of organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement. A number of consultancy corporations now cite many case studies to show how raised levels of engagement contributes to increased profitability and offer services to conduct engagement surveys (Bailey, Madden, Alfes, & Fletcher, 2017). Thus, within the broad practitioner literature, engagement is used very broadly but ultimately focuses on organisational success and productivity.

Overall, it is still unclear what these practitioners are meaning by engagement or indeed, what they are measuring? Is it employee engagement? Or, some other job attitude, like satisfaction? It appears that the practitioners have a distorted idea of work engagement. It seems that the practitioners have done a poor job around conceptualising work engagement, although it might be fair to say they have economised the term well in relation to consulting. The literature from practitioners have sometimes provided evidence of the favourable outcomes of engagement (e.g., Harter et al., 2002) but often the evidence is commercially sensitive and thus this literature is viewed as perhaps failed to convince academia.

3.3. Engagement: Academia Perspective

Since its first conceptualisation, engagement still lacks a universally agreed definition in the academic literature although its emergence is well documented in academia (Schaufeli, 2013). Kahn first introduced the concept in 1990, however it took more than

a decade for the concept before the concept was picked by other researchers in academia (Schaufeli, 2013).

Kahn (1990) first introduced the concept employee engagement 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" (p.694). Kahn saw engagement consisting of three components. The *physical* aspect of engagement concerns the physical energies employed by the employees to accomplish their goals; *cognitive* aspect concerns the belief of the employees about the organisation; and the *emotional* aspect is concerned with the attitude of the employees towards the organisation and its leaders (Kahn, 1990).

Robertson and Cooper (2010) introduced a new concept known as 'full engagement', which comprises of employee well-being as a major source for building sustainable benefits for employees and organisation. Baumruk (2004) has described engagement as emotional and intellectual commitment of an employee towards an organisation. Maslach and Leiter (1997) drew a comparison between burnout and engagement, where engagement has three main factors - root energy, involvement, and efficacy, whereas burnout has exhaustion, cynicism, and ineffectiveness. They defined employee engagement as the direct opposite of burnout dimensions (p. 34). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) defined work engagement as the psychological state that accompanies the behavioural investment of personal energy. In-depth review by Bailey et al. (2017) highlighted six different conceptualisations of engagement. The field was dominated by the Utrecht group's *work engagement* construct. Work engagement is defined as an employee's affective-motivational work-related state of fulfilment that is characterised by the individual's work-related vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Bailey et al. (2017) argued, despite engagement being one of the essential concepts in the world, yet it lacks a logical evaluation that synthesises the evidence associated with engagement. Engagement is often linked closely with job involvement (May et al., 2004) and *flow* (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Job involvement is defined as *"the degree to which the job situation is central to the person and his [or her] identity* (p. 311) (Lawler & Hall, 1970). Job involvement is focused on the *potential for satisfying needs* while engagement is about how an individual employs him/herself while performing the job (May et al., 2004). Job involvement is focussed on cognition while engagement comes from emotions and behaviours in addition to cognition (May et al., 2004).

The job demand resource (JD-R) theory is the most common approach used to explain the concept of work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014, 2017). JD-R theory states a combination of job characteristics and personal resources can predicts job performance via engagement. With the availability of more resources, employees are expected to be more engaged. Job characteristics and personal behaviour can make a significant impact on the engagement. Personality traits are also an important element of engagement (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018). Importantly, the JD-R model is closely related to COR theory with COR theory extending the approach of the JD-R theory by arguing that resource loss can be balanced if there is resource gain (Hobfoll, 1989), and COR theory provides a distinct approach to resources because the resource caravan approach means resources might be better considered collectively to attain goals (Hobfoll, 2011a). Finally, Hobfoll et al. (2018) argued that under COR theory, negative factors might also act in a beneficial nature given a specific context, such as support from the organisation.

Another construct, which is closely associated with engagement, is organisational commitment (Robinson et al., 2004). Organisational commitment is an attitude/attachment to an organisation while engagement is more focussed on absorption

in the job (Saks, 2006). The term engagement has been overused and sold as productivity enhancer drug for the entire workforce. Academic research and theory have a varied definition and outcomes. Saks (2006) pointed clearly that the engagement literature is dominated by research in practitioner journals. There are now more academic interventions and studies to improve the understanding the nature, antecedents and outcomes of engagement; it is essential as academic knowledge can lead to practical solutions (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018).

3.4. Engagement: Key Academia Definitions

As the concept of employee engagement has gained a lot of popularity, there have been a number of changes in its definition, conceptualisation, and measurement. The researchers in the academic community have, however, lagged in defining the term engagement as it is an entirely new concept. Different researchers have given different definitions of this term. For instance, Kahn (1990) who defines it as the harnessing of organisation members' selves to their work roles. He also stated that "in the engagement people involve and express them physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances" (p. 694). While Maslach and Leiter (1997) describes it as the exact opposite of burnout. Kahn (1990) argues that a disengaged employee exhibits withdrawal and self-defensive behaviours. In this approach, the employee is detached from the role and performs on auto-pilot mode. Kahn (1990) further asserts that an employee has to be present both physically and psychologically in order to discharge his/her duties in an effective manner and also undertake organisational roles and responsibilities.

Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010) have drawn heavily on Kahn's (1990) work and defined engagement as "investing in hands, head, and heart in active, full work performances" (p. 619). May et al. (2004) also defined engagement as an alliance of emotional, physical, and cognitive energies. As employees have choices, they need to be

attracted to the organisation in order to be engaged. Organisations need to invest on employees to fascinate and charm the employees so employees can move above the level of transactional relationship with the organisation. (Robinson et al., 2004).

Robinson et al. (2004) defined the concept of employee engagement as an optimistic attitude of an employee towards the firm and a strong belief in its cultural values. An employee who has been engaged for long is aware of all the changes that are occurring in the business world; hence he delivers services in order to improve the sales and profits of the firm (Tran, 2018). According to Truss, Shantz, Soane, Alfes, and Delbridge (2013) a two-way relationship could be built between the employees and the employers hence the organisation must work to nurture and develop the engagement. The engaged employees are more satisfied with the work they deliver, and they not only have much energy, but they apply this energy enthusiastically to work also. Saks (2006) defined employee engagement as the extent to which an individual is attentive and absorbed in their jobs and role given to them in the workplace.

According to Truss et al. (2013), employee engagement is a positive attitude one develops for the company he/she is serving. Truss et al. (2013) argued this improves the relationships between the employees and their leaders by establishing better communication among them. Schaufeli, Salanova, González-romá, and Bakker (2002) define engagement as a state of mind, which is fulfilling due vigour, dedication, and absorption in the work. There are three aspects of work engagement which are describes as vigour, (i) High levels of energy; (ii) Mental resilience while working; (iii) enthusiasm to invest their work (Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, 2008). Dedication includes one's sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge towards their work. Absorption reveals the level of immersion on one's job (Schaufeli et al., 2008).

Engagement is not a temporary state, rather it is more pervasive and persistent, without a focus on any particular object or behaviour. Saks (2008) argued that employee engagement needs to have a precise definition rather than a cocktail of constructs. Mone and London (2010) defined employee engagement as a condition of the employee in which he/she feels motivated, involved, committed and passionate towards the organisation and demonstrates those feelings in his/her working behaviour.

In the next two sections, the literature on antecedents and consequences of engagement are explored. In the following section, engagement as management tool is outlined. The section outlines the way organisations can utilise engagement to achieve their mission.

3.5. Work Engagement: Antecedents

Kahn (1990) insisted that role characteristics, work interaction, intergroup dynamics, management style and organisational norms are likely to have an impact on employee engagement. Shuck and Wollard (2010) considered factors like job fit, psychological climate and affective commitment and established a close link of such factors with employee engagement. A good job fit tends to engage an employee cognitively and behaviourally and thus the overall employee performance is improved. Also, when the employees receive psychological meaningfulness at work, then they develop a great passion to accomplish their tasks (Kahn, 1990). The affective commitment refers to the emotional connection of an employee to his/her work and the duties discharged by him/her at the workplace (Aston, 2014). Robinson et al. (2004) resonated similar outcomes but noted engagement one-step beyond commitment. Hence, better organisational commitment would lead to highly engaged workforce.

Brown. and Leigh (1996) developed a model of psychological climate, performance, effort, and involvement and stated that to achieve a high level of employee engagement; employers need to maintain a positive psychological environment across the

workplace. Psychological climate was explained as harnessing the meaningful psychological representations made by the individuals relative to the structures, processes and events that occur within organisation (Brown. & Leigh, 1996). Later a number of reformations were made to this model and it was discovered that a good psychological climate has an effective relationship with the employee's capability to deliver best performance in the workplace and even develop the willingness contribute to organisational objectives (Shimazu, Schaufeli, Kamiyama, & Kawakami, 2015).

Another antecedent of engagement is around communication, with a high level of communication within organisation leading to unerring communication of organisational goals and objectives to the employees. According to a study conducted by Ologbo and Sofian (2012), the process of engagement is highly influenced by the type of communication that occurs between employees and even among the leaders and the subordinates. When the voice of the employees is heard and when they are made aware of the ongoing activities in the company then they feel more attached towards the company and hence deliver their services in an enthusiastic manner (Ologbo & Sofian, 2012).

Harter et al. (2002) argued that work environment, line manager (supervisor/immediate manager) and management team are crucial to employee engagement. In order for supervisors/managers to cultivate a supportive environment, they need to demonstrate concern for needs, feelings, and provide constructive feedback and allow employees to voice concerns (May et al., 2004). Employees are more engaged when their supervisors demonstrate concerns for them, consistent with the words and actions and accountable (Men & Stacks, 2014). Haar, Brougham, Roche, and Barney (2017) also found in their study that the leaders who provide growth opportunities to their employees had employees who were more engaged.

Ologbo and Sofian (2012) found training opportunities; skill development and learning play a crucial role in the overall development of the employees. When a learning-oriented culture is created in an organisation, then it becomes an effective way to enhance the engagement of the employees in the firm's activities and decisions. Wallace and Trinka (2009) also noted higher employee engagement when employees received greater coaching, career development and appreciation for their strengths. The engaged employees are interested to learn new skills and gain myriads of knowledge in their core working areas and even in the ones that are new to them. Xu and Thomas (2011) also identified a strong correlation amongst employee engagement and leader's capability to support the team.

There were two other studies, which explored the link between leadership and employee engagement. Papalexandris and Galanaki (2009) found two particular leadership dimensions be positively associated with engagement: *being a good manager/mentor and articulating vision*. Although, the study was based on a small sample, it reinforces the importance of basic good management in engagement. Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe (2007) also found positive correlation with leadership and engagement with their transformational leadership questionnaire, which had job and organisational commitment, effectiveness, motivation, and satisfaction as criterion variables. Both of these studies find a strong correlation between good mentoring, management, and employee engagement.

Rewards and recognitions are also important in establishing firm engagement with the employees (Hofmans, De Gieter, & Pepermans, 2013). Rewards may be described as the any benefits received by employees in return of their contribution and work (Henderson, 2003). Psychological rewards have demonstrated positive correlation with job satisfaction; recognition from supervisors is one example of psychological reward.

Monetary rewards like salary and bonuses do not have the same level of influence on employee motivation and satisfaction (Hofmans et al., 2013). Kahn (1990) reported that the engagement of the people varies as a function of their perceptions of the benefits, rewards, and recognition they receive from the role they are performing at the firm. Rewards and recognition may push the unengaged employees towards delivering better performances in the workplace and even motivate the hard workers to strive in challenging conditions at the workplace (Robinson et al., 2004).

Beyond leaders, co-workers support is crucial in creating a positive working environment in the organisation. Cooperative workers drive positive energy, and the workers tend to deliver better services in the workplace where the team members support and motivate each other to perform better. The highly engaged workforce expects that the senior workers and co-workers acknowledge their efforts and the creativity of their skills and ideas. If this acknowledgement occurs periodically then an employee remains highly engaged for a long term (Endres & Mancheno-Smoak, 2008).

Beyond knowledge driving engagement, organisational values are communicated to the employees as the expectations of behaviour from the employees and personal values reflect one's self-image where congruence is clear. Higher engagement is resulted where higher congruence is established among organisational values and personal values (Rich et al., 2010). Kahn (1990) also stated the value congruence has a significant impact on psychological meaningfulness, which leads to better engagement. Perceived organisation support influences engagement strongly than value congruence.

Saks (2006) argued for two types of engagement: job engagement and organisational engagement. Although the study was based on a small sample of 102 employees in Canada it offered a unique perspective to employee engagement. Saks (2006) established that job and organisation engagement are related yet unique constructs.

Job characteristics predicted job engagement while procedural justice predicted organisational engagement; Perceived organisation support (POS) had an influence on both job and organisational commitment.

Robertson and Cooper (2010) established a strong relationship between employee engagement and psychological well-being. The individuals who are psychologically stable tend to deliver better performance in the workplace and they even behave differently which leads to better ways of employee engagement. The psychological well-being could be provided by the company to its employees by not giving much stress to the employees about the work and giving them adequate rewards, recognition and incentives in a timely manner (Robinson et al., 2004). Thus, adequate resourcing of employees leads to better engagement levels.

Roof (2015) explored that there is a specific link between spirituality and work engagement. The spirituality has a positive and significant correlation with the engagement of the employees towards their organisation. This factor is directly and indirectly related to elements like vigour and dedication, which eventually empowers an individual to perform in a better manner at the workplace. Devendhiran and Wesley (2017) also argues that by including spirituality at workplaces, organisation can improve mental and physical fitness, which will have a positive effect on employee engagement. Spirituality has a positive relationship with engagement, vigour and dedication but shows no correlation with absorption (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014; Roof, 2015). Bakker (2011) also argued on vigour as strong antecedent of employee engagement albeit did not establish a connection with spirituality.

3.6. Engagement: Outcomes

Engagement is a crucial decision for an organisation as it seeks to retain the talented employees for a longer period (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Engaged employees

are less likely to leave the organisation and will stay with the organisation for longer (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In their study of 1698 employees, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) that engaged employees do not intend to leave the organisation. The same outcomes have been echoed in further studies (Ivanovic, Ivancevic, & Maricic, 2020; Ran & Yuping, 2020; Santhanam & Srinivas, 2019; Zhang & Li, 2020). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Eldor (2020) also suggested that engaged employees provide a competitive advantage to the organisation and also generate a favourable business environment where a business not only develop in an enhanced focus on performance but are likely to survive for long than firms without an engaged workforce. If the employees are not recognised for their work and efforts, then there will be a situation of burnout where such employees will either develop an aversion of working at such places or they will simply quit and search for a better opportunity in the markets (Shenoy & Uchil, 2018).

The leaders who provide a great working environment for the employees and in return the employees perform in an enhanced manner to give a competitive edge to the companies over other similar companies in the markets (Saks, 2006). Harter et al. (2002) introduced employee engagement to the business unit level to enhance the job satisfaction and the results of the study showed positive correlation between engagement and job satisfaction. The engaged employees are less likely to quit the firm because they are happy and content in serving their company. The engaged employees cannot be easily lured by other opportunities available in markets (Macey, 2009).

With the implementation of employee engagement concept, a company can simultaneously enhance performance and reduce their employee turnover rates. This is because improved employee retention rates occur as work engagement has a negative relation with turnover intention (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Ran & Yuping, 2020). Employee Engagement levels are directly related not only to the overall performance of

the organisation but also with job satisfaction, retention rate, and employee attitudes towards organisation.

Albrecht (2010) suggested that engagement instils enthusiasm and passion among the employees towards their job due to which organisational aspiration becomes their own aspiration and goals. Engaged employees develop passion, commitment and alignment with the current strategies and goals of the firm and evolve their skills to attain them quickly. These employees do not only deploy their strength and enthusiasm to achieve the strategic goals of the firm, but also relate to the future of the organisation (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). They usually provide constructive ideas and thoughts to the firm that keeps it stable for long. Marisa Salanova, Agut, and Peiró (2005) stated that the engaged employees realize the importance of customer satisfaction and their positive experience with the company. Hence, an engaged employee will strive to deliver high quality services and attract and retain a good customer base for the company (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009).

Jose and Mampilly (2012) stated that engaged employees are highly optimistic and extremely focused on their work and are always spirited to work for the sustainable development of the firm. When engaged employees are attached to the firm, then there are few chances that the company will perform any task that is unsuitable and will always implement those strategies that are for the betterment of all the stakeholders of the company (Marisa Salanova et al., 2005). A sense of loyalty is created by an engaged employee in the competitive environment and provides a highly energetic working space for the others who are quite new to this concept and want to be engaged with the firm for a longer term (Bailey et al., 2017).

An engaged employee contributes to the organisation by boosting the productivity (Barik & Kochar, 2017). Engaged employees tend to be good communicators because

they are enthusiastic for their job. The disengaged employees are not able to establish such communication with the employees, employers and the customers (Ologbo & Sofian, 2012). The incorporation of the concepts of employee engagement not only help the employees to establish a high level of communication among them, but at the same time it can also help in the creation of innovations and new ideas (Barik & Kochar, 2017). Thus, employees who are allowed to express their ideas freely are more likely to be engaged.

Highly engaged employees might be viewed as an indicator of success in their own right. The success in this case does not indicate only the business success, but the engaged employees are a result of personal or a team's success. The engaged employees are personally successful, and they tend to pass on this success factor to the organisation they work for. They have taken a lot of risks at a personal level so they can easily motivate their team members to take risks and attain quick success (Harter et al., 2002; May et al., 2004). Britt, Adler, and Bartone (2001) argued that engagement in meaningful work leads to perceived benefits from work while Harter et al. (2002) associated engagement with measures of involvement and enthusiasm to customer satisfaction, loyalty, employee turnover, and barely with productivity and profitability whilst Maslach et al. (2001) linked engagement to employee well-being to avoid burnout. Overall, engaged employee are better performers than unengaged employees and willing to put in the effort required for the organisation to achieve its mission.

3.7. Employee Engagement: A management tool

Fostering employee engagement is a key for creating a productive office environment. Further, the above literature around the consequences of engagement show that the benefits extend beyond performance to include attitudes (greater job satisfaction), behaviours (lower turnover intentions), as well as enhanced employee well-being. For the

last few decades, the relationship between employees and employers have undergone a significant number of changes. Hence, the senior executives must adopt a number of tools and strategies to not only attract the talented people to their firms but also to keep them satisfied so that they are retained for a longer duration (May et al., 2004).

The new generation of the employees, who wants to be engaged in the work culture of the firm, usually has a low tolerance level for the hierarchical approaches instead the preference is open communication and honesty (Ologbo & Sofian, 2012). A horizontal structure in the organisation is usually preferred by the engaged employees as such structure gives a chance to all big or small participants of the company to provide their suggestions and valuable feedbacks over a crucial activity, change or decision of the firm (Bakker, 2010). These factors around feedback, autonomy, decision making etc. are all key to developing engagement.

Engaged employees often look for a certain degree of flexibility while they work. In order to enhance their engagement, the firms could use a strategy of providing them a number of benefits where they can foster good communication with the leaders they are working for and even with their colleagues and subordinates (Neault & Pickerell, 2011). By putting into practice, a range of beneficial programs, a company can enhance employee engagement and keep the employees engaged for a longer period. These benefits include paternity or maternity leaves, health club discounts, annual leaves for vacations with family and other incentives (Endres & Mancheno-Smoak, 2008). The flexibility allows employees to have a great work-life balance which will motivate them to deliver better services in the company (Britt et al., 2001). This link is important, because Haar et al. (2017) found work-life balance was directly related to work engagement. Indeed, it also mediated the influence of servant leadership, further supporting its importance in engagement.

The presence of an employee voice in the company makes the employees more attached to the firm. The companies could develop channels through which each employee can raise issues and even give his/her valuable feedbacks whenever or wherever required. The leaders can even lead discussion forums in which the employees could lodge complaints about unwanted activities prevailing in the workplace or even about unrequited behaviour exhibited by any senior or colleague. When the voices of the employees are heard regularly, then they feel motivated and never develop an aversion about their workplace (Barik & Kochar, 2017).

Attridge (2009) reviewed the research papers of consultant firms, which have not been published in the peer-reviewed journals and concluded that engagement is good for business. Engagement levels of employees are positively linked with the performance, customer satisfaction, loyalty, profitability, and satisfaction (Schaufeli, 2013). There is clearly evidence of linkage between engagement levels and employee performance. However, these linkages come with a caution. The data published by consultancy firms lacks scientific rigor and transparency (Saks, 2008). Thus, with a careful implementation, engagement could really help business to enhance productivity and profitability while fostering and nurturing their human asset.

The next chapter explores immigration as a concept. The focus stays on migrant workers, who may have moved from one country to another for work purposes. Literature review focuses on why people move countries and issues migrant employees face while noting the contribution they make to the host country.

Chapter Four: Immigration

In this chapter, the concept of immigration is reviewed with outcomes and a focus on the New Zealand context of immigration. It has also explored the contribution to New Zealand.

4.1. Immigration overview

Immigration has become a crucial topic of discussion across the globe. Immigration is a global phenomenon, in 2013 around 231 million people were living in a different country than they were born in (Akbari & MacDonald, 2014). As the transportation facilities have improved (especially plane travel), jobseekers can easily move to a number of new locations to explore new opportunities. International Organisation for Migration (IOM) defines migrant as *"any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a State away from his/her habitual place of residence, regardless of (1) the person's legal status; (2) whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary; (3) what the causes for the movement are; or (4) what the length of the stay is"* (IOM, 2019).

Immigration is defined as an international movement of a person to a country of which he/she does not possess citizenship. The media is also playing a great role in attracting with transnational information and in creating a fundamental network for the immigrants (Glitz, Frattini, & Dustmann, 2008). The conflicts, human rights violation and unequal treatment often force human beings to leave their country, homes, and families with the hope of improving their life quality. In the immigration context, there is a number of push and pull factors which form the prime reasons for due to which a person leaves his/her own country. Some of these factors have been captured by an organisation called justice for migrants in the image below.

Figure 1: Push and Pull factors for Immigration

PUSH		PULL
Persecution Violence War	➡	Safety and Stability Freedom
Poor wages Lack of jobs	➡	Higher wages Job prospects
Crop failure and famine Pollution Natural disaster	➡	Food availability Better environment
Limited opportunities Lack of services Family separation	➡	Family Reunification Better quality of life Availability of services
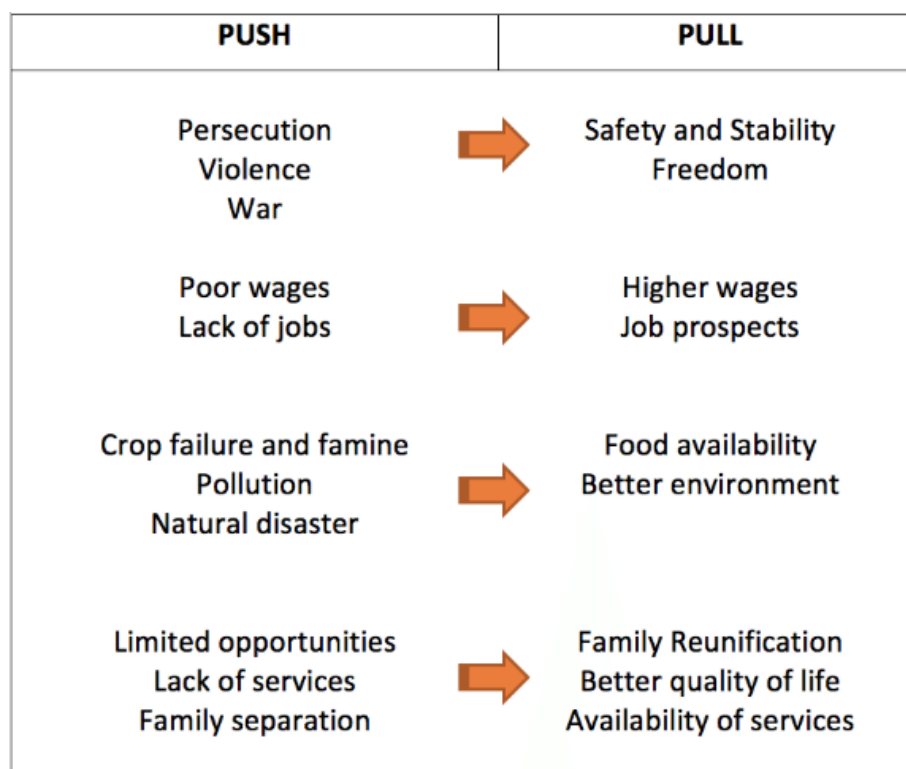
Source: www.justiceformigrants.org

Due to Safety Factors, people are compelled to leave their native places as they might cause danger to their lives. Immigrants sometimes face persecution and discrimination based on nationality, race, religion, political beliefs, and status within social groups. When these discriminations become fierce, they are then forced to move towards a new locality where there is a safe environment, and they can easily live according to their own terms. Some formal activities like wars and gang activities also force immigrants to leave their native place to seek a better living environment (Crawford & Campbell, 2012). Hence, in the New Zealand context, we might gain immigrants from, for example, Afghanistan, Iraq, Iran, Pakistan etc. as these countries have a number of push factors. Pull factors to New Zealand might include the beautiful clean natural settings, the largely safe and peaceful setting, and a growing population of immigrants.

Economic factors also lead to immigration and is considered the most prominent reason for migration (Glitz et al., 2008). People move from poor developing nations towards economically stable countries, and from lower waged areas towards countries where higher wages are provided, and job opportunities are also better than their native places (Crawford & Campbell, 2012).

In addition, environmental factors cause involuntary immigration of people. Natural disasters, crop failure, or pollution causes immigration. Crop failure often leads to food scarcity and a drop in the price of agricultural products. There is a scarcity of agricultural jobs due to which people migrate to urban areas for better job opportunities. Pollution of water and soil can deteriorate health conditions in both rural and urban areas and due to this people migrate to attain better living conditions. Natural Disasters like Earthquakes and Droughts make the people devoid of basic services and proper shelter. To start a new life and earn better for living, the people leave such disaster-prone regions and settle for better in a new continent (SEM, 2014).

Social Factors instil a feeling of attaining a better lifestyle and earn better livelihood among the people who are not getting a living up to their expectations. Immigrants often move to explore better opportunities and living standards in developed countries. Immigrants explore such job opportunities that not only give them better wages, but also important benefits to their families and numerous career growth prospects (Dustmann, Frattini, & Glitz, 2007).

Some developed countries are now struggling with migrants arriving with low skills (Iturbe-Ormaetxe & Romero, 2016; SEM, 2014). Immigration rate is growing since the past few decades, there were 173 million migrants in 2000, 220 million in 2010 and 258 million in 2017 and 272 million in 2019 (Migration, 2019). Berman and Aste (2016) state this provide evidence of how significant immigration is to the economy and the

labour market of countries such as US, the UK and Australia. Many developed countries have set policies in place to attract the best and brightest (Salahshour, 2016). For example, in New Zealand, immigration can be focused on skilled workers, which are scarce in New Zealand, thus making these jobs highly attractive to immigrants to New Zealand.

4.2. Immigration: Need

Only a handful countries across the world are able to see the prime benefits of immigration and the net positive migration each year. These include Australia, the USA, Canada, Europe, and New Zealand. However, countries like South America and Africa are experiencing net migration drop. As immigration is considered important criteria for boosting the economy of a country, there are other specific reasons due to which most of the countries should adopt this concept while effectively managing its loopholes (Clydesdale, 2011). For instance, Immigrants with low skills can come to a country and then may not contribute towards the economy instead rely on government support. For instance, the unemployment rates for prime working age NZ born were 4.4 percent as compare to 8.4 percent of the migrants (Boyd, 2003). The possible outcome might be an emergence of underclass population due to low income and contribution to GDP (Clydesdale, 2011).

Firstly, the concept of immigration has a capability to diversify local economies. Immigrants bring new perception, ideas, thoughts and beliefs with them which add up to the already existing perceptions and cultural beliefs of the local people of a country (Borjas, 2014). With this added diversification, the communities become quite strong as now they can face various challenges with a number of solutions.

Secondly, Immigrants support lower levels of crime (Lee, Carling, & Orrenius, 2014). It is believed that the illegal immigrants act as a precursor for the increase in local crimes, but a research conducted within the state's Department of Justice (in Texas)

revealed that the number of illegal immigrants was lesser than the local prisoners (Martinez et al., 2015; McElmurry & Kerr 2016). In NZ context, the data from statistics NZ shows, in the year-end 2019, there were 24969 sentences delivered for Maori followed by European with 21175 and then it drops for migrant groups Pacific, Asian with 5702 and 1946 sentenced delivered respectively (Ministry of Justice, 2019).

Thirdly, the increase in immigrants can also increase entrepreneurialism. Immigrants bring new skills and experiences to the new country which may result in new jobs, drive innovations and even work smartly to make existing business innovative (Clydesdale, 2011). There were 1394 migrants granted either business or entrepreneur visa in 2015 (Hodder & Krupp, 2017). This increases local production, generate better profits and eventually add up to the country's economy (APA, 2012).

Fourthly, immigration also has a capacity to encourage the economic recovery as the immigrants have a capacity to move to a new location in a frequent manner as compared to the local citizens. This means that if a place is struggling with the economy, then it can improve its current status by allowing the immigrants to enter the area and work (Borjas, 2014). In addition, local residents may show reluctance to move from one city to another. However, migrants are ready to move where they can find suitable work (Borjas, 2014).

Last but not the least, the researchers have suggested that the immigrants are not the only ones who are benefited by migrating to a new location, but the other workers of the companies are benefited as well (Crawford & Campbell, 2012). As the demands for the new workers rise in the markets, the prices for the goods and services eventually fall. This allows every single entity to benefit from the lower costs (Lee et al., 2014).

4.3. Immigration: New Zealand Context

New Zealand has a reputation as *a nation of immigration* (Salahshour, 2016). Immigrants come to New Zealand from around the globe to work, study, or to live permanently (Salahshour, 2016). A little less than 41% of Auckland population is comprised of migrants. Auckland is home to the greatest proportion of migrants in New Zealand, while other regions are also receiving their fair share of the migrants. Australia, New Zealand, and Canada are the said countries who attract migrants for economic benefits for their respective economies with their policies (Spoonley & Bedford, 2008). In New Zealand, between the year 1991 and 2013, Asian population has increased from 3% to 13%, there was a new category added to the census MeLAA (Middle Eastern, Latin American, and African) (Simon-Kumar, Kurian, Young-Silcock, & Narasimhan, 2017). Skilled migrants displace themselves in the hope of better economic and social outcomes and these migrants bring different skills to contribute their new working environment (Ressia, Strachan, & Bailey, 2018).

To support the economy, New Zealand has been dependent on the immigrants. The government has also used the immigrants to supplement its labour force (Akbari & MacDonald, 2014; Clydesdale, 2011). It becomes a responsibility of the government to provide all possible services to the immigrants as they act as a crucial asset for the economy. Some of the immigrants have adapted themselves completely according to the lifestyle of the country and work there as a crucial resource (Johnston, Gendall, Trlin, & Spoonley, 2010). As the immigration rates are rapidly increasing, so the government is working continuously to improve the employment rates of the country so that all the migrants are well settled in their jobs and lives (Brookings, 2016). Regardless of evidence, New Zealand along with Australia and Canada agree immigration is valuable for the economy (Clydesdale, 2011).

New Zealand has relied on labour immigration to improve and support the economy for many years. When compared with other OCED (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) countries, it was revealed that NZ has high inflows and outflows of people. One quarter of the total population is born overseas while Auckland is ranked fourth most diverse city in the world (Pio, 2016). Thus, a large majority of New Zealand's workforce was born overseas, and various opportunities brought them here. But this scenario changed a little bit and in the year 2010, nearly one in seven people living in New Zealand was born overseas. Since the late 1990s, a loss of around 259,000 local inhabitants has been offset by a gain of 384,000 migrants and this produced a net gain of 125,000 people (Spoonley & Bedford, 2008).

In 1991, New Zealand adopted a point system similar to those of Canada and Australia. In this system, for the selection of the migrants, the source country of potential migrants was not given much importance and rather their economic status was considered, and their socio-demographic behaviour was evaluated (Anderson & Tipples, 2014; Johnston et al., 2010). As the points systems were gaining popularity, the migrants were chosen on the basis of their skills and knowledge and on what they can offer to the growing economy of the country. The ethnic mix of the new migrants has changed drastically over this time (almost 30 years). In 1993, 49.6 percent permanent resident applications were approved for Asian citizens (Johnston et al., 2010) and this number went up to 53.8 percent in 2017 (MBIE, 2017). It has been argued that Pacific people, who have been a great source of migrants, have become less desirable as they are not highly valued for the economy (Simon-Kumar et al., 2017).

4.4. Immigration: Outcomes

Despite all the positive increase in immigration in New Zealand, it has not been without controversy. The media debates in the press argue that immigrants flood across borders

in order to steal the jobs, create a significant burden on the taxpayers and even threaten the indigenous culture (Collins, 2016). While there are other groups of researchers that argue that the concept of immigration was developed in order to boost the dwindling economies of certain powerful nations, to meet the need of skills shortage and help in creating a more dynamic society (Latta, 2016). Three percent of the global population is comprised of migrants which equates to 230 million (Goldin, 2016). This indicates that the number of immigrants and other migrants is increasing rapidly (Goldin, Cameron, & Balarajan, 2011).

Due to the increasing economic needs, developed countries are allowing skilled migrants to migrate more frequently than in the past. The governments of developed and developing countries are becoming more flexible towards immigration rules and are trying to develop a significant position in the war for talent (Czaika & de Haas, 2018). It is suggested that immigrants provide a great revenue to their new governments and the native people also get a chance to survive on dynamism brought by the immigrants as they move from one country to another (OECD/ILO, 2018).

If the immigration and migration are happening rapidly across the world, then the question arises that why it has been criticised so much? The answer to this, as believed by a number of researchers, is that the immigrants tend to take jobs and destroy the economy of a country. In the United States, migrants make up less than 15 percent of the population, yet they account for more than half of the patents and Silicon Valley start-ups (Goldin, 2016). In addition, between the years 2006 to 2012, there was at least one immigrant as the main founder of one quarter of technology and engineering firms founded (Migration, 2019). Although, many might think immigrants take jobs from local workers, the evidence tells a different story (Goldin, 2016).

Research conducted by the Federal Reserve Bank of the San Francisco revealed that immigrants are capable to grow the economy via stimulation of investments and specialisation which in turn increases income per worker (Peri, 2010). Another report published by the World Bank on immigration shows that increasing immigration by a margin equal to three percent of the workforce in developed countries would generate global economic gains of $356 billion. Some economists across the globe also predicts that if the borders of all the countries are dissolved and immigrants are allowed to move freely across the globe, then this would produce profits as high as $39 Trillion in the coming two to three decades (Docquier, Peri, & Ruyssen, 2014).

4.5. Migrant Employees versus New Zealand (Local) Employees

Immigrants are said to be better employees (MacKenzie & Forde, 2009), and this statement can be supported by giving a number of reasons. For instance, immigrants are a good asset as they are always in survival mode and it is a human tendency to discharge duties in an effective manner in the survival mode (Dhall, 2018; Halvorsen, Treuren, & Kulik, 2015). This insight into immigrants has been extended into the New Zealand popular press (Newshub, 2017).   When immigration occurs, the immigrants usually disconnect from their influences, possessions, and networks. The sense of security that one experiences in his own country is replaced by uncertainty and in such conditions when they are compelled to operate in fewer resources, then they develop a sense of alertness, awareness, and responsibility (Spoonley & Bedford, 2008). The immigrants are also more excited to share the part of their cultural values and beliefs with their co-workers and leaders in an organisational setting. There is a reflection of their cultural beliefs and tradition in their way of working. This eventually increases the level of diversification in the company and the mix people from different backgrounds often make firms more competitive (Reddy, 2018).

OECD/ILO (2018) published a report titled *How Immigrants Contribute to Developing Countries' Economies*, and according to this report, immigrants are more entrepreneurial than native people in OECD countries. Due to the flexibility within OECD countries, immigrants prove to be more adapt at creating start-up firms. Moving to another country involves significant risks and this makes the immigrants greater risk-takers. The immigrants take good risks, and this makes them great employees and great entrepreneurs (OECD/ILO, 2018). In today's innovative and competitive world, it might be argued that those survive are those who take risks, and thus while immigrants tend to fail quickly, they also recover quickly. Further, the returning migrants also bring a lot of contacts along with them, which may empower their friends and relatives residing back in their native countries. This may even create job opportunities for them too (ILO, 2018).

Despite these economic benefits, and that immigrant workers make better employees, they can also have a significant number of issues associated with them. These include immigrants may contribute to overpopulation. The wealthiest nations are the prime targets for the immigrants and hence population increases drastically in such countries. When the population levels become unbalanced then a number of resource access issues arise in areas where high levels of immigration take place (OECD, 2007). Within the New Zealand context, a good example might be Auckland, the largest city where between 37% to 41% of the population is immigrant (Watson, Spoonley, & Fitzgerald, 2009). It has been argued that large immigrant growth has led to Auckland – the New Zealand city with the largest immigrant population – to expand beyond the range of its infrastructure resources (e.g., water, roading etc.).

Immigrants also tend to create wage disparities, as they are ready to grab employment opportunities at a lower wage than local residents. Immigration creates a condition when there are a large number of immigrants who readily takes up the job at

lower wages and this creates wage disparities (Lin & Weiss, 2019). Furthermore, New Zealand has seen cases of wage exploitation, whereby immigrants are exploited and paid below the New Zealand legal minimum thresholds (Fallow, 2020; Hurley, 2020; Kilgallon, 2020; Pullar-Strecker, 2019). For example, the New Zealand fisheries sector has been highlighted as exploiting immigrant fishermen with some paid around $3.50 an hour (Milne, 2005; Tourelle, 2006). Similar stories emerge from Australia, where his employer paid a Pacifica worker only $56 a week out of his gross pay of $496 and rest was deducted as accommodation costs, relocation, visa processing and transportation (Hermant, 2020).

Immigrants often bring new perspectives, ethnicities, and culture along with them to new countries, and thus when residing in an already established community, there can be cases of friction (Ozgen, Peters, Niebuhr, Nijkamp, & Poot, 2014). The local people have a basic fear associated with immigrants and this can compel a government to decide on a high level of security monitoring tools and techniques and a number of negative personal interactions (Bergbom, 2015). For example, as migrant labour is more prone to exploitation, the labour inspectorate needed to enhance its monitoring activity for all the employer to protect their rights (Anderson & Tipples, 2014).

Immigrants have also been blamed for dampening the chances of growth in developing nations. Immigrants take the knowledge and talent away with them when they migrate to other developed nations for their individual growth (OECD/ILO, 2018). While immigrants make a significant economic contribution via remittances, they also contribute to create a 'brain drain' where skilled and knowledgeable workers leave an economy.

Immigrants can also lead to human rights violations as the immigration process can put an individual in a state of desperation. The immigration system within a country

can lead to the development of a number of organised crime activities in extreme situations (Jung, 2020). Migrants may be exploited in the country on the basis of their cultural differences and even on the basis of the knowledge they possess or the ways in which they discharge their duties (Martinez et al., 2015). Anderson and Tipples (2014) found in their study of 93 migrant employee in horticulture that all 93 employees were paid under the minimum wage and more than half did not have any formal written contract. It was also noted that all the employees found work via their ethnic communities or labour contractors.

Business activities impact on local residents in terms of employment and will affect their attitudes towards migrants because it appears, they are taking a job which local residents are capable of doing. Locals may not be prepared to work due to work conditions or wages while migrants are willing to accept because migrants cannot depend on the welfare system for support, if they are not employed. This makes some migrants more desperate and vulnerable (Akbari & MacDonald, 2014).

4.6. Conclusion

The literature is broadly split between the benefits and challenges that immigrants have on countries and economies they settle in. All the issues around migrant workers have often proved themselves good employees is evident when media cover stories such as *Migrant workers saved my business while rating young kiwi as useless workers* (Newshub, 2017). Berman and Aste (2016) stated immigration impact the wages of local worker who do not have high school qualification or does the low or unskilled work as migrants are willing to accept those jobs at lower rates. This also shapes the public perception of the immigrants. Employee wages is a variable, which can be easily influenced by the employers, as migrants are willing to accept jobs as low wage rates. (Anderson & Tipples, 2014). Migrant labour has grown in the areas for low skill, low

paid employment in a few industries like caregiving, horticulture, hospitality and fast-food take-away (Salahshour, 2016).

Inflow of people from past centuries have transformed New Zealand from uninhabited island into one of the best countries to live in. New Zealand is an attractive destination for migrants due to its lifestyle, open economy, and liberal society (Hodder & Krupp, 2017). Migrants not only bring economic benefits to New Zealand. They also bring in technical expertise, skills, abilities which New Zealand lack. McLeod, Fabling, and Maré (2014) in the report to Ministry of business, innovation, and employment (MBIE) stated that the firm with more recent migrants are more likely to introduce new marketing techniques, or goods and services new to New Zealand. In addition, McLeod et al. (2014) also noted, the firms who hire more recent migrants tend to innovate more in comparison with other firms.

Relating immigrants back to employee engagement is vital, because the literature suggests engagement is a significant factor to boost the productivity of a business (Bakker, 2010). Businesses in New Zealand have been crying out for skilled migrants for years (Cropp, 2020; Fisher, 2020; Martin, 2018; Theunissen, 2016). While migrant workers are prone to exploitation due to various reasons (Anderson & Tipples, 2014), what is unclear is the level of engagement by immigrants. Hence, this study asks a fundamental research question: *does immigrant status have an impact on engagement levels? If so, what effect is it?*

While some argued that migrant workforce is linked with low quality of work (Wright & Clibborn, 2019), other's suggest migrant workers are better workers, and make good kiwis (Hodder & Krupp, 2017) while contributing to the economy at a higher rate than kiwis. Nana and Dixon (2016) stated migrants had positive net fiscal impact per capita in the year June 2013 of NZD 2664, NZD 3623, and NZD 1828 for new-, recent-,

and established-migrants (p. 21). New migrants are who have been in New Zealand for less than five years, while recent migrants have been in New Zealand for between 5 and 14 years; and established migrants have been in New Zealand for more than 15 years. While the net fiscal contribution per capita for New Zealand born population was merely NZD 172.

Currently, there is not a body of research available to assess if there are any differences among the engagement levels of migrant employees and New Zealand local employees. This research will explore this unexplored area. The research will establish if there is a connection between engagement and vulnerability of migrants.

4.7. COR Theory and Engagement

This section looks to show the theoretical links between COR theory and engagement across a number of antecedents and consequences. Haar and Brougham (2020) in their two-sample study found a strong correlation between control constructs (job autonomy and control) and work-life balance. This reinforces the importance of control and freedom as resources under COR theory. They found that work-life balance influenced job satisfaction positively and turnover intentions negatively, and this is important, because these factors have meta-analytic support for being linked to work engagement (Christian et al., 2011). Chan Xi et al. (2017) found in a study of 1010 Australian employees, that work-life balance influences engagement is a positive way. Similar results were echoed by Yang, Sliter, Cheung, Sinclair, and Mohr (2018) who utilised COR approach to find how co-worker support affects engagement and the results noted that by providing support to co-workers has stronger benefits on the engagement of 142 acute care nurses. Thus, it is evident that self-efficacious employees tend to be more engaged as they seek to retain, protect, and gain resources in order to achieve well-being and work-life balance.

The present study uses COR theory to understand the potential differences in resource gains and losses for NZ local employees and migrants to New Zealand. Furthermore, we will also look at the way these resources (or lack thereof) are affecting the engagement levels of these employees. Positive and negative crossovers would be important elements to examine, as the employees will have very similar work environment, but their personal circumstance could vary widely as migrants may not have enough family or personal commitment in their host country. Ultimately, COR theory is used to understand the role that factors have on shaping work engagement and how these might differ between migrants and New Zealand born employees. The next chapter focuses on the theoretical models and associated hypotheses to test the direct effects of resources on work engagement and work engagement on outcomes.

Chapter Five: Theoretical Model and Hypotheses

The core focus of the present study is to examine the differences in engagement levels of migrant employees when compared with New Zealand local (born) employees. This chapter elaborates the overall hypotheses based on the literature review presented in the previous chapters. The model for the study is shown in the figure below.

Figure 2: Theoretical Model
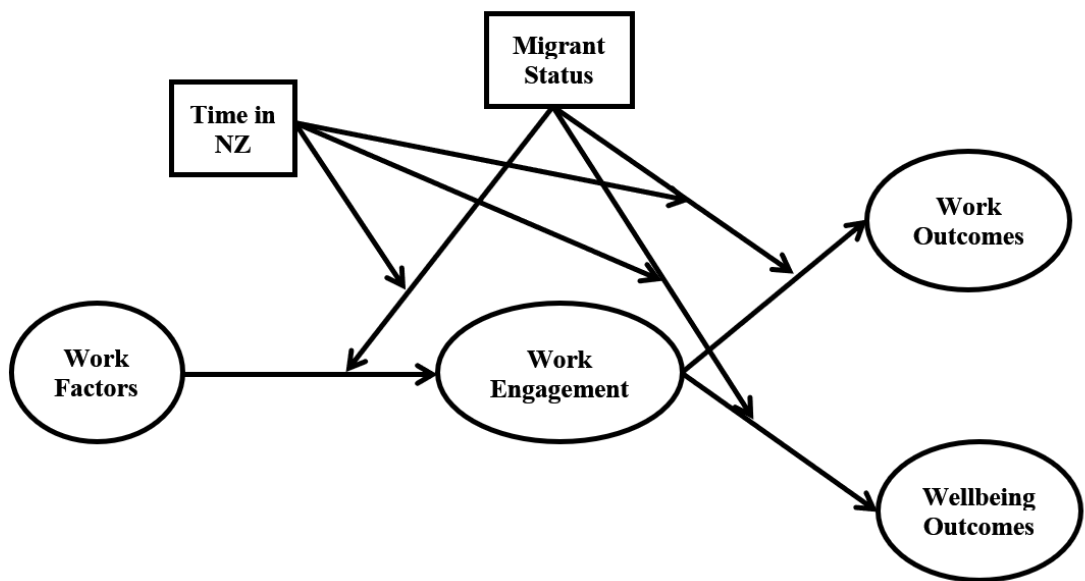
As the model shows, work factors are the elements which lead to work engagement. The antecedents selected in this study are based on previous research. The work engagement concept has been championed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) provided three distinct dimensions to the concept of work engagement. First *Vigour* is described as high levels of energy at work and be persistent in challenging times. Second *Dedication* is described as immense work involvement, enthusiasm, meaningfulness. Third *Absorption* is feeling where time flies at work i.e., concentration at work. Bailey et al. (2017) have noted Utrecht Group's work engagement construct is the dominant approach used in the literature and this is the construct used to measure work engagement in the present thesis.

5.1. Migrants

The employees who were born overseas and are working in New Zealand are considered as migrant employees for the purposes of this research. Migrant employees were classified based on the time they spent in New Zealand, New migrants (0-5 years in NZ) Recent migrants (5-14 years in NZ) and Established migrants (over 14 years in NZ). This classification was based on the report by Hodder and Krupp (2017).

There is a significant amount of research available on work engagement. However, with specificity to the migrants, the research is scarce. There are no such comparative studies available in New Zealand or overseas. Hence, the hypotheses were formed with the anecdote from media who have mostly painted the glorious picture of migrant workers in terms of their productivity. In addition, using the COR lens by Hobfoll (1989), it is presumed that as migrants are more likely to gain additional resources (experiences) throughout the process than the local NZ workers as they are moving from a different country to escape their old home. Hence, we expect them to show a higher level of engagement and better outcomes from their engagement. Further in this chapter, Hypotheses are based on this assumption. The first hypothesis of this research suggests that migrants will have additional energy and resources to spend and thus report higher work engagement levels than New Zealand local employees. I hypothesise the following:

Hypotheses H1. Migrant status will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

Further in the research, I will also investigate how the time spent by migrants in New Zealand impact their engagement. I suggest this provides an additional and more refined approach to understanding the impact of migrant status. Following from the previous assumption, the hypothesis is:

Hypotheses 2: Migrant time in New Zealand will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

Following antecedents are selected as work factors to assess their impact on work engagement.

5.2. Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership has been successfully linked with work engagement (Amos, Gardielle, & Bright, 2014; Bedi, Alpaslan, & Green, 2016; McKenna & Jeske, 2021; Mostafa & Abed El-Motalib, 2020). Ciulla (1998) stated ethics and integrity is not only the core of leadership but also a key to the long-term survival of any organisation. Brown, Treviño, and Harrison (2005) linked ethical leadership with better outcomes for employees and organisation. In the recent years, researchers have successfully linked ethical leadership with employee motivation, positive employee outcomes, reducing employee turnover intentions (Bedi et al., 2016; Chen & Hou, 2016; Chughtai, Byrne, & Flood, 2015; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2015). However, there is a distinct lack of focus on the way ethical leadership might influence work outcomes for migrant workers.

Initially, Brown et al. (2005) used social exchange perspective and social learning theories to explain ethical leadership, "*the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to the followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making*" (Brown et al., 2005, p. 120). Trevino, Hartman, and Brown (2000) stated that ethical leadership is all about being a moral person and moral manager. Moral manager focuses on how to use their power and leadership position to inspire an ethical culture at the workplace; while moral person focuses on the aspect of morality, integrity, truthfulness, respect of others. De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008) stated ethical leaders achieve organisational goals and objectives in a socially responsible way. Den Hartog

(2015), stated actions of an ethical leader are valuable to all stakeholders (society, employees) not only the organisation and shareholders.

The most prominent scale for ethical leadership is developed by Brown et al. (2005) called ethical leadership scale. Ethical leadership was selected as an antecedent of work engagement because Bedi et al. (2016) iterated in their research that leaders play a crucial role in influencing the work experience of employees. Thus, it is expected that workers who report higher ethical leadership from their boss are more likely to be engaged. This leads to the following set of hypotheses:

Hypotheses 3: Ethical Leadership will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

5.3. Organisational-based self-esteem

An overall self-evaluation of an individual's competencies is termed as self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965). Korman (1970) defined self-esteem as an individual "sees him [her]self as a competent, need-satisfying individual" (p. 32). Based on the same notion, (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989a) introduced the concept of organisation-based self-esteem. Organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) is defined as individuals themselves to be capable to meet the needs of their organisation with their competent behaviour. OBSE is positively linked with work engagement and organisational outcomes (Bakker, 2011).

The employees who report high OBSE have a sense of belongingness to the organisation and feel satisfied with their needs being met though their organisational goals (Costantini, Ceschi, Viragos, De Paola, & Sartori, 2019). Pierce and Gardner (2004) identified two main sources of OBSE. The first source is personal control, as the structure around work decreases and personal control increases, employees tend to develop a sense of self-worth. This is because employees see themselves as capable of autonomous action. The second

source is social messages that are received by from mentors, role models, managers, or anybody else who evaluates their work. This might be co-workers and teammates. Costantini et al. (2019) also noted in their research that OBSE is a crucial tool for organisations to boost their work engagement with the positive perceptions of employees as valuable organisational members. Overall, it is expected that workers with stronger OBSE are likely to use the extra energy they must be more engaged at work. Hence, I posit the following:

Hypotheses 4: Organisational-Based Self-Esteem will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

5.4. Psychological contract breach

Psychological contracts consist of unwritten employees' expectations beyond the formal employee contract (Hao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). The nature of psychological contract stems from social exchange theory, representing the mutual exchange. Psychological contracts are a key element to define the nature of employee and employer relationship (Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Robinson and Morrison (2000) stated two core reasons of psychological contract breach: reneging and incongruence. Reneging breach is when an organisation knows and acknowledges the obligation but still fails to meet it, like a promise was made during the recruitment but now the organisation failed to uphold it. Incongruence breach is when there is a different interpretation or understanding of obligations within employee and organisation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000).

Psychological contract is considered to be breached when an employee feels that the organisation has failed to meet the obligations (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Once a psychological breach is established, the engagement level of an employee drops and they are unlikely to be absorbed in their jobs (Lv & Xu, 2018; Soares & Mosquera, 2019).

Parzefall and Hakanen (2010) found that psychological contract fulfilment would lead to higher engagement. In the opposite direction, it is expected that higher psychological contract breach would lead to disengagement. In this respect, employees are expected to be consuming additional resources (e.g., time, energy, relationships etc.) when they are upset that a psychological contract breach has occurred. As such, under COR theory, they have fewer resources to apply to their work and thus are expected to have lower work engagement. This leads to my next hypothesis:

Hypotheses 5: Psychological Contract Breach will be negatively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

5.5. Psychological contract violation

The terms violation and breach have a similar meaning and have been used interchangeably in the psychological contract literature. However, Morrison and Robinson (1997) differentiated these two constructs and stated breach rational evaluation that the organisation has not fulfil its obligation while violation is an affective and emotional experience employee goes through due to the frustration, anger and resentment due to the breach. Hence, violation is an outcome of the breach. Further, it is likely to have an even more detrimental on engagement.

Azeem, Bajwa, Shahzad, and Aslam (2020) stated if employees feel that the organisation has not kept the promises, they tend to develop the intention to leave. Employees with broken promises and unmet expectations will report higher level of disengagement. Thanacoody, Newman, and Fuchs (2014) stated that employees with unmet expectations and psychological contract violations would enter work disengagement stage after being dissatisfied from their job. Work disengagement is a stage where employees detach and withdraw themselves from work to balance the social exchange equation. Thus, psychological contract breach and violation will negatively influence the engagement

levels of employees. Again, under COR theory, the breach of a psychological agreement leaves employees with less resources to focus on their work engagement. This leads to my next hypothesis:

Hypotheses 6: Psychological Contract Violation will be negatively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

5.6. Work-Life Balance (WLB)

Organisations are increasingly focus more on employee health and well-being (Tonkin, Malinen, Näswall, & Kuntz, 2018), as there is huge amount of research available to show that happy employees are more productive when compared to unhappy employees (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005; Pfeffer, 2018; Zelenski, Murphy, & Jenkins, 2008). Haar (2013) defined WLB as "the extent to which an individual is able to adequately manage the multiple roles in their life including work, family, and other major responsibilities" (p. 3308). The researchers have found significant evidence to link WLB to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work engagement and work-related health and well-being (Haar & Brougham, 2020; Haar et al., 2017; Haar, Roche, & ten Brummelhuis, 2018). Haar et al. (2017) found a positive link between servant leadership and WLB, and WLB and work engagement. Importantly, that study supported a mediating effect from WLB, and the present study also considers such effects.

Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003) stated people with better WLB are more satisfied with their jobs. Aryee, Srinivas, and Tan (2005) found with the increase in demands of employee time, work family balance interest has increased. Haar, Sune, Russo, and Ollier-Malaterre (2019) indicated that achieving work-life balance is a challenging due to working hours, nature of jobs, demands of jobs, family demands and burnout due to these demands. Wayne, Musisca, and Fleeson (2004) suggested that a positive experience in one role affects the other role. For instance, a good experience at work may result in better

mood and experiencing better quality family time or vice versa. Haar (2013) suggested that equality of time does not essentially mean successful WLB; instead, it depends on how successfully an individual balances the two roles. Barnett and Hyde (2001) also reported similar findings that the perception of an employee is more important that the number of roles an employee undertake.

In a recent study from New Zealand, Haar and Brougham (2020) found that WLB has an impact on organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Overall, under COR theory, it is expected that employees with greater WLB will represent those individuals with more resources, enabling them to generate stronger work engagement. Further, they found that WLB played a mediating role, whereby work factors around work demands, job autonomy and job control. Indeed, Haar et al. (2017) found WLB mediated the effect of leadership on work engagement, and Haar, Di Fabio, and Daellenbach (2019) found work-life balance mediated the direct effect of positive relational management (a form of leadership). Hence, it is expected that work-life balance will have a similar mediating effect on the direct effects of ethical leadership. In their study of pay fairness, Haar et al. (2018) found work-life balance also mediated this effect. Given the focus on fairness, which aligns well with psychological constructs, it is also expected that work-life balance will mediate the influence of psychological contract breach and violation on outcomes. Finally, while no study has yet explored whether work-life balance mediates the influence of organisational-based self-esteem, the earlier evidence on leadership and pay, and other studies of work factors (e.g., Haar, Sune et al., 2019) would suggest a similar effect. Further, in their meta-analysis, Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, and Alarcon (2010) found organisational-based self-esteem was negatively related to role conflict, which theoretically aligns with work-life balance. Hence, it is expected to be positively related to work-life balance. As such, it is expected the antecedents explored here will all

predict WLB as well, and in turn, WLB will mediate their influence on work engagement. This leads us to my next set of hypotheses:

Hypotheses 7: (a) Ethical Leadership and (b) Organisational-Based Self-Esteem will be positively related to work-life balance.

Hypotheses 7: (c) Psychological Contract Breach and (d) Psychological Contract Violation will be negatively related to work-life balance.

Hypotheses 8: Work-life balance will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

Hypotheses 9: Work-life balance will mediate the influence of (a) ethical leadership, (b) organisational-based self-esteem, (c) psychological contract breach, and (d) psychological contract violation on work engagement.

Beyond the direct and mediated effects around WLB, this study also tests the moderating effect of migrant status. Building on Hypotheses 1, around migrants having additional resources under COR theory, it is expected that an interaction effect, will mean that antecedents (higher ethical leadership, Organisational-Based Self-Esteem, psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation) are expected to be more beneficial to migrants with non-migrants. Thus, the positive effects of ethical leadership and Organisational-Based Self-Esteem will be intensified for migrant workers. Similarly, while psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation are expected to have detrimental effects towards WLB and engagement, the effects are expected to be weaker (less detrimental) for migrant workers. Thus, migrant worker status will act as a moderator and produce beneficial effects. This leads to the next hypotheses.

Hypotheses 10: Migrant status will interact with ethical leadership towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption. Including the mediating effect of work-life balance, it is expected migrant status will (d) moderate the

mediated relationship between ethical leadership→ work-life balance → work engagement.

Hypotheses 11: Migrant status will interact with Organisational-Based Self-Esteem towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption. Including the mediating effect of work-life balance, it is expected migrant status will (d) moderate the mediated relationship between organisational-based self-esteem→ work-life balance → work engagement.

Hypotheses 12: Migrant status will interact with psychological contract breach towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption. Including the mediating effect of work-life balance, it is expected migrant status will (d) moderate the mediated relationship between psychological contract breach → work-life balance → work engagement.

Hypotheses 13: Migrant status will interact with psychological contract violation towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption. Including the mediating effect of work-life balance, it is expected migrant status will (d) moderate the mediated relationship between psychological contract violation → work-life balance → work engagement.

5.7. Perceived Organisation support

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) noted in their research on perceived organisation support began with an observation, the commitment of their employee are if of any concern. In the same research, Eisenberger et al. (1986) provided an organisational support theory which indicated that employees develop perceived organisational support to aid their needs for affiliation, approval and esteem. The benefit of this development was increased work effort.

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) revealed that the fair treatment of employees is a strong contributor to POS. When organisations listen to their employees and treat them with respect and dignity, it creates a powerful impression, that the organisation cares about the well-being of their employees. The employees reciprocate to this impression affective commitment, extra role performance, and reduced withdrawal behaviours.

Saks (2006) stated in his research that POS predicts job and organisation engagement. Employees who perceived higher organisation support, demonstrate higher engagement. Mills, Fleck, and Kozikowski (2013), and Theresa and Caren (2020) also echoed the results in their research and started that the degree of perceived organisation support has a huge impact on commitment of an employee towards the organisation. Anitha (2014) stated Employees with higher sense of support demonstrate more trust towards the organisation and may put more efforts to achieve the goals of the organisation. Eisenberger, Chen, Johnson, Sucharski, and Aselage (2009) and stated that employees with high POS see work more positively and have dominant interest in the organisation while Shantz, Alfes, and Latham (2016) argued that higher POS can compensate for low levels of engagement. Beyond the influence of POS on engagement, similar to study 1, work-life balance is included as a mediator. The links between support and work-life balance have some support (Haar et al., 2019). Further, Amazue and Onyishi (2016) found perceived organisational support was positively related to work-life balance, providing support for the following Hypotheses. Thus, it can be summarised that POS contributes towards engagement and it leads to my next set of hypotheses.

Hypotheses 14: Perceived organisational support will be positively related to work-life balance.

Hypotheses 15: Perceived organisational support will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

Hypothesis 16: Work-life balance will mediate the influence of perceived organisational support on work engagement.

Hypotheses 17: Migrant status will interact with perceived organisational support towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

Hypotheses 18: Migrant time in New Zealand in will interact with perceived organisational support towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.

5.8. Engagement outcomes

It has been long argued by the researchers that work engagement reduces turnover intention. The employees are less likely to leave the organisation if they are engaged (Cain et al., 2018; Harter et al., 2002; Ran & Yuping, 2020; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Work engagement is not an overnight process. Employees engage when they feel supported (Saks, 2006), and develop a sense of belongingness (Costantini et al., 2019) to the organisation. Rodríguez-Muñoz, Sanz-Vergel, Demerouti, and Bakker (2014) found in their research that employees who are engaged at work demonstrate positive affect beyond work setting. The impact of work engagement was established with happiness, positive affect, and enthusiasm. If this is to be true, engaged employees will report less mental health issues like anxiety and depression. Overall, under COR theory, a highly engaged individual has a wealth of resources that enable them to better manage other work-related well-being outcomes like job anxiety, job depression, and job stress. Fundamentally, such individuals are better able to cope and manage work pressures because they have higher engagement.

Similarly, it is also expected that such employees with such higher resources (through high work engagement) will have better positive well-being including positive

affect and happiness. Here, the additional resources through high engagement enable employees to find greater time and energy leaving them in a more positive mood, and generally happier than those less engaged and thus with fewer resources. This leads to the following hypotheses.

Hypotheses 19: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to anxiety.

Hypotheses 20: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to depression.

Hypotheses 21: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to towards anxiety.

Hypotheses 22: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards depression.

Hypotheses 23: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be positively related to positive affect.

Hypotheses 24: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be positively related to happiness.

Hypotheses 25: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to job stress.

Hypotheses 26: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards positive affect.

Hypotheses 27: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards positive affect.

Hypotheses 28: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards happiness.

Hypotheses 29: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards happiness.

Hypotheses 30: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards job stress.

Hypotheses 31: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption dimensions towards job stress.

Towards job outcomes, the present study explores not only turnover intentions which has empirical support (Cain et al., 2018; Harter et al., 2002; Ran & Yuping, 2020; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). We also extend the literature by exploring career satisfaction, which Greenhaus et al. (2003) argues is used to captures an employee's overall satisfaction with their career to date. Under COR theory, it is expected that higher engagement means employees have additional resources they can expend on themselves and their careers – perhaps looking for new opportunities or development options, to provide new career avenues. Hence, it is hypothesised that employees with higher engagement dimensions will report lower turnover intentions and higher career satisfaction. This leads us to my next set of hypotheses.

Hypotheses 32: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Hypotheses 33: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be positively related to career satisfaction.

Hypotheses 34: Migrant status will be positively related to (a) career satisfaction, and (b) negatively related to turnover intentions.

Hypotheses 35: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards career satisfaction.

Hypotheses 36: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards career satisfaction.

Hypotheses 37: Migrant status in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards turnover intentions.

Hypotheses 38: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards turnover intentions.

Chapter Six: Methods

6.1. Participants and Sample

It has been noted that researchers using empirical studies face concerns around the replicability of statistical tests (Nuzzo, 2014). Hence, there is constant calls (Nuzzo, 2014; Tsang & Kwan, 1999) for studies to engage replication to build confidence in the results. Hence, the present study responds to calls for greater replication by conducting two studies. While there is some overlap in antecedents and consequences of work engagement in both studies, there are some differences to broaden the range of factors explored. Because this thesis is particularly focused on examining differences between New Zealand employees and migrant employees, a large sample of employees was chosen for study 1. However, single-sourced cross-sectional data is often critiqued for potential issues around common method bias e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Jeong-Yeon, and Podsakoff (2003). Hence, in study two, a common approach to common method bias were followed (Haar & Spell, 2004) and data was separated with independent variables collected at time 1 (including work engagement constructs) and dependent variables (including the mediator work-life balance) collected one month later (time 2). The argument here is that the time separation ensures responses at time 1 do not influence time 2 responses (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Data for both study 1 and study 2 were collected using a Qualtrics survey panel on a broad range of NZ employees. The inclusion criteria were that respondents had to be working at least 20 hours per week, and Qualtrics samples employees across the whole country, ensuring respondents come from a wide geographic spread of New Zealand. Study 1 was focused on lower income workers and it was felt this likely applied well to the study of migrant workers. It focused on those earning upwards to $60,000 per annum, which is slightly above the New Zealand median wage of $55,120 (Statistics New Zealand, 2020) Study 2 did not limit the sample to income and thus included earners of

$100,000 and above. Full ethics approval was granted for the study (AUT 18/326 Ethical work project) on 03 September 2018. Appendix 10.1 has a copy of the ethics approval letter and appendix 10.2 provides a copy of the survey for study 1 while appendix 10.3 contains the used survey for study 2. The data was collected as part of a larger research project of my supervisor (Professor Jarrod Haar). It has not been used for any other student project. Currently, no data from this study has been published.

The Qualtrics system provides participants who are confidential, anonymous, and quality assured. The Qualtrics approach to data collection has yielded useful employee samples (Carr et al., 2019; Haar, Di Fabio, & Daellenbach, 2019). Further, a recent meta-analysis by Walter, Seibert, Goering, and O'Boyle Jr (2019) compared data from conventional sources and panel data like Qualtrics and found no significant differences between the two approaches.

Study demographics are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Study Demographics

Demographic	Sample 1 New Zealand Workforce	Sample 2 Blue-Collar Workers
Sample	N=870	N=305
Methodology	Single-source data, cross-sectional	Single-source data, across two time periods (one month gap)
Migrant status	39.7% migrant 60.3% NZ born	40.0% migrant 60.0% NZ born
Migrant Ethnicity‡	Asian N=101 Europeans N=74 Indian N=58 NZ Europeans N=58 Pacifika N=22 Other N=43	Asian N=30 NZ Europeans N=16 Indian N=23 Europeans N=37 Pacifika N=4 Other N=5
Non-Migrant Ethnicity‡	NZ Europeans N=442 Māori N=102 Pacifika N=30	NZ Europeans N=150 Māori N=31 Pacifika N=10 Indian N=4 Asian N=9 Other N=16
Gender	32.4% male 67.6% female	45.8% male 54.2% female
Age	40.4 years (SD=14.7)	43.0 years (SD=11.5)
Hours Worked	32.5/week (SD=10.4)	41.3/week (SD=9.9)
Sector	Private=67.4% Public=17.4% Not-for-Profit=15.3%	Private=66.3% Public=25.5% Not-for-Profit=8.2%

‡ exceeds 100% due to multiple answers being possible.
NZ=New Zealand

Overall, both samples (N=870 in study 1 and N=305 in study 2) report a fair number of migrants and even: 39.7% in study 1 and 40.0% in study 2. Both study samples are made up of a wide range of migrants – both dominated by Asians, followed by Europeans and Indians. Pacifika report modest numbers. Interestingly, a consistent small number reported they were not born in New Zealand but now considered themselves a

New Zealander. They did not also report their country of birth. This might reflect the small number of refugees coming to New Zealand who might ultimately now consider themselves 'kiwi'. Study 1 was dominated by male respondents (67.6%), while study 2 was almost even (50.2% males). Both samples had similar aged respondents, averaging 40.4 years in study 1 and 41.0 years in study 2. Study 2 had a significantly higher average hours worked per week at 36.3 hours compared to 32.5 hours in study 1. While both studies had most respondents from the private sector (roughly two thirds), study 1 had a much larger proportion from the not-for-profit sector (15.3%) compared to study 2 with only 3.7%.

6.2. Measures

Many of the same measures were used in study 1 and study 2 and the reliabilities for both studies are provided together. At the end of this section, those outcomes only used in one study are shown.

<u>Work Engagement</u> was measured using the work engagement scale by Schaufeli et al. (2002), coded 1=never, 5=always. This was the short 9-item scale, as opposed to the 17-item full scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). A study by Seppälä et al. (2009), using a large sample of respondents, confirmed the validity of the short scale. Sample items include "At my work, I feel bursting with energy" (<u>Vigour</u>), "I am proud of the work that I do" (<u>Dedication</u>), and "I get carried away when I am working" (<u>Absorption</u>). How studies treat the engagement scale differs. Some studies (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti. Evangelia, & Xanthopoulou, 2007) focus on the individual dimensions of engagement, while other studies combine these three individual engagement dimensions into a single work engagement construct, which captures the engagement construct globally (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009). This is because (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010) argue that employees are expected to report high scores on all dimensions (vigour, dedication, and absorption).

Furthermore, other researchers (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008) have suggested that the three work engagement dimensions might not be the best representation of the construct, stating vigour and dedication could be "considered the core dimensions of engagement" (p. 118) and thus predict the third dimension (absorption). This approach has some followers (Hakanen, Seppälä, & Peeters, 2017; Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2014; Marisa Salanova, Schaufeli, Martínez, & Bresó, 2010; Schmitt, Den Hartog, & Belschak, 2016), although that was not ultimately followed here. Given the lack of studies exploring work engagement amongst migrant workers, the present study retains the more original approach and used the three distinct dimensions, although it is acknowledged that there are other ways that work engagement might be calculated (see above).

Because the work engagement scale has not been well validated in migrant populations, I conducted a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) test in Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to determine the construct factors. I used recommendations by Williams, Vandenberg, and Edwards (2009), to assess model fit with their recommended three goodness-of-fit indices: (1) the comparative fit index (CFI $\geq$.95), (2) the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA $\leq$.08), and (3) the standardised root mean residual (SRMR $\leq$.10). The CFA showed the hypothesised three-factor model was a good fit to the data in study 1: χ^2(df)= 183.4(24), CFI=.97, RMSEA=.08, and SRMR=.04 and study 2: χ^2(df)= 53.0(24), CFI=.99, RMSEA=.06, and SRMR=.03. Four alternative CFA models were run (for both studies) whereby the items were combined (a) for a single factor, (b) combining vigour and dedication, (c) combining vigour and absorption, and (d) combining dedication and absorption. The χ^2 difference test confirmed all were a significantly poorer fit (all p< .001) to the data, following Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010). The overall three-dimension construct had very good reliability for study 1: vigour (α= .85), dedication (α= .87), and absorption (α= .80), and similarly for study 2: vigour (α= .91), dedication (α= .90), and absorption (α= .87).

6.3. Antecedents

In study 1, <u>Ethical Leadership</u> was measured using the 10-item scale by Brown et al. (2005), coded 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. Questions followed the stem "My supervisor…" and sample items are "conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner" and "sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics". This measure had excellent reliability (α= .95).

In study 1 only, Organisational-Based Self-Esteem (<u>OBSE</u>) was measured using five items by Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, and Dunham (1989b) coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. This is the short measure by Scott, Shaw, and Duffy (2008), which is validated in New Zealand samples (Ghafoor & Haar, 2019). A sample item is "I am trusted around here". This measure had very good reliability (α= .88).

In study 1 only, <u>Psychological Contract Breach</u> and <u>Psychological Contract Violation</u> were measured using 5-items and 4-items of the scales by Robinson and Morrison (2000), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. A sample item for Breach is "Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept thus far" (reverse coded). Three items are reversed. Overall, the measure had very good reliability (α= .88). A sample item for violation is "I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organisation". This measure had excellent reliability (α= .96).

In study 2 only, Perceived Organisational Support (<u>POS</u>) was measured with 8-items from Eisenberger et al. (1986), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. This set of questions had the following introduction: "The following page contains questions that are related to your experience with your organisation. Your responses are anonymous. Please be honest and candid". Questions followed the stem "My organisation…" and a sample

item is "really cares about my well-being". This construct is well established, with strong

validity (e.g., Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Eisenberger,

Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe,

Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). The POS construct has been used successfully in New

Zealand samples (e.g., Haar, 2006), including on samples of Māori employees (e.g.,

Hollebeek & Haar, 2012) and on samples of Chinese employees in New Zealand

(Brougham, 2013). The meta-analyses show the construct is highly valid and reliable

(Kurtessis et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen,

2009). The measure had excellent reliability: $\alpha= .89$.

6.4. Mediator

In both studies 1 and 2, Work-Life Balance (WLB) was measured using the 3-item scale

by Haar (2013), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree. A sample item is

"Nowadays, I seem to enjoy every part of my life equally well". This construct has been

well validated (Haar et al., 2017; Haar, Roche, & Brougham, 2019; Haar, Roche, et al.,

2018; Haar, Sune, et al., 2019) including in a multi-cultural study including Māori

employees – the indigenous people of New Zealand (Haar, Russo, Sune, & Ollier-

Malaterre, 2014). This measure had very good reliability for both samples: $\alpha= .86$ (study

1) and $\alpha= .86$ (study 2).

6.5. Moderator

In study 1 and study 2, Migrant Status was calculated from the question "Were you born

in New Zealand?", with responses of yes being coded 1 and no (i.e., being a migrant)

being coded a 2. In study 2 only, the length of time in New Zealand (Migrants Time in

New Zealand) was also explored as a moderator, to determine whether this more

accurately reflected the migrant experience. The item was "If you were not born in NZ,

how many years have you lived here?" and responses were coded 0=New Zealand born, 1=1-4 years, 2=5-8 years, 3=9-12 years, 4=13-16 years, 5=17-20 years, 6=longer than 20 years.

6.6. Consequences

In study 1 only, <u>Anxiety</u> and <u>Depression</u> were measured using six items by (Axtell et al., 2002), coded 1=never, 5=all the time. Presented with three adjectives for each measure, respondents were asked to indicate how often each applied to them while they were at work. A sample item for anxiety was "calm" (reverse coded) and for depression was "excited" (reverse coded). This measure has been well validated (Haar et al., 2014; Spell & Arnold, 2007), including in studies of New Zealand employees (Brougham & Haar, 2013; Haar, 2013). (Axtell et al., 2002) stated that "anxiety can be considered as low pleasure and high mental arousal, whereas depression and sadness can be thought of as low pleasure and low arousal" (p. 222). In the scale, a high score represents higher anxiety or depression, and the two measures had excellent reliability: anxiety (α= .92) and depression (α= .92). Studies often report these two dimensions of mental health are highly correlated but distinct (Roche, Haar, & Luthans, 2014) and use CFA tests (e.g., in SEM) to determine they are distinct.

I conducted a CFA in SEM (AMOS) and following Williams et al. (2009) assessed model fit with their recommended three goodness-of-fit indices (see above). The CFA showed the hypothesised two-factor model was a good fit to the data: χ^2(df)= 92.0(8), CFI=.98, RMSEA=.08, and SRMR=.03. An alternative CFA model was run whereby the items were combined for a single factor, but this was a poorer fit: χ^2(df)= 747.2(9), CFI=.84, RMSEA=.30, and SRMR=.07. We confirmed this was a significantly poorer fit (all p< .001) to the data (Hair, 2010).

In study 2 only, <u>Turnover Intentions</u> was measured using a 4-item measure by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. Sample items are "I intend to ask people about new job opportunities" and "I don't plan to be at my organisation much longer". This measure had excellent reliability for study 2 (α= .95).

In study 2 only, <u>Career Satisfaction</u> was measured using the 5-item scale by Greenhaus et al. (2003), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. A sample question was "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career". This measure has been validated in New Zealand employee research (Haar, 2020) including with minority employees (Haar & Staniland, 2016), and had very good reliability (α= .89).

<u>Positive Affect</u> was measured in study 2 only using five items from D. Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988), coded 1= very slightly or not all, 5=extremely. Respondents were asked to indicate what extent they felt such as "determined" and "excited" and the scale had excellent reliability (α= .91). This scale has been well used in New Zealand research (Haar & Brougham, 2016; Roche et al., 2014).

<u>Happiness</u> was measured by a single-item scale commonly used in happiness research (Bakker, Demerouti, Oerlemans, & Sonnentag, 2013; Demerouti, Shimazu, Bakker, Shimada, & Kawakami, 2013; Haar, Di Fabio, et al., 2019; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Participants were asked to rate their happiness using a 10-point scale (1 = extremely unhappy, 5 = neutral, 10= extremely happy) as per (Bakker et al., 2013).

<u>Job Stress</u> was measured in study 2 only using the 4-item scale by Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning (1986), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. A sample question was "I almost always feel stressed because of my work". The scale had excellent reliability (α= .94). This scale has been used in New Zealand research on minority employees (Haar & Cordier, 2020).

Control Variables. I controlled for factors typical of the various literatures (Hollebeek & Haar, 2012), focusing specifically on work engagement, although including specific predictors such as ethical leadership (Ng & Feldman, 2015). The demographic variables were: Age (in years), and Job Tenure (in years) because there is meta-analytic support towards work outcomes (Blegen, 1993; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Ng & Feldman, 2009, 2010), Next, Gender (1=male, 2=female) and Hours Worked (hours per week) were controlled for, because these demographic factors have been found related to work outcomes (ten Brummelhuis, Haar, & van der Lippe, 2010), including on minority employees (Haar & Brougham, 2016). Finally, Haar, Carr, et al. (2018), found income can influence work outcomes similar to those explored here (e.g., work-life balance). Thus, Income was controlled for (1=up to $20,000 per annum, 2= $20,001-$40,000 per annum, 3= $40,001-$60,000, and 4= $60,001 or more per annum).

6.7. Analysis

Hypotheses were tested using PROCESS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2013, 2018), in SPSS (version 25). PROCESS was selected because the PROCESS macros allows for more complex models to be analysed in SPSS, including moderation, and moderated mediation (Hayes, 2018; Hayes & Preacher, 2013). Lewis and Sznitman (2017) define the PROCESS as "an SPSS macro that uses a path analytical framework for estimating direct and indirect effects based on OLS regression models" (p.192). This approach involves bootstrapping the sampling distribution of the indirect effect and obtaining its confidence interval" (pp. 192-193). Bootstrapping analysis is used for mediation analysis (including moderated mediation) and is based on 5,000 bootstraps. Regarding the robustness of the PROCESS approach, Hayes, Montoya, and Rockwood (2017), compared SEM and PROCESS analysis of moderated mediation equations and found them to be practically identical.

Direct effect and mediation effects were tested using PROCESS model 4, while moderation and moderated mediation tests were run in PROCESS model 59, which allows migrant status as the moderator to be tested across all relationships (i.e., antecedents to mediator: work-life balance, antecedents to consequences, and mediator: work-life balance to consequences). For the relationships between work engagement dimensions and anxiety and well-being in study 1, model 1 was used. Appendix A shows the study models that were tested. All models included the control variables (gender, age, tenure, hours worked, and income).

Chapter Seven: Results

7.1. Study 1 Results

The study model for the first part of study 1 is shown in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3. Study 1 Theoretical Model (Part A)
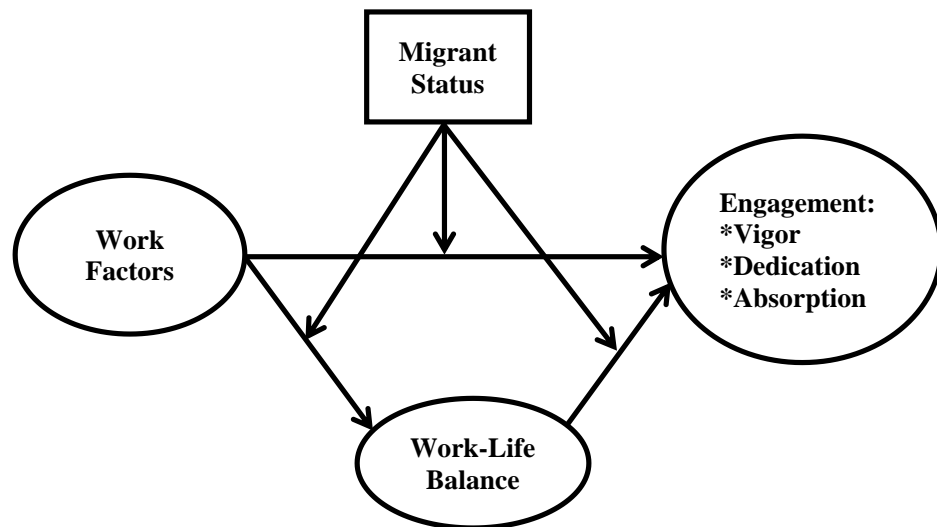
Descriptive statistics for the study variables from Study 1 are shown in Tables 2a and 2b.

Table 2: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables (Study 1)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age	40.4	14.7	--						
2. Job Tenure	6.06	8.04	.43**	--					
3. Hours Worked	32.5	10.4	-.08*	.02	--				
4. Income	2.16	.78	.14**	.17**	.51**	--			
5. Ethical Leadership	3.50	.87	-.07	.01	-.05	-.05	--		
6. Org-Based Self-Esteem	3.97	.69	.10**	.08*	-.01	.01	.47**	--	
7. Psychological Contract Breach	2.62	.85	.02	.04	.09*	.02	-.59**	-.42**	--
8. Psychological Contract Violation	2.21	1.07	-.05	-.01	.06	-.01	-.46**	-.34**	.72**
9. Work-Life Balance	3.43	.89	.13**	.11**	-.11**	.04	.42**	.39**	-.34**
10. Vigour	3.67	1.05	.17**	.12**	.04	.07*	.37**	.46**	-.32**
11. Dedication	3.86	1.10	.22**	.15**	.01	.08*	.39**	.51**	-.34**
12. Absorption	3.70	1.07	.14**	.14**	.09**	.12**	.31**	.43**	-.24**
13. Anxiety	2.85	1.08	-.09**	-.08*	.07*	.01	-.46**	-.43**	.47**
14. Depression	2.89	1.11	-.06	.04	.03	-.02	-.48**	-.53**	.45**

N=870, *p<.05, **p<.01.

Table 3: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables (Study 1)

Variables	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age							
2. Job Tenure							
3. Hours Worked							
4. Income							
5. Ethical Leadership							
6. Org-Based Self-Esteem							
7. Psychological Contract Breach							
8. Psychological Contract Violation	--						
9. Work-Life Balance	-.24**	--					
10. Vigour	-.23**	.45**	--				
11. Dedication	-.26**	.45**	.75**	--			
12. Absorption	-.14**	.35**	.65**	.73**	--		
13. Anxiety	.35**	-.46**	-.53**	-.51**	-.40**	--	
14. Depression	.32**	-.51**	-.65**	-.69**	-.57**	.74**	--

N=870, *p<.05, **p<.01.

Tables 2 and 3 show that the three work engagement dimensions are all significantly correlated with each other ($.76 < r > .64$, all $p< .01$). Amongst the antecedents, ethical leadership, organisational-based self-esteem, psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation are all significantly correlated with the three work engagement dimensions in the expected directions (all $p< .01$). Similarly, work-life balance is significantly correlated with each of the three work engagement dimensions ($.46 < r > .35$, all $p< .01$). Finally, the three work engagement dimensions are significantly correlated with anxiety and depression in the expected directions ($-.75 < r > -.39$, all $p< .01$).

7.1.1. Direct and Mediation Effects (Study 1)

The results of the direct and mediation effects from Study 1 with work engagement dimensions as the outcome are shown in Figure 3-6.

Figure 4: Model of Direct and Mediation Findings – Ethical Leadership (Study 1)
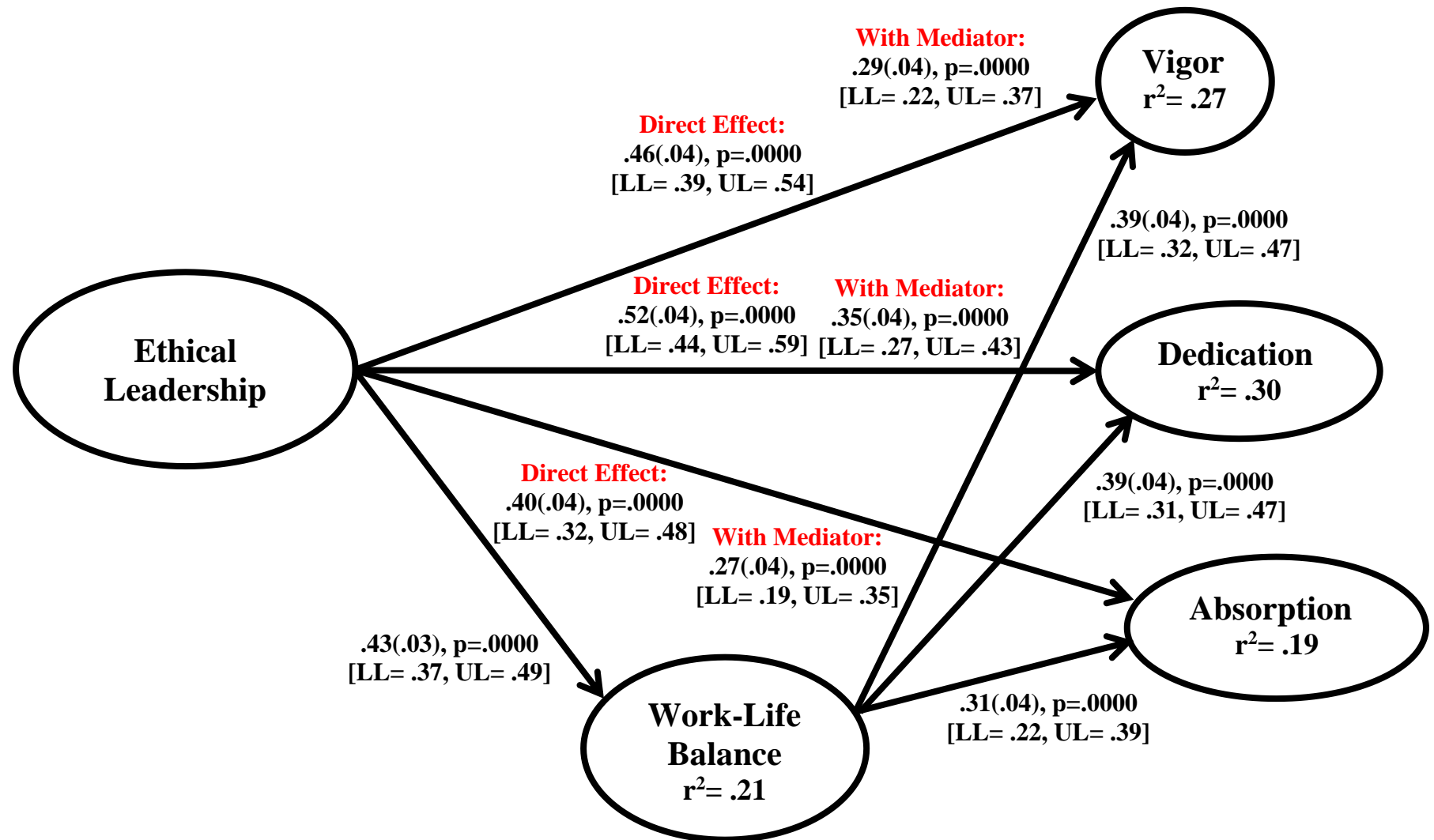
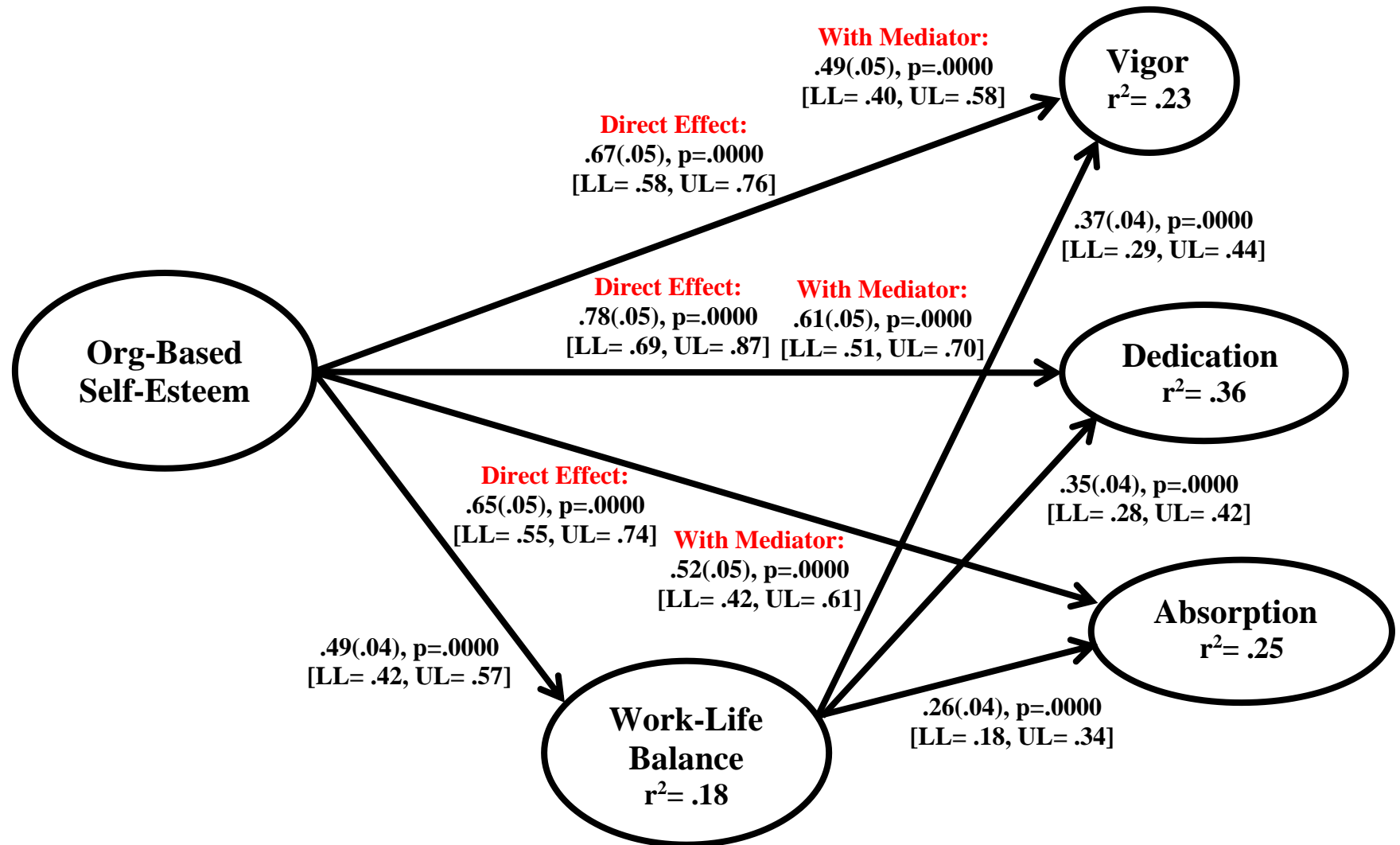Figure 5: Model of Direct and Mediation Findings – Org-Based Self-Esteem (Study 1)

Figure 6: Model of Direct and Mediation Findings – Psychological Contract Breach (Study 1)
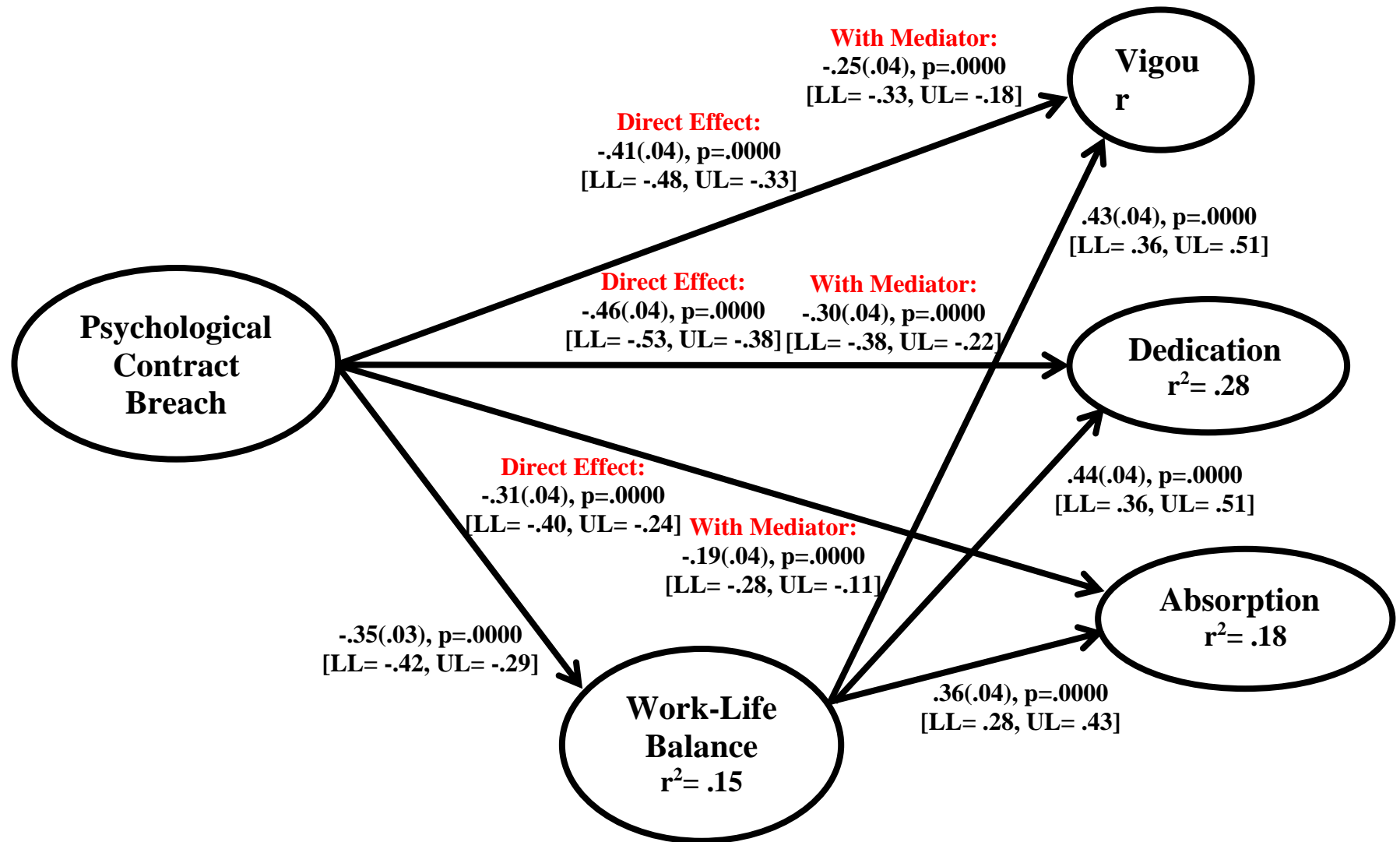
Figure 7: Model of Direct and Mediation Findings – Psychological Contract Violation (Study 1)

With Mediator:
-.13(.03), p=.0000
[LL= -.19, UL= -.07]

Direct Effect:
-.22(.03), p=.0000
[LL= -.28, UL= -.16]

Direct Effect: **With Mediator:**
-.26(.03), p=.0000   **-.16(.03), p=.0000**
[LL= -.32, UL= -.19] **[LL= -.22, UL= -.10]**

.48(.04), p=.0000
[LL= .41, UL= .55]

Direct Effect:
-.14(.03), p=.0000
[LL= -.21, UL= -.08]   **With Mediator:**
-.07(.03), p=.0391
[LL= -.13, UL= -.00]

.49(.04), p=.0000
[LL= .42, UL= .57]

-.19(.03), p=.0000
[LL= -.24, UL= -.13]

.40(.04), p=.0000
[LL= .32, UL= .48]

Psychological Contract Violation

Vigor
r^2= .24

Dedication
r^2= .26

Absorption
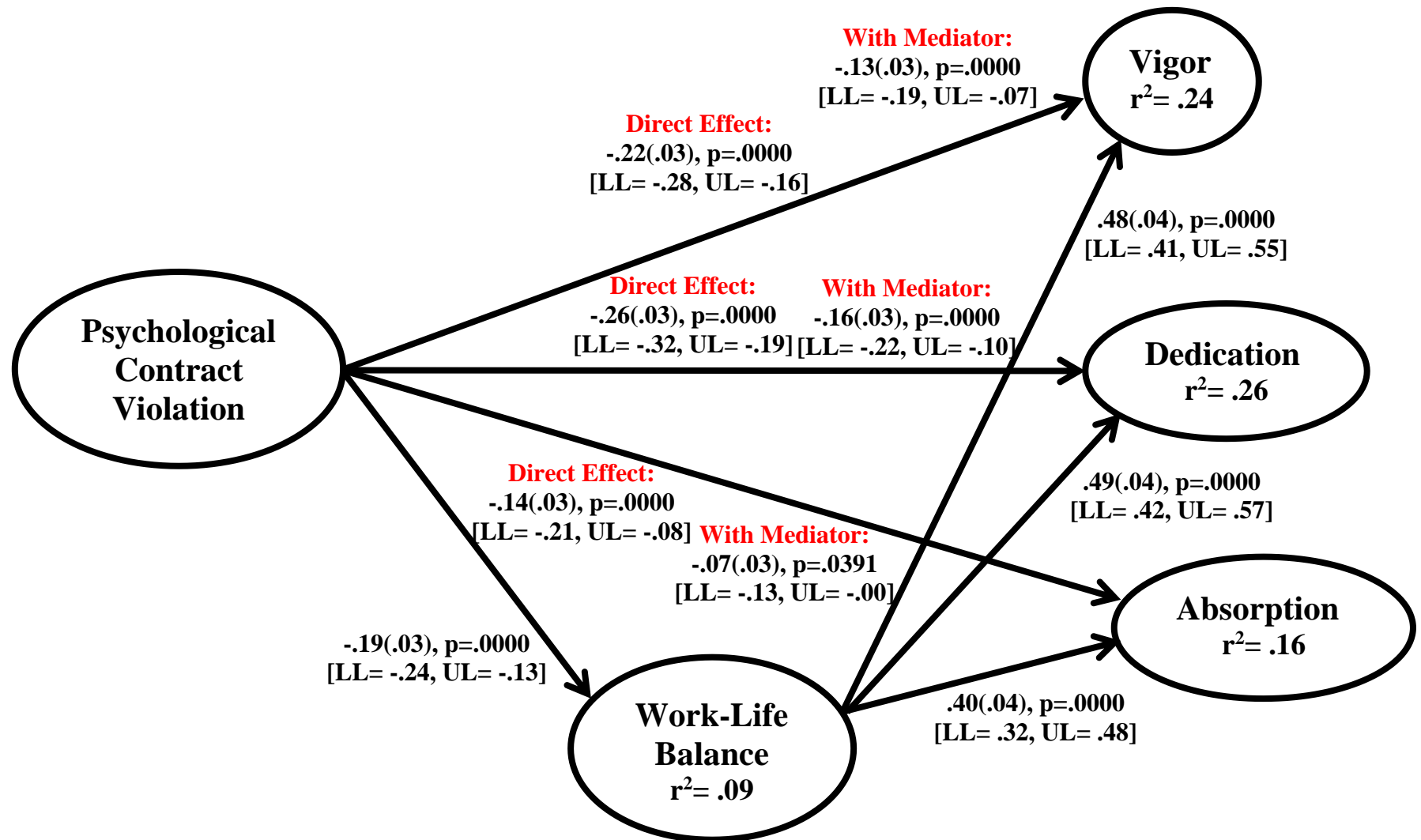r^2= .16

Work-Life Balance
r^2= .09

Figure 4 has ethical leadership as the antecedent towards the three dimensions of work engagement. Figure 4 shows that ethical leadership is significantly related to vigour (β= .46(.04), p< .0001, LL= .39, UL= .54), dedication (β= .52(.04), p< .0001, LL= .44, UL= .59), and absorption (β= .40(.04), p< .0001, LL= .32, UL= .48). This supports hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c. Ethical leadership is significantly related to work-life balance (β= .43(.03), p< .0001, LL= .37, UL= .49), supporting hypothesis 7a. Further, work-life balance is significantly related to all work engagement dimensions: vigour (β= .39(.04), p< .0001, LL= .32, UL= .47), dedication (β= .39(.04), p< .0001, LL= .31, UL= .47), and absorption (β= .31(.04), p< .0001, LL= .22, UL= .39). This supports hypothesis 8. When work-life balance is included in the model, there is consistent mediation effects of the direct effect of ethical leadership on work engagement dimensions, although at all stages, ethical leadership effects stay significant: vigour (β= .29(.04), p< .0001, LL= .22, UL= .37), dedication (β= .35(.04), p< .0001, LL= .27, UL= .43), and absorption (β= .27(.04), p< .0001, LL= .19, UL= .35). Further, the indirect effects of ethical leadership are all significant: vigour (β= .17(.02), p< .0001, LL= .13, UL= .22), dedication (β= .17(.02), p< .0001, LL= .13, UL= .22), and absorption (β= .13(.02), p< .0001, LL= .09, UL= .18). Overall, this supports hypothesis 9a although only partial mediation effects.

Figure 5 explored organisational-based self-esteem as the antecedent towards the three dimensions of work engagement, and again, it is significantly related to all work engagement dimensions: vigour (β= .67(.05), p< .0001, LL= .58, UL= .76), dedication (β= .78(.05), p< .0001, LL= .69, UL= .87), and absorption (β= .65(.05), p< .0001, LL= .55, UL= .74). This supports hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c. Organisational-based self-esteem is significantly related to work-life balance (β= .49(.04), p< .0001, LL= .42, UL= .57), supporting hypothesis 7b. Further, work-life balance is significantly related to all work engagement dimensions (different from the above numbers because there is a different predictor, but all effects are similar and all p< .0001). When work-life balance is included

in the model, there is consistent mediation effects of the direct effect of organisational-based self-esteem on work engagement dimensions, although organisational-based self-esteem remains significant: vigour (β= .49(.05), p< .0001, LL= .40, UL= .58), dedication (β= .61(.05), p< .0001, LL= .51, UL= .70), and absorption (β= .52(.05), p< .0001, LL= .42, UL= .61). Again, the indirect effects of organisational-based self-esteem are all significant: vigour (β= .18(.03), p< .0001, LL= .13, UL= .24), dedication (β= .17(.03), p< .0001, LL= .13, UL= .23), and absorption (β= .13(.02), p< .0001, LL= .08, UL= .18). Overall, this supports hypothesis 9b although only partial mediation effects.

Figure 6 explored psychological contract breach as the antecedent towards the three dimensions of work engagement, and again, it is significantly related to all work engagement dimensions: vigour (β= -.41(.04), p< .0001, LL= -.48, UL= -.33), dedication (β= -.46(.04), p< .0001, LL= -.53, UL= -.38), and absorption (β= -.31(.04), p< .0001, LL= -.40, UL= -.24). This supports hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c. Psychological contract breach is significantly related to work-life balance (β= -.35(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.42, UL= -.29), supporting hypothesis 7c. Further, work-life balance is significantly related to all work engagement dimensions (different from the above numbers because there is a different predictor, but all effects are similar and all p< .0001). When work-life balance is included in the model, there is consistent mediation effects of the direct effect on psychological contract breach effects towards work engagement dimensions, although again, it remains a significant predictor: vigour (β= -.25(.04), p< .0001, LL= -.33, UL= -.18), dedication (β= -.30(.04), p< .0001, LL= -.38, UL= -.22), and absorption (β= -.19(.04), p< .0001, LL= -.28, UL= -.11). The indirect effects of psychological contract breach are all significant: vigour (β= -.15(.02), p< .0001, LL= -.20, UL= -.11), dedication (β= -.15(.02), p< .0001, LL= -.20, UL= -.11), and absorption (β= -.12(.02), p< .0001, LL= -.16, UL= -.09). Overall, this supports hypothesis 9c although only partial mediation effects.

Figure 7 explored psychological contract violation as the antecedent towards the

three dimensions of work engagement, and again, it is significantly related to all work engagement dimensions: vigour (β= -.22(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.28, UL= -.16), dedication (β= -.26(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.32, UL= -.19), and absorption (β= -.14(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.21, UL= -.08). This supports hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c. Psychological contract violation is significantly related to work-life balance (β= -.19(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.24, UL= -.13), supporting hypothesis 7d. Further, work-life balance is significantly related to all work engagement dimensions (different from the above numbers because there is a different predictor, but all effects are similar and all p< .0001). When work-life balance is included in the model, there is consistent mediation effects of the direct effect on psychological contract violation effects towards work engagement dimensions, although again, it remains a significant predictor: vigour (β= -.13(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.19, UL= -.07), dedication (β= -.16(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.22, UL= -.10), and absorption (β= -.07(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.13, UL= -.00). The indirect effects of psychological contract breach are all significant: vigour (β= -.09(.02), p< .0001, LL= -.13, UL= -.06), dedication (β= -.09(.02), p< .0001, LL= -.13, UL= -.06), and absorption (β= -.07(.01), p< .0001, LL= -.10, UL= -.05). Overall, this supports hypothesis 9d although only partial mediation effects.

7.1.2. Moderation Effects (Study 1)

The results of the moderation and moderated mediation effects from Study 1 with ethical leadership predicting work engagement dimensions as the outcome are shown in Table 3. This also shows the significant control variable effects.

Table 4: Summary of Moderation and Moderated Mediated Results from Ethical
Leadership to Work Engagement Dimensions as the Outcomes (Study 1 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Age → WLB	.01(.00)	LL= .00, UL= .01	.0010
Hours Worked → WLB	-.01(.00)	LL= -.02, UL= -.01	.0002
Income → WLB	.12(.04)	LL= .04, UL= .20	.0045
Age → Vigour	.01(.00)	LL= .01, UL= .02	.0000
Hours Worked → Vigour	.01(.00)	LL= .00, UL= .02	.0090
Age → Dedication	.01(.00)	LL= .01, UL= .02	.0000
Age → Absorption	.01(.00)	LL= .00, UL= .01	.0028
Hours Worked → Absorption	.01(.00)	LL= .01, UL= .02	.0013
Moderator:			
Migrant Status → WLB	.04(.06)	LL= -.07, UL= .15	.5000
Migrant Status → Vigour	-.01(.04)	LL= -.10, UL= .08	.8504
Migrant Status → Dedication	-.02(.07)	LL= -.14, UL= .11	.8115
Migrant Status → Absorption	-.02(.07)	LL= -.16, UL= .11	.7355
Interactions:			
EL x Migrant Status → WLB	-.01 (.06)	LL= -.14, LU= .11	.8484
EL x Migrant Status → Vigour	.09(.08)	LL= -.07, LU= .24	.2690
WLB x Migrant Status → Vigour	-.19(.08)	LL= -.34, LU= -.04	.0150
EL x Migrant Status → Dedication	.12(.08)	LL= -.04, LU= .28	.1517
WLB x Migrant Status → Dedication	-.08(.08)	LL= -.24, LU= .08	.3203
EL x Migrant Status → Absorption	.07(.09)	LL= -.10, LU= .24	.4010
WLB x Migrant Status → Absorption	-.05(.08)	LL= -.22, LU= .11	.5289
Index of Moderated Mediation:			
EL → WLB → Vigour x Migrant Status	-.09(.05)	LL= -.17, LU= -.00	.0284
EL → WLB → Dedication x Migrant Status	-.04(.05)	LL= -.13, LU= .06	.2033
EL → WLB → Absorption x Migrant Status	-.03(.04)	LL= -.11, LU= .06	.2744

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
WLB=work-life balance, EL=Ethical Leadership

Table 4 firstly shows that there is no significant direct effect from migrant status towards work-life balance, vigour, dedication or absorption (all p> .05). Hence, we find no support for Hypothesis 1. There is no significant interaction effect between ethical leadership and migrant status towards work-life balance (p> .05), and similarly towards any work engagement dimension (all p> .05). There is a significant interaction effect between work-life balance and migrant status towards vigour (β= -.19(.08), p= .0150, LL= -.34, UL= -.04), although towards dedication and absorption, the effects are non-significant (p> .05). This supports hypothesis 9a but does not support 9b, and 9c. Finally, there is a significant index of moderated mediation between ethical leadership → work-life balance → vigour with minority status moderating (index= -.09(.05), p= .0284, LL= -.17, UL= -.00). There is non-significant index of moderated mediation towards dedication and absorption. The graphed interactions are shown in Figures 8 and 9 to illustrate effects.

Figure 8: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Work-Life Balance with Vigour as Dependent Variable (Study 1)
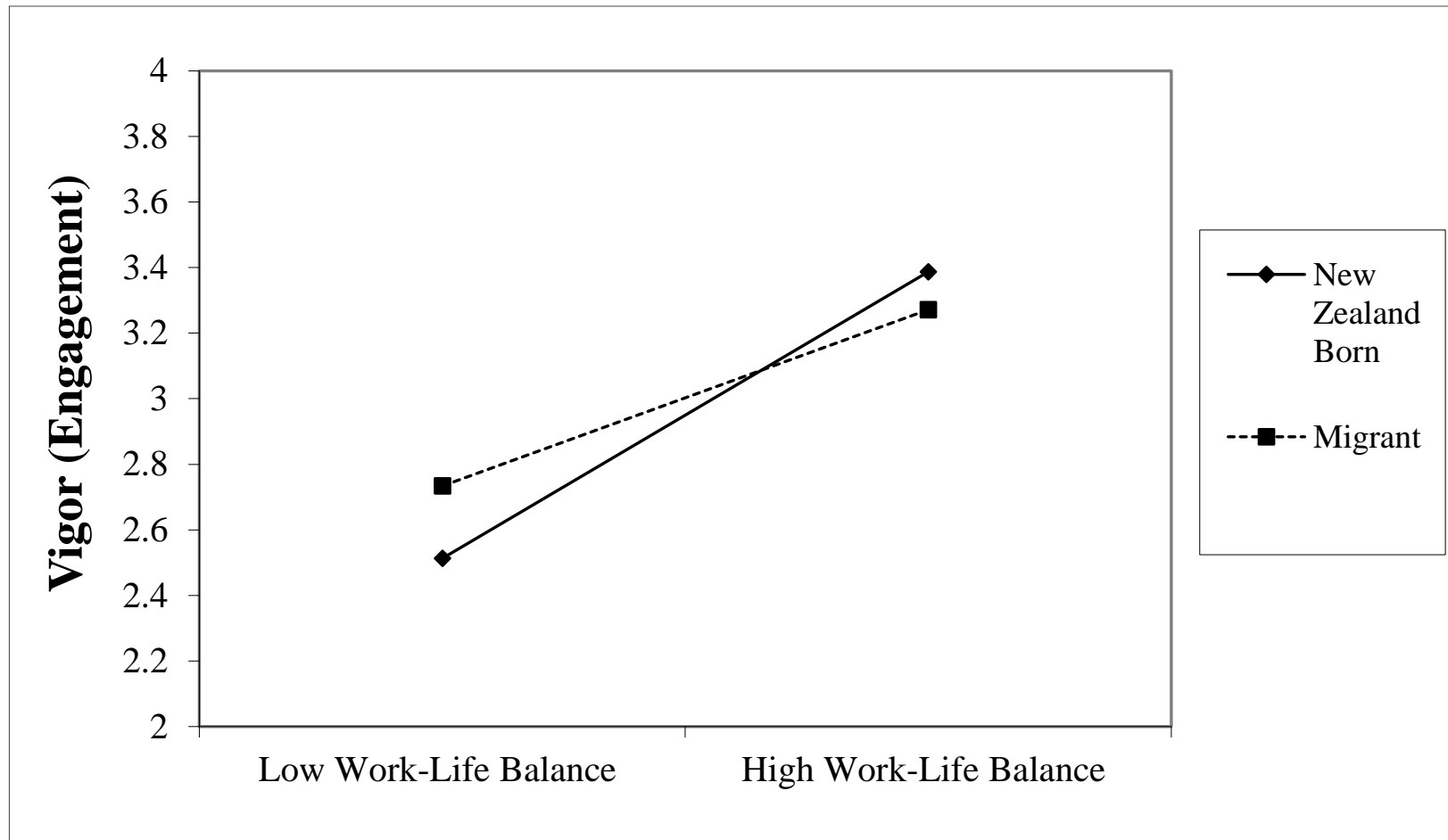
Figure 9: Indirect Effects of Ethical Leadership Through Work-Life Balance on Vigour conditional on Migrant Status (Study 1)
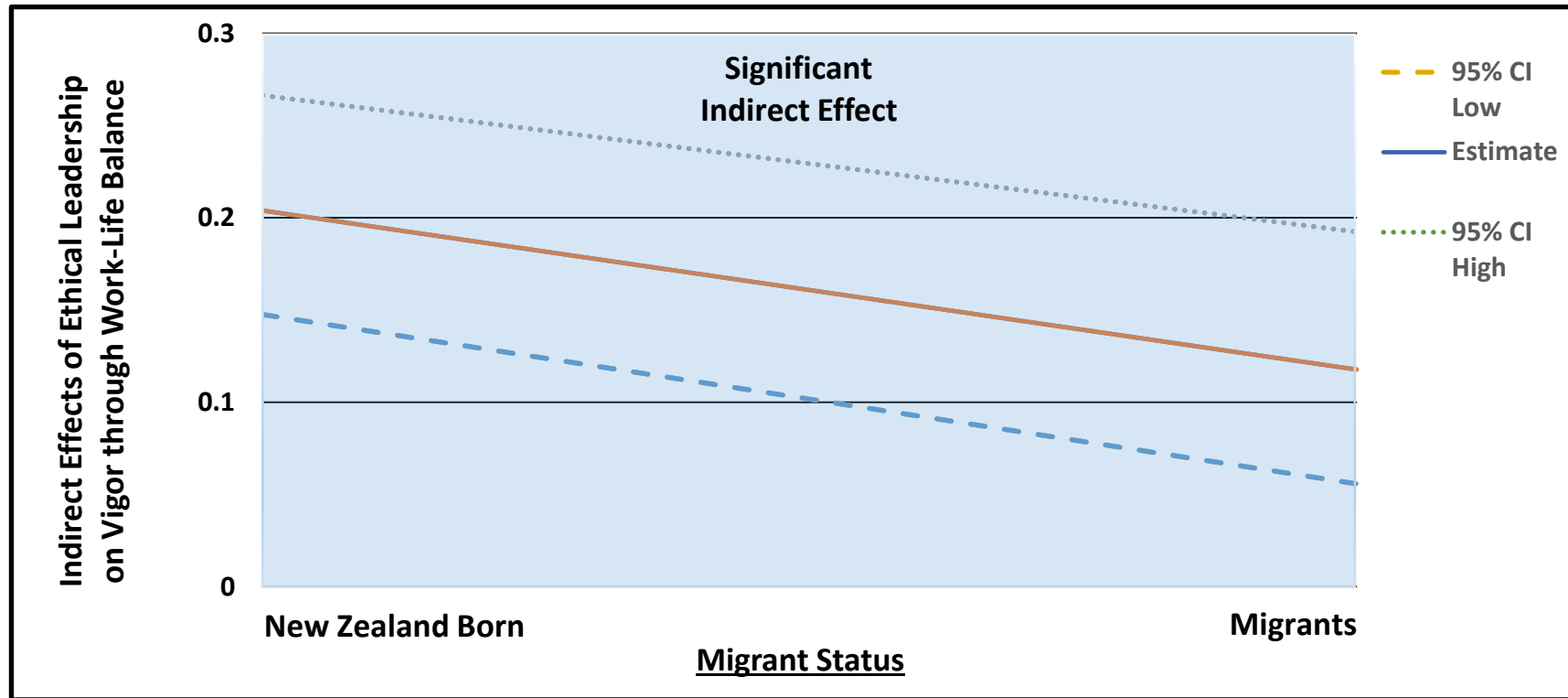
Figure 8 shows that at low levels of work-life balance, respondents who are migrants report significantly higher vigour than New Zealand born respondents. At high levels of work-life balance, all these respondents report significantly higher vigour. Here though, respondents who are New Zealand born report higher vigour compared to migrants, although the difference between these two groups is small. The effects do not fully support the intensification effect of migrant status but do provide some support at low levels of ethical leadership.

Figure 9 follows the approach of Wayne, Lemmon, Hoobler, Cheung, and Wilson (2017), whereby probing the conditional indirect effect is done by examining the magnitude and significance of the indirect effect of ethical leadership on vigour through work-life balance at the two levels of migrant status: (a) New Zealand born and (b) migrants. The findings indicate that for respondents who are New Zealand born, the indirect effect of ethical leadership on vigour vis-à-vis work-life balance is positive, large, and statistically significant (estimate = .20(.03), p< .0001; LLCI = .1476; ULCI = .2663), while the indirect for migrant workers is also statistically significant and positive, but more modest in strength (estimate = .12(.03), p= .0003; LLCI = .0557; ULCI = .1923). The indirect effect is significant across the 95% confidence intervals, with migrant status acting as a boundary condition whereby New Zealand born respondents report a stronger indirect effect from ethical leadership. This is against the hypothesis and does not support hypotheses 10a, 10b, and 10c.

Finally, Table 4 shows that there are a number of significant effects from the control variables. Age is significantly related to work-life balance (β= .01(.00), p= .0010, LL= .00, UL= .01), vigour (β= .01(.00), p< .0001, LL= .00, UL= .02), dedication (β= .01(.00), p< .0001, LL= .00, UL= .02), and absorption (β= .01(.00), p= .0028, LL= .00, UL= .01). Hours worked are also significantly related to work-life balance (β= -.01(.00), p= .0002,

LL= -.02, UL= -.00), vigour (β= .01(.00), p= .0090, LL= .00, UL= .02), and absorption

(β= .01(.00), p= .0013, LL= .01, UL= .02). Finally, income is significantly related to

work-life balance (β= .12(.04), p= .0045, LL= .04, UL= .20).

The results of the moderation and moderated mediation effects from Study 1 with

organisational-based self-esteem predicting work engagement dimensions as the outcome

are shown in Table 5. The direct effect of migrant status and control variables are not

repeated – see Table 4 for those details.

Table 5: Summary of Moderation and Moderated Mediated Results from
Organisational-Based Self-Esteem to Work Engagement Dimensions as the Outcomes
(Study 1 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Interactions:			
OBSE x Migrant Status → WLB	-.22(.08)	LL= -.38, LU= -.06	.0076
OBSE x Migrant Status → Vigour	.11(.09)	LL= -.08, LU= .30	.2554
WLB x Migrant Status → Vigour	-.12(.07)	LL= -.26, LU= .03	.1158
OBSE x Migrant Status → Dedication	-.01(.10)	LL= -.20, LU= .18	.9338
WLB x Migrant Status → Dedication	.05(.08)	LL= -.09, LU= .20	.4695
OBSE x Migrant Status → Absorption	.06(.10)	LL= -.14, LU= .26	.5630
WLB x Migrant Status → Absorption	.03(.08)	LL= -.12, LU= .19	.6894
Index of Moderated Mediation:			
OBSE → WLB → Vigour x Migrant Status	-.13(.05)	LL= -.23, LU= -.03	.0039
OBSE → WLB → Dedication x Migrant Status	-.05(.05)	LL= -.15, LU= .05	.1458
OBSE → WLB → Absorption x Migrant Status	-.04(.05)	LL= -.14, LU= .05	.1830

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
WLB=work-life balance, OBSE=organisational-based self-esteem

Table 5 firstly shows that there is a significant interaction effect from migrant status on

organisational-based self-esteem towards work-life balance (β= -.22(.08), p= .0076, LL=

-.38, UL= -.06), supporting hypothesis 10d. However, there is no significant interaction

effects between organisational-based self-esteem and migrant status towards any work

engagement dimension (all p> .05), failing to support hypotheses 11a, 11b, 11c. Finally, there is a significant index of moderated mediation between organisational-based self-esteem → work-life balance → vigour with minority status moderating (index= -.13(.05), p= .0039, LL= -.23, UL= -.03), although there is non-significant index of moderated mediation towards dedication and absorption. This does not support hypothesis 11d. The graphed interactions are shown in Figures 10 and 11 to illustrate effects.

Figure 10: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Organisational-Based Self-Esteem with Work-Life Balance as Dependent Variable (Study 1)
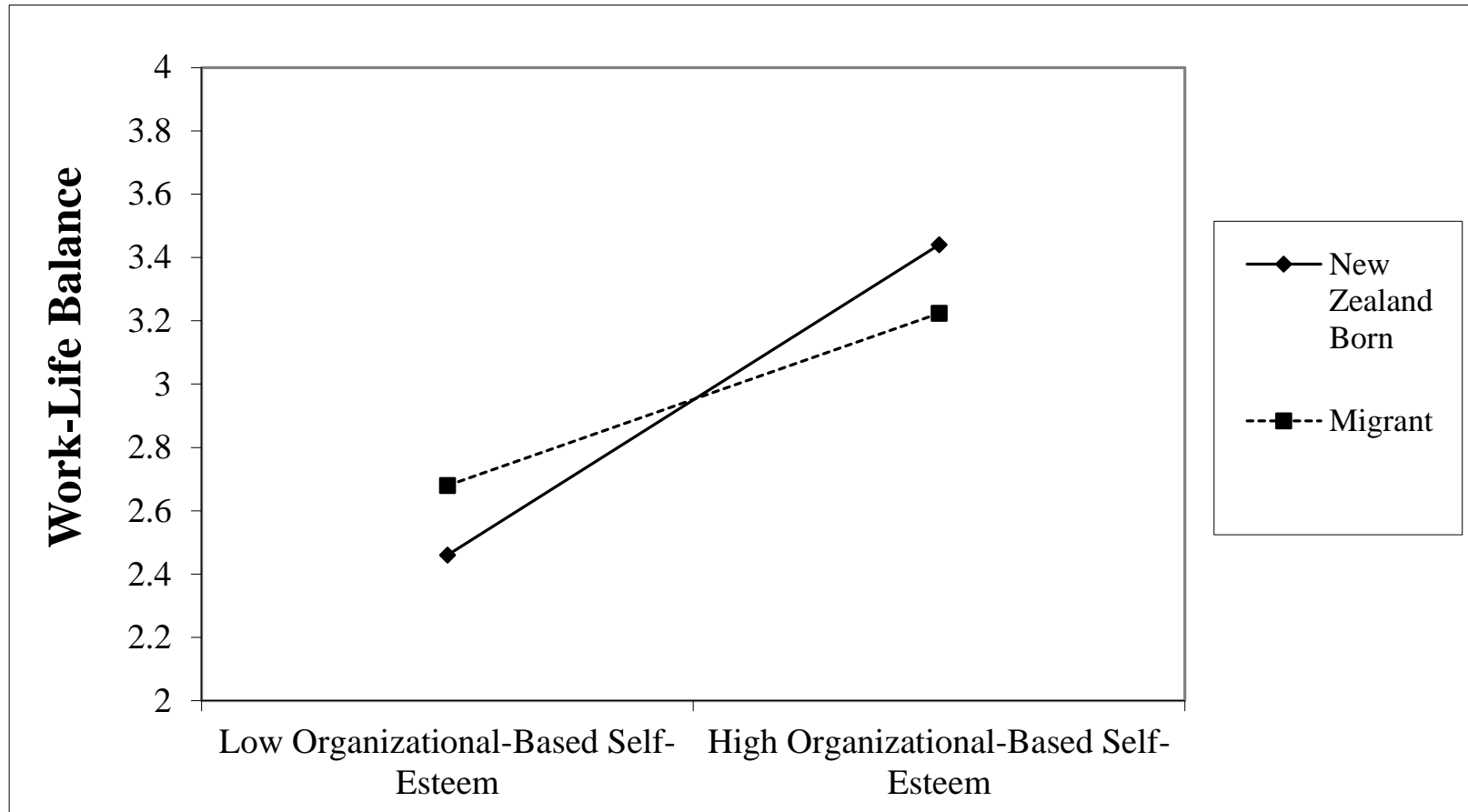
Figure 11: Indirect Effects of Organisational-Based Self-Esteem Through Work-Life Balance on Vigour conditional on Migrant Status (Study 1)
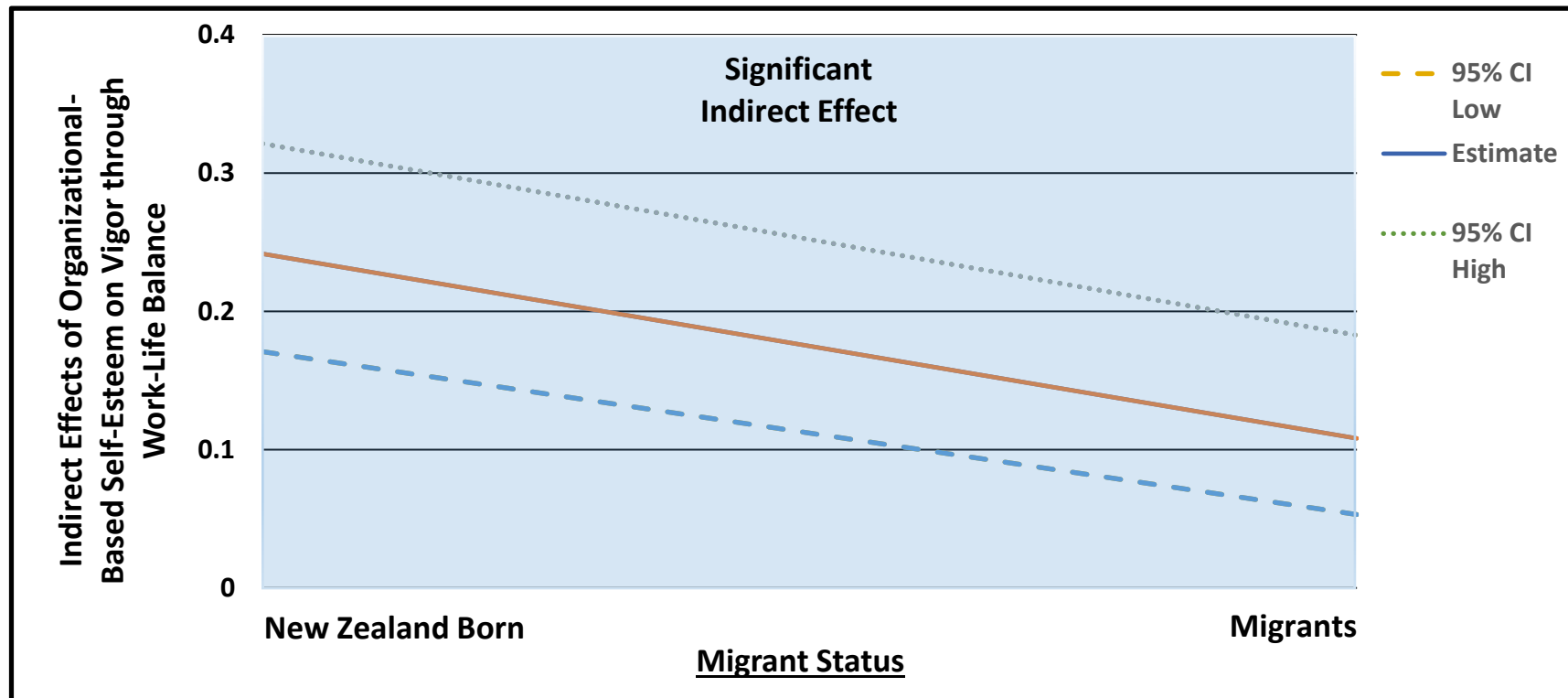
Figure 10 shows that at low levels of organisational-based self-esteem, respondents who are migrants report significantly higher vigour than non-migrants. At high levels of organisational-based self-esteem, all these respondents report significantly higher vigour. Here though, respondents who are non-migrants (i.e., born in New Zealand) report significantly higher vigour compared to migrants. The effects do not support the intensification effect of migrant status but do provide some support at low levels of organisational-based self-esteem.

Figure 11 probes the conditional indirect effect (i.e., Wayne et al., 2017) by examining the magnitude and significance of the indirect effect of organisational-based self-esteem on vigour through work-life balance at the two levels of migrant status: (a) New Zealand born and (b) migrants. The findings indicate that for respondents who are New Zealand born, the indirect effect of organisational-based self-esteem on vigour vis-à-vis work-life balance is significant, positive, and large (estimate = .24(.04), p< .0001; LLCI = .1709; ULCI = .3213), while the indirect for migrant workers is also statistically significant and positive, but more modest in strength (estimate = .11(.03), p= .0006; LLCI = .0532; ULCI = .1827). Overall, the indirect effect is significant across the 95% confidence intervals, with migrant status acting as a boundary condition whereby New Zealand born respondents report a stronger indirect effect from organisational-based self-esteem. This is against the hypothesis and does not support hypothesis 11d.

The results of the moderation and moderated mediation effects from Study 1 with psychological contract breach predicting work engagement dimensions as the outcome are shown in Table 6. The direct effect of migrant status and control variables are not repeated – see Table 4 for those details.

Table 6: Summary of Moderation and Moderated Mediated Results from Psychological Contract Breach to Work Engagement Dimensions as the Outcomes (Study 1 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Interactions:			
PCB x Migrant Status → WLB	.10(.07)	LL= -.03, LU= .24	.1357
PCB x Migrant Status → Vigour	-.15(.08)	LL= -.31, LU= -.01	.0281
WLB x Migrant Status → Vigour	-.17(.08)	LL= -.32, LU= -.02	.0255
PCB x Migrant Status → Dedication	-.12(.08)	LL= -.28, LU= .04	.1329
WLB x Migrant Status → Dedication	-.03(.08)	LL= -.19, LU= .12	.6767
PCB x Migrant Status → Absorption	-.15(.09)	LL= -.32, LU= .01	.0729
WLB x Migrant Status → Absorption	-.05(.08)	LL= -.21, LU= .11	.5680
Index of Moderated Mediation:			
PCB → WLB → Vigour x Migrant Status	.10(.04)	LL= .02, LU= .18	.0068
PCB → WLB → Dedication x Migrant Status	.06(.04)	LL= -.03, LU= .13	.0929
PCB → WLB → Absorption x Migrant Status	.05(.04)	LL= -.03, LU= .13	.0975

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
WLB=work-life balance, PCB=psychological contract breach

Table 6 shows that there are only two significant interaction effects from migrant status, one being with psychological contract breach towards vigour (β= -.15(.08), p= .0281, LL= -.31, UL= -.01) and with work-life balance towards vigour (β= -.17(.08), p= .0255, LL= -.32, UL= -.02), supporting hypotheses 12a. However, there are no significant interaction effects (all p> .05). Beyond the two-way significant interactions, there is also a significant index of moderated mediation between psychological contract breach → work-life balance → vigour with minority status moderating (index= .10(.04), p= .0068, LL= .02, UL= .18), although there is a non-significant index of moderated mediation towards dedication and absorption. This does not support hypothesis 12d. The graphed interactions are shown in Figures 12 and 13 to illustrate effects. The interaction effect of migrant status and work-life balance is not repeated as shown earlier (Figure 7).

Figure 12: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Psychological Contract Breach with Vigour as Dependent Variable (Study 1)
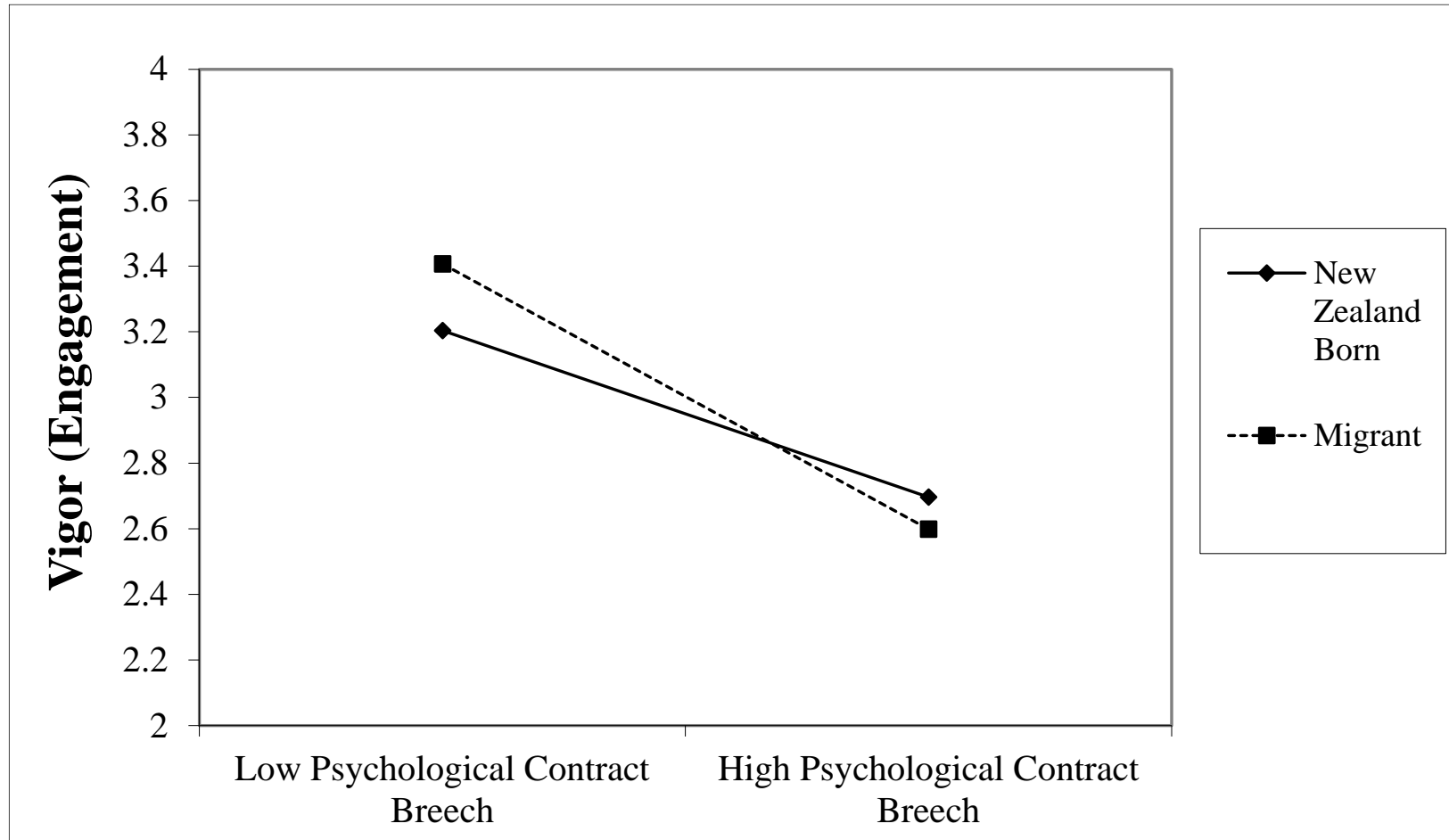
Figure 13: Indirect Effects of Psychological Contract Breach Through Work-Life Balance on Vigour conditional on Migrant Status (Study 1)
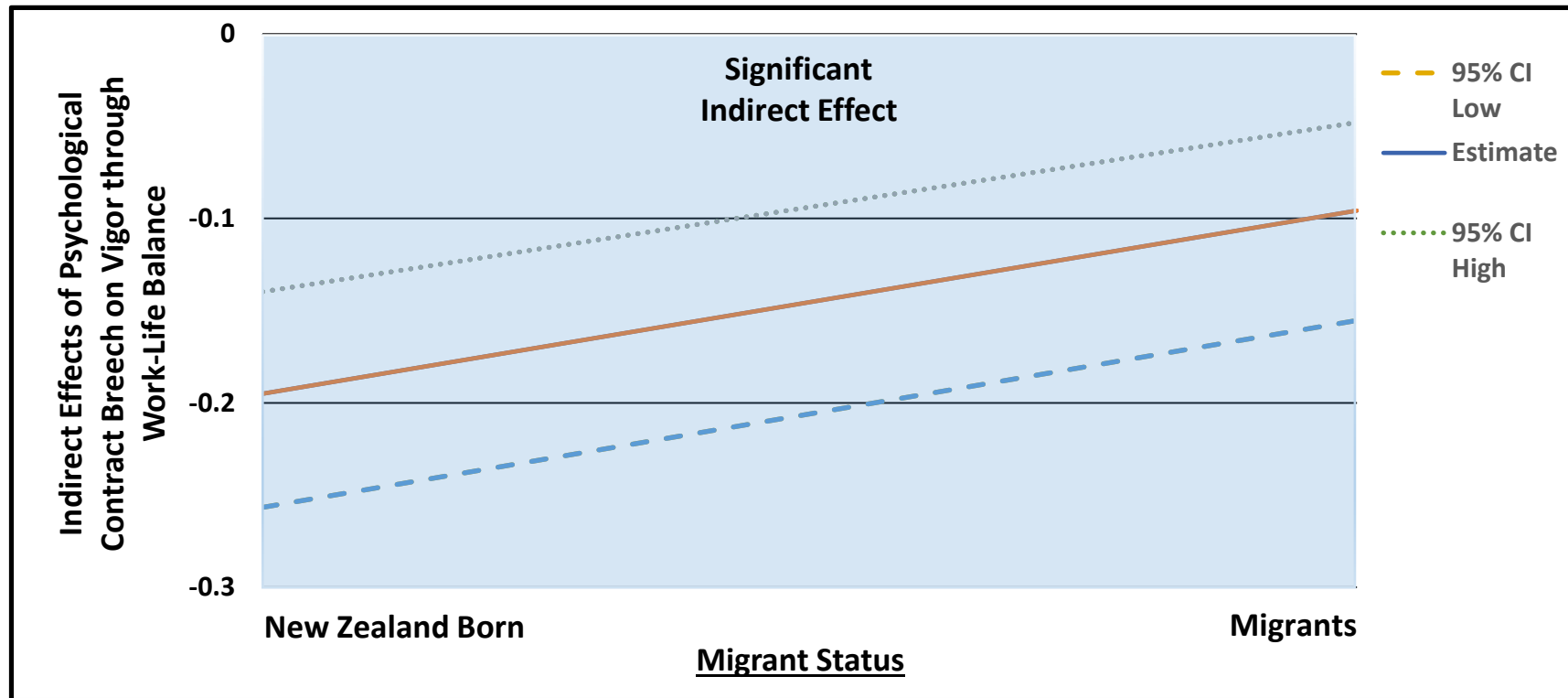
Figure 12 shows that at low levels of psychological contract breach, respondents who are migrants report significantly higher vigour than non-migrants (New Zealand born respondents). At high levels of psychological contract breach, all these respondents report a significant drop in vigour. Here though, respondents do not differ significantly by migrant status, reporting similarly low levels of vigour. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status although only at low levels of psychological contract breach.

Figure 13 probes the conditional indirect effect (Wayne et al., 2017) by examining the magnitude and significance of the indirect effect of psychological contract breach on vigour through work-life balance at the two levels of migrant status: (a) New Zealand born and (b) migrants. The findings indicate that for respondents who are New Zealand born, the indirect effect of psychological contract breach on vigour vis-à-vis work-life balance is significant, negative, and modest in effect size (estimate = -.20(.03), p< .0001; LLCI = -.26; ULCI = -.14), while the indirect for migrant workers is also statistically significant and negative, but smaller in effect size (estimate = -.10(.03), p= .0002; LLCI = -.16; ULCI = -.05). Overall, the indirect effect is significant across the 95% confidence intervals, with migrant status acting as a boundary condition whereby migrants are less detrimentally influenced by psychological contract breach compared to New Zealand born respondents. This supports the beneficial hypothesis and thus supports hypothesis 12d.

The results of the moderation and moderated mediation effects from Study 1 with psychological contract violation predicting work engagement dimensions as the outcome are shown in Table 7. The direct effect of migrant status and control variables are not repeated – see Table 4 for those details.

Table 7: Summary of Moderation and Moderated Mediated Results from Psychological Contract Violation to Work Engagement Dimensions as the Outcomes (Study 1 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Interactions:			
PCV x Migrant Status → WLB	.08(.06)	LL= -.03, LU= .19	.1485
PCV x Migrant Status → Vigour	-.10(.06)	LL= -.08, LU= . 18	.1058
WLB x Migrant Status → Vigour	-.16(.07)	LL= -.31, LU= -.02	.0302
PCV x Migrant Status → Dedication	-.13(.06)	LL= -.26, LU= -.00	.0465
WLB x Migrant Status → Dedication	-.04(.08)	LL= -.19, LU= .11	.5916
PCV x Migrant Status → Absorption	-.14(.07)	LL= -.27, LU= -.01	.0392
WLB x Migrant Status → Absorption	-.05(.08)	LL= -.21, LU= .11	.5390
Index of Moderated Mediation:			
PCV → WLB → Vigour x Migrant Status	.07(.03)	LL= .00, LU= .13	.0249
PCV → WLB → Dedication x Migrant Status	.05(.03)	LL= -.02, LU= .11	.0838
PCV → WLB → Absorption x Migrant Status	.04(.03)	LL= -.02, LU= .10	.0884

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
WLB=work-life balance, PCV=psychological contract violation

Table 7 shows that there are three significant interaction effects from migrant status, one being with work-life balance, which replicates the findings shown above. Further, migrant status interacts significantly with psychological contract violation towards dedication (β= -.13(.06), p= .0465, LL= -.26, UL= -.00) and towards absorption (β= -.14(.07), p= .0392, LL= -.27, UL= -.01), supporting hypotheses 12b and 12c. However, there are no other significant interaction effects (all p> .05). Beyond the two-way significant interactions, there is also a significant index of moderated mediation between psychological contract violation → work-life balance → vigour with minority status moderating (index= .07(.03), p= .0249, LL= .00, UL= .13), although the other index of moderated mediation scores towards dedication and absorption are non-significant. This failed to support hypothesis 12d. The graphed interactions are shown in Figures 14 to 16 to illustrate effects. The interaction effect of migrant status and work-life balance is not repeated as shown earlier (Figure 8).

Figure 14: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Psychological Contract Violation with Dedication as Dependent Variable (Study 1)
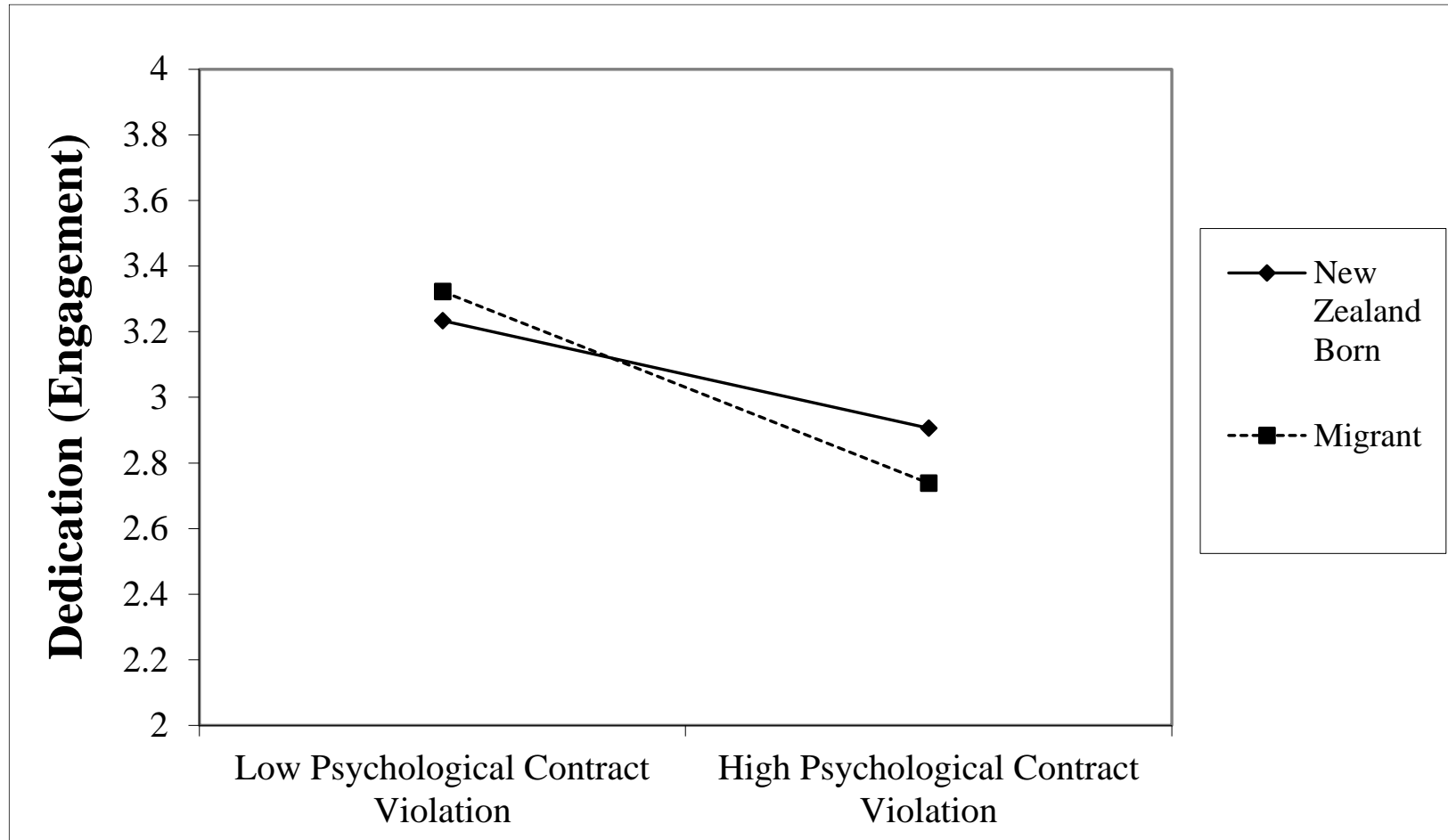
Figure 15: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Psychological Contract Violation with Absorption as Dependent Variable (Study 1)
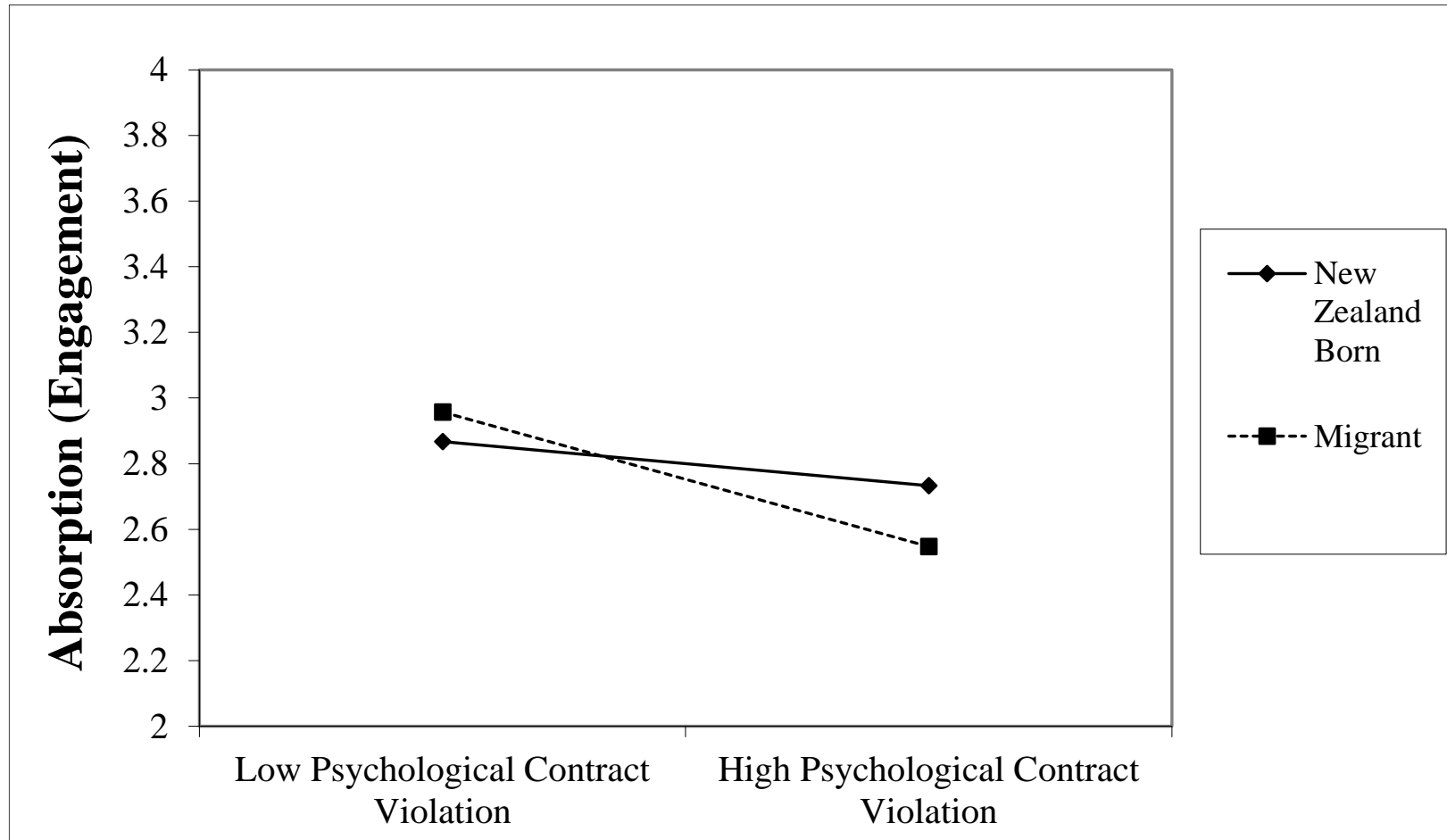
Figure 16: Indirect Effects of Psychological Contract Violation Through Work-Life Balance on Vigour conditional on Migrant Status (Study 1)
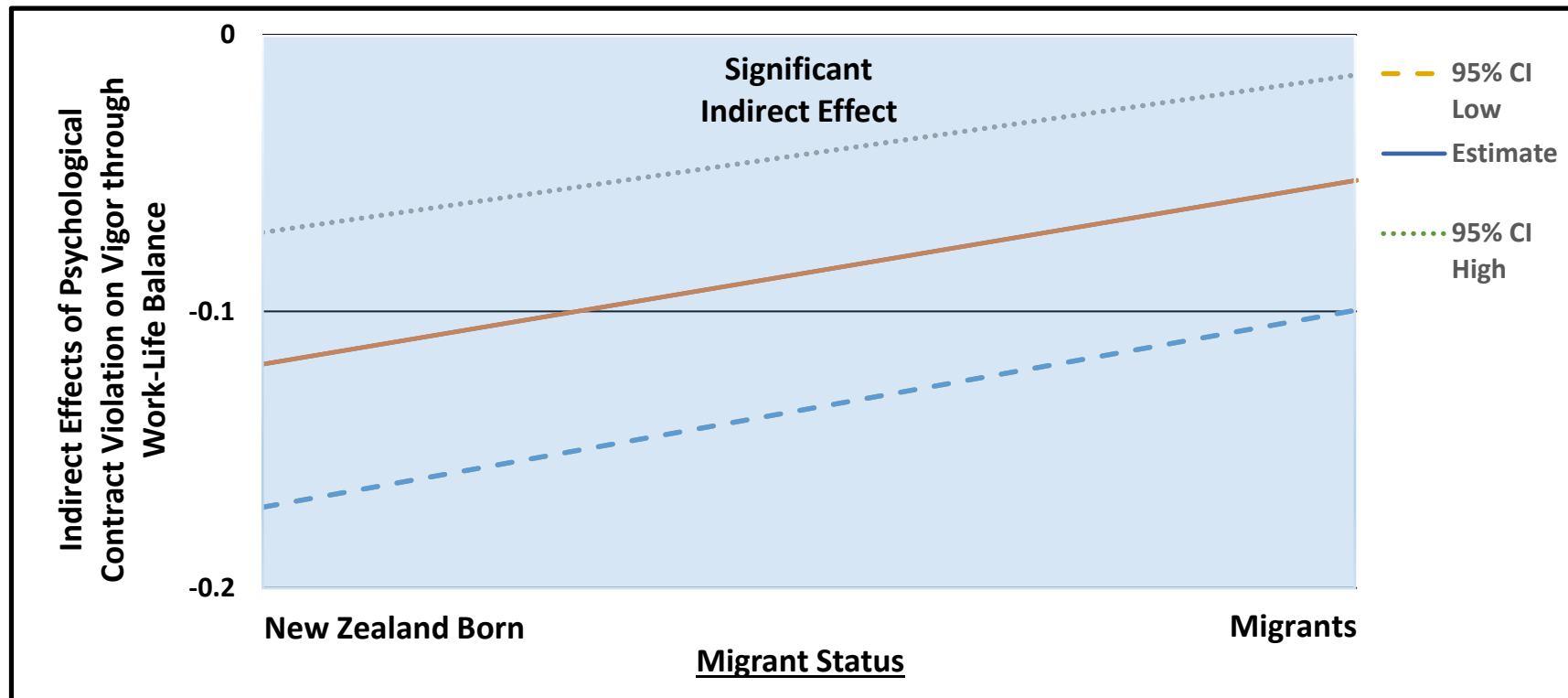
Figure 14 shows that at low levels of psychological contract violation, respondents who are migrants report similarly high levels of dedication as New Zealand born respondents. At high levels of psychological contract violation, all respondents in this group report a significant drop in dedication. Here though, respondents who are migrants report a significantly stronger drop in dedication than New Zealand born respondents. The effects do not support the beneficial effect of migrant status, failing to support the hypothesis 12b.

Figure 15 shows that at low levels of psychological contract violation, respondents who are migrants report similarly high levels of absorption as New Zealand born respondents. At high levels of psychological contract violation, all respondents in this group report a significant drop in absorption. Again though, against the hypothesised effect, respondents who are migrants report a significantly stronger drop in absorption than New Zealand born respondents. The effects do not support the beneficial effect of migrant status, failing to support the hypothesis 12c.

Finally, Figure 16 probes the conditional indirect effect (i.e., Wayne et al., 2017) by examining the magnitude and significance of the indirect effect of psychological contract violation on vigour through work-life balance at the two levels of migrant status: (a) New Zealand born and (b) migrants. The findings indicate that for respondents who are New Zealand born, the indirect effect of psychological contract violation on vigour vis-à-vis work-life balance is significant, negative, and modest in effect size (estimate= -.12(.03), $p < .0001$; LLCI= -.17; ULCI= -.07), while the indirect for migrant workers is also statistically significant and negative, but smaller in effect size (estimate = -.05(.02), $p= .0077$; LLCI = -.10; ULCI = -.01). Overall, the indirect effect is significant across the 95% confidence intervals, with migrant status acting as a boundary condition whereby migrants are less detrimentally influenced by psychological violation breach compared to

New Zealand born respondents. This supports the beneficial hypothesis and thus supports

hypothesis12a.

7.1.3. Well-being Outcomes (Study 1)

The study model for the second and final part of study 1 is shown in Figure 17 below.

Figure 17: Study 1 Theoretical Model (Part B)
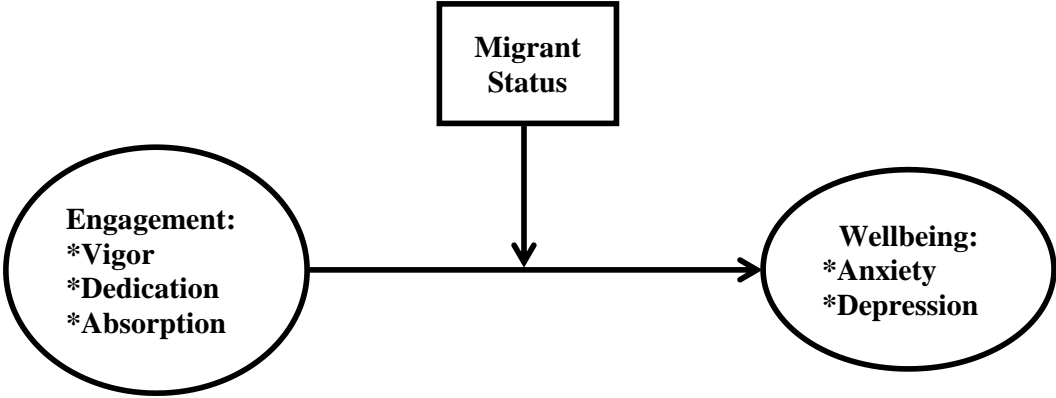
The results of the direct effects of work engagement dimensions and the moderation

effects from minority status (Study 1) towards anxiety and depression outcomes are

shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Summary of Direct and Moderation Results from Work Engagement
Dimensions to Anxiety and Depression (Study 1 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Gender → Anxiety	.23(.07)	LL= .10, UL= .36	.0006
Hours Worked → Anxiety	.01(.00)	LL= .01, UL= .02	.0010
Age → Depression	.01(.00)	LL= .00, UL= .01	.0250
Hours Worked → Depression	.01(.00)	LL= .00, UL= .01	.0267
Predictor			
Vigour → Anxiety	-.55(.03)	LL= -.61, UL= -.49	.0000
Dedication → Anxiety	-.51(.03)	LL= -.57, UL= -.46	.0000
Absorption → Anxiety	-.41(.03)	LL= -.47, UL= -.35	.0000
Vigour → Depression	-.70(.03)	LL= -.75, UL= -.64	.0000
Dedication → Depression	-.73(.03)	LL= -.78, UL= -.68	.0000
Absorption → Depression	-.61(.03)	LL= -.66, UL= -.55	.0000
Moderator:			
Migrant Status → Anxiety	.07(.06)	LL= -.05, UL= .20	.2597
Migrant Status → Depression	-.03(.06)	LL= -.15, UL= .62	.6228
Interactions:			
Vigour x Migrant Status → Anxiety	.02(.06)	LL= -.11, LU= .14	.8068
Dedication x Migrant Status → Anxiety	.10(.06)	LL= -.01, LU= .21	.0778
Absorption x Migrant Status → Anxiety	-.03(.06)	LL= -.16, LU= .10	.6324
Vigour x Migrant Status → Depression	.01 (.06)	LL= -.10, LU= .12	.8469
Dedication x Migrant Status → Depression	.10(.05)	LL= .01, LU= .20	.0388
Absorption x Migrant Status → Depression	-.03(.06)	LL= -.15, LU= .09	.6295

Total Variance (r^2): Anxiety   .33
                              Depression .52

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.

Table 8 shows that all three work engagement dimensions are significantly related to anxiety: vigour (β= -.55(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.61, UL= -.49), dedication (β= -.51(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.57, UL= -.46), and absorption (β= -.41(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.47, UL= -.35). Similarly, all three work engagement dimensions are significantly related to depression: vigour (β= -.705(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.75, UL= -.64), dedication (β= -.73(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.78, UL= -.68), and absorption (β= -.61(.03), p< .0001, LL= -.66, UL= -.55). This supports hypotheses 19 and 20. While migrant status is not significantly directly related to either anxiety or depression (both p> .05), there is a significant interaction with the engagement dimension of dedication towards depression (β= .10(.05), p= .0388, LL= .01, UL= .20) supporting hypothesis 22b. Amongst the control variables, gender is significantly related to anxiety (β= .23(.07), p= .0006, LL= .10, UL= .36), while work hours are significantly related to both anxiety (β= .01(.00), p= .0010, LL= .01, UL= .02) and depression (β= .01(.00), p= .0267, LL= .00, UL= .01). Finally, age is significantly related to depression β= .01(.00), p= .0250, LL= .00, UL= .01). The model accounts for large amounts of variance towards anxiety (33%) and depression (52%). The graphed interaction is shown in Figure 18 to illustrate effects.

Figure 18: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Dedication with Depression as Dependent Variable (Study 1)

Figure 18 shows that at low levels of work engagement dedication, respondents who are migrants report significantly lower levels of anxiety than New Zealand born respondents. At high levels of work engagement dedication, all respondents in this group report a significant drop in anxiety. Here though, respondents who are migrants report similarly low levels of anxiety as New Zealand born respondents. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status although more at low levels of work engagement dedication, providing some support for the hypothesis 21b.

7.2. Study 2 Results

The study model for the antecedents of work engagement (part 1 of study 2) is shown in Figure 19 while the work engagement to work and well-being outcomes (part 2 of study 2) are shown in in Figure 20.

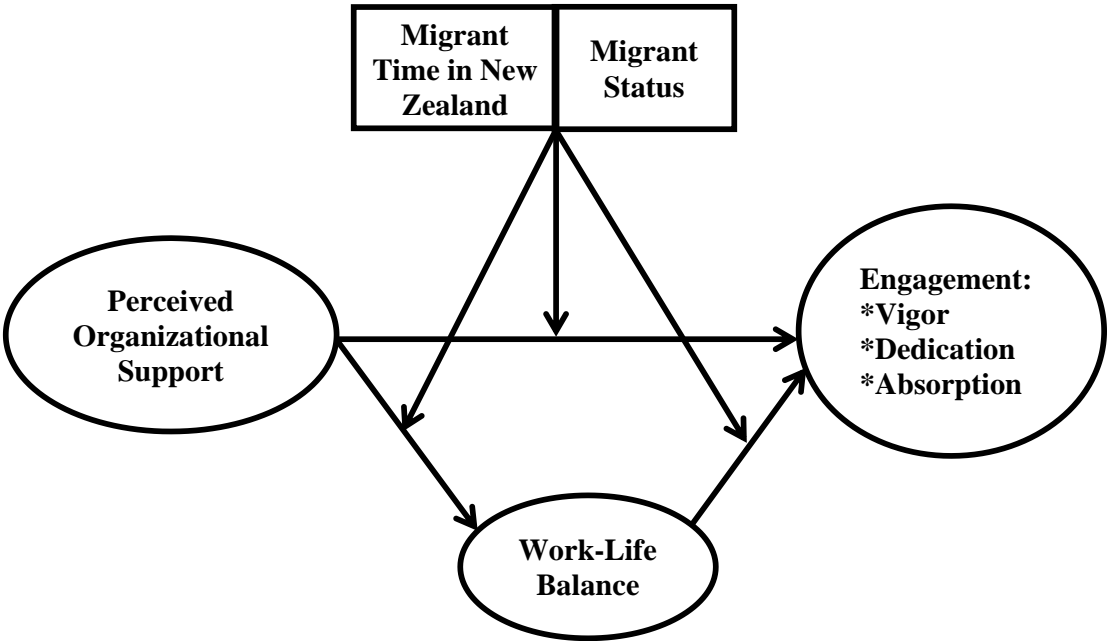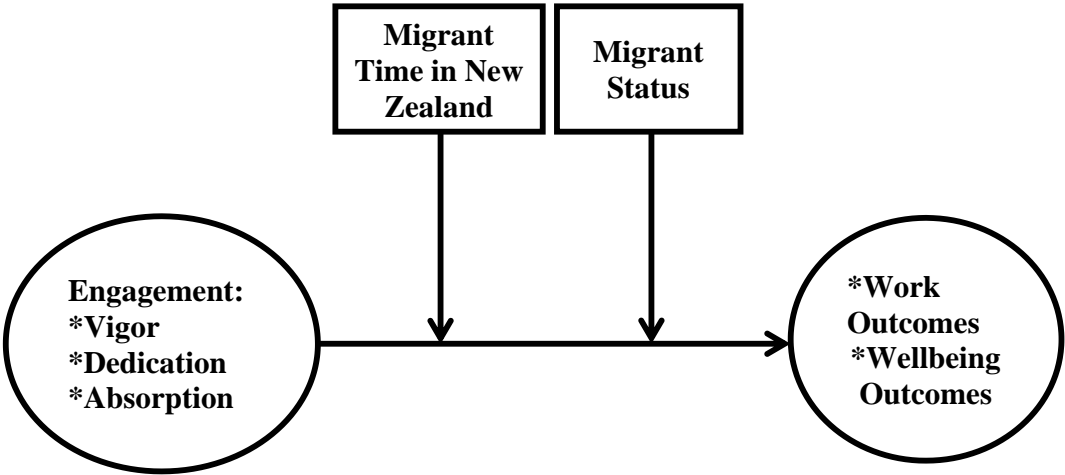Figure 19: Study 2 Theoretical Model (Part A)

Figure 20: Study 2 Theoretical Model (Part B)

Descriptive statistics for the study variables from Study 2 are shown in Tables 9 and 10.

Table 9: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables (Study 2)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age	43.0	11.5	--						
2. Job Tenure	41.3	9.89	-.01	--					
3. Hours Worked	7.92	6.24	.37**	.19**	--				
4. Income	3.26	1.38	.09	.24**	.15**	--			
5. Perceived Organisational Support	3.46	.84	.02	.04	-.11*	-.02	--		
6. Work-Life Balance	3.48	.86	.03	-.11	-.02	.05	.40**	--	
7. Vigour	3.50	1.11	.21**	-.11	-.02	-.06	.44**	.47**	--
8. Dedication	3.68	1.11	.18**	-.09	-.05	-.05	.45**	.41**	.81**
9. Absorption	3.62	1.06	.20**	-.11	-.07	-.10	.37**	.27**	.71**
10. Turnover Intentions	2.87	1.11	-.14*	.02	-.07	.03	-.50**	-.40**	-.40**
11. Career Satisfaction	3.34	.94	.01	-.09	-.07	.13*	.39**	.50**	.45**
12. Positive Affect	3.24	.91	-.02	.01	-.08	.08	.35**	.51**	.53**
13. Happiness	6.55	2.37	.04	-.13*	-.09	-.07	.46**	.50**	.59**
14. Job Stress	2.92	1.02	-.08	.12*	.03	.06	-.42**	-.54**	-.35**

N=305, *p<.05, **p<.01.

Table 10: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables (Study 2)

Variables	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age							
2. Job Tenure							
3. Hours Worked							
4. Income							
5. Perceived Organisational Support							
6. Work-Life Balance							
7. Vigour							
8. Dedication	--						
9. Absorption	.78**	--					
10. Turnover Intentions	-.44**	-.30**	--				
11. Career Satisfaction	.50**	.37**	-.40**	--			
12. Positive Affect	.50**	.40**	-.22**	.46**	--		
13. Happiness	.50**	.41**	-.44**	.50**	.50**	--	
14. Job Stress	-.30**	-.18**	.43**	-.27**	-.27**	-.45**	--

N=305, *p<.05, **p<.01.

Tables 9 and 10 show that the three work engagement dimensions are all significantly correlated with each other (.82 < r > .70, all p< .01). Similarly, perceived organisational support (.46 < r > .36, all p< .01) and work-life balance (.48 < r > .26, all p< .01) are both significantly correlated with the three work engagement dimensions in the expected directions. Towards the two job outcomes, the three work engagement dimensions are significantly correlated with turnover intentions (-.29 < r > -.45, all p< .01) and career satisfaction (.51 < r > .36, all p< .01) in the expected directions. Towards the well-being outcomes, the three work engagement dimensions are significantly correlated with positive affect and happiness (.60 < r > .39, all p< .01) and job stress (-.17 < r > -.36, all p< .01) in the expected directions.

7.2.1 Direct and Mediation Effects towards Work Engagement (Study 2)

The results of the direct and mediation effects from Study 2 with work engagement dimensions as the outcome are shown in Figure 21.

Figure 21: Model of Direct and Mediation Findings – Perceived Organisational Support (Study 2)
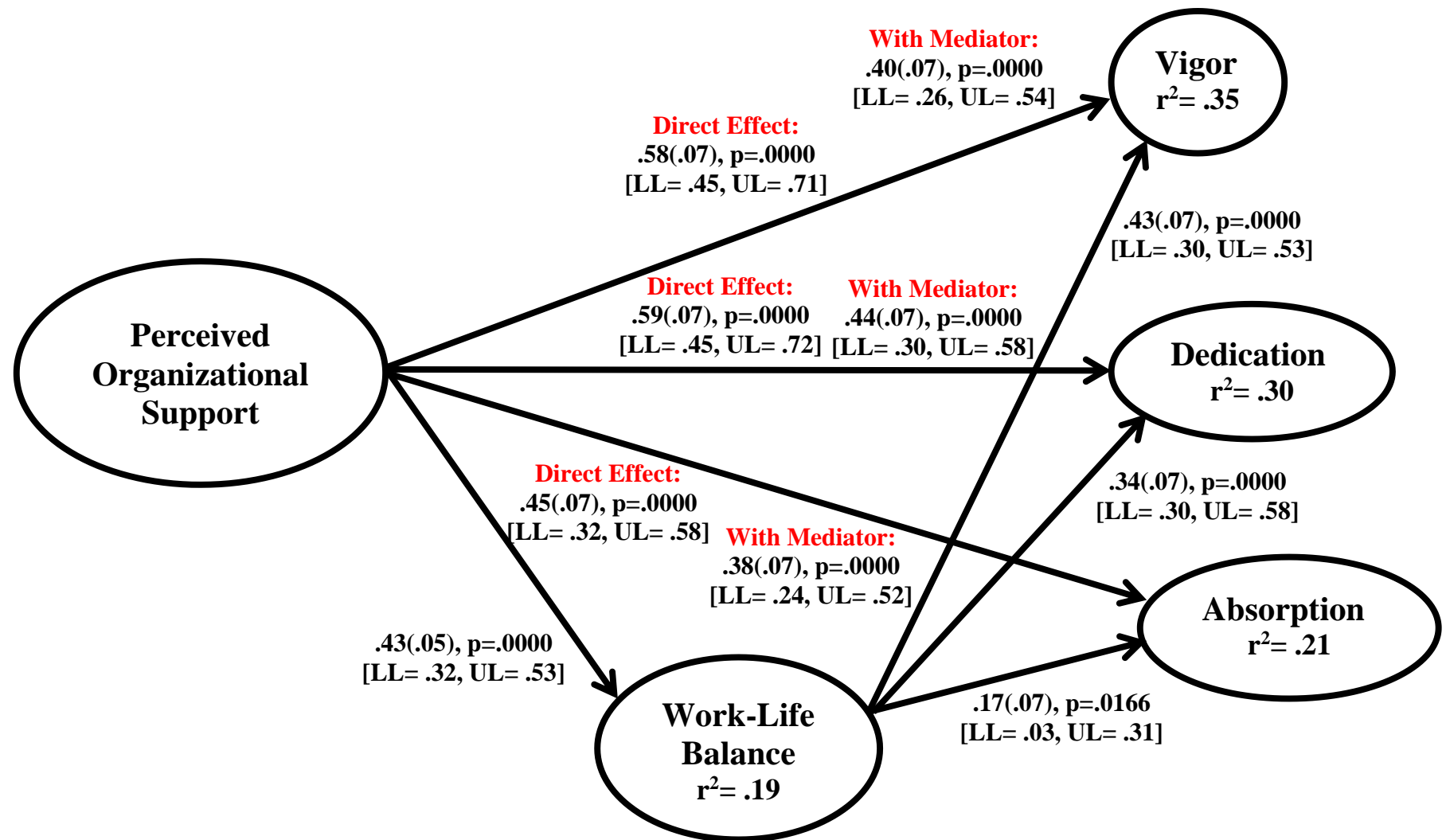
Figure 21 has perceived organisational support as the antecedent towards the three dimensions of work engagement and shows that perceived organisational support is significantly related to vigour (β= .58(.07), p< .0001, LL= .45, UL= .71), dedication (β= .59(.07), p< .0001, LL= .45, UL= .72), and absorption (β= .45(.07), p< .0001, LL= .32, UL= .58). This supports hypotheses 15a, 15b, and 15c. Perceived organisational support is significantly related to work-life balance (β= .43(.05), p< .0001, LL= .32, UL= .53), supporting hypothesis 14. Further, work-life balance is significantly related to all work engagement dimensions in study 2: vigour (β= .43(.07), p< .0001, LL= .30, UL= .53), dedication (β= .34(.07), p< .0001, LL= .30, UL= .58), and absorption (β= .17(.07), p< .0001, LL= .03, UL= .31). This supports hypothesis 8. When work-life balance is included in the model, there is consistent mediation effects of the direct effect of perceived organisational support on work engagement dimensions, although at all stages, perceived organisational support effects remain significant: vigour (β= .40(.07), p< .0001, LL= .26, UL= .54), dedication (β= .44(.07), p< .0001, LL= .30, UL= .58), and absorption (β= .38(.07), p< .0001, LL= .24, UL= .52). Further, the indirect effects of perceived organisational support are all significant: vigour (β= .18(.04), p< .0001, LL= .11, UL= .26), dedication (β= .15(.04), p< .0001, LL= .08, UL= .22), and absorption (β= .07(.03), p= .0099, LL= .01, UL= .14). Overall, this supports hypothesis 16 although only partial mediation effects.

7.2.3. Moderation Effects towards Work Engagement (Study 2)

The results of the moderation and moderated mediation effects from Study 2 with perceived organisational support predicting work engagement dimensions as the outcome are shown in Table 11. This includes both (1) migrant status and (2) migrants time in New Zealand as moderators. This also shows the significant control variable effects.

Table 11: Summary of Moderation and Moderated Mediated Results from Perceived Organisational Support to Work Engagement Dimensions as the Outcomes (Study 2 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Hours Worked → WLB	-.01(.00)	LL= -.02, UL= -.00	.0062
Age → Vigour	.02(.01)	LL= .01, UL= .03	.0001
Age → Dedication	.02(.01)	LL= .01, UL= .03	.0022
Hours Worked → Absorption	-.01(.00)	LL= -.02, UL= -.00	.0062
Moderators:			
Migrant Status → WLB	.20(.09)	LL= .02, UL= .39	.0298
Migrant Status → Vigour	-.06(.11)	LL= -.27, UL= .16	.6123
Migrant Status → Dedication	-.24(.11)	LL= -.46, UL= -.02	.0328
Migrant Status → Absorption	-.12(.12)	LL= -.35, UL= .10	.2837
MTiNZ → WLB	.01(.01)	LL= -.00, UL= .02	.1467
MTiNZ → Vigour	-.01(.01)	LL= -.02, UL= .01	.7464
MTiNZ → Dedication	-.02(.01)	LL= -.03, UL= -.00	.0185
MTiNZ → Absorption	-.01(.00)	LL= -.03, UL= .00	.0989
Interactions:			
POS x Migrant Status → WLB	.01(.11)	LL= -.20, LU= .22	.8968
POS x Migrant Status → Vigour	-.09(.13)	LL= -.36, LU= .19	.5353
WLB x Migrant Status → Vigour	.14(.14)	LL= -.14, LU= .41	.3223
POS x Migrant Status → Dedication	-.15(.14)	LL= -.43, LU= .12	.2775
WLB x Migrant Status → Dedication	.23(.14)	LL= -.05, LU= .51	.1071
POS x Migrant Status → Absorption	-.16(.14)	LL= -.45, LU= .12	.2606
WLB x Migrant Status → Absorption	.24(.15)	LL= -.05, LU= .53	.0985
POS x MTiNZ → WLB	.01(.01)	LL= -.00, LU= .02	.7384
POS x MTiNZ → Vigour	-.00(.01)	LL= -.02, LU= .01	.7464
WLB x MTiNZ → Vigour	.01(.01)	LL= -.01, LU= .03	.3620
POS x MTiNZ → Dedication	-.01(.01)	LL= -.02, LU= .01	.4650
WLB x MTiNZ → Dedication	.01(.01)	LL= -.01, LU= .03	.2066
POS x MTiNZ → Absorption	-.00(.01)	LL= -.02, LU= .01	.7322
WLB x MTiNZ → Absorption	.01(.01)	LL= -.01, LU= .03	.2336
Index of Moderated Mediation:			
POS → WLB → Vigour x Migrant Status	.06(.08)	LL= -.10, LU= .23	.2138
POS → WLB → Dedication x Migrant Status	.10(.08)	LL= -.05, LU= .27	.0952
POS → WLB → Absorption x Migrant Status	.11(.07)	LL= -.02, LU= .25	.0609

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
WLB=work-life balance, POS=Perceived Organisational Support, MTiNZ=Migrants Time in New Zealand

Table 11 firstly shows that there is a significant direct effect from migrant status towards work-life balance (β= .20(.09), p= .0298, LL= .02, UL= .39) and dedication (β= -.24(.11), p= .0328 LL= -.46, UL= -.02), although not towards vigour or absorption (both p> .05). Regarding the other moderator: migrants time in New Zealand, this is directly related to dedication only (β= -.02(.01), p= .0185, LL= -.03, UL= -.00). Regarding the interaction effects between perceived organisational support and work-life balance with migrant status are all non-significant (p> .05), failing to support the hypotheses 17a, 17b, and 17c. There is also no significant index of moderated mediation. Similarly, the interaction effects between perceived organisational support and work-life balance with migrants' time in New Zealand are all non-significant (p> .05), failing to support the hypotheses18a, 18b and 18c. Note that there is no index of moderated mediation towards vigour, dedication and absorption with migrants' time in New Zealand. Hayes (2015) states that with a continuous moderator (here years in New Zealand) "the indirect effect is a nonlinear function of the moderator, so no index of moderated mediation is provided" (http://processmacro.org/faq.html).

7.2.4. Direct and Moderation Effects of Work Engagement towards Work Outcomes (Study 2)

The results of the direct effects from Study 2 with work engagement dimensions as the predictors of work outcomes are shown in Tables 12-13.

Table 12: Summary of Direct and Moderation Results from Work Engagement
Dimensions to Turnover Intentions (Study 2 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Predictor			
Vigour → Turnover	-.40(.05)	LL= -.50, UL= -.29	.0000
Dedication → Turnover	-.43(.05)	LL= -.54, UL= -.33	.0000
Absorption → Turnover	-.31(.06)	LL= -.42, UL= -.19	.0000
Moderator:			
Migrant Status → Turnover	.15(.12)	LL= -.09, UL= .39	.2122
MTiNZ → Turnover	.00(.01)	LL= -.01, UL= .02	.7848
Interactions:			
Vigour x Migrant Status → Turnover	.08(.11)	LL= -.13, LU= .30	.4553
Dedication x Migrant Status → Turnover	.13(.10)	LL= -.08, LU= .33	.2377
Absorption x Migrant Status → Turnover	.08(.12)	LL= -.16, LU= .31	.5211
Vigour x MTiNZ → Turnover	.00(.01)	LL= -.01, LU= .01	.9654
Dedication x MTiNZ → Turnover	.00(.01)	LL= -.01, LU= .01	.9271
Absorption x MTiNZ → Turnover	-.01(.01)	LL= -.02, LU= .01	.5614

Total Variance (r^2):   Turnover   .24

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
Turnover= Turnover Intentions and MTiNZ=Migrants Time in New Zealand

Table 13: Summary of Direct and Moderation Results from Work Engagement
Dimensions to Career Satisfaction (Study 2 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Income → Careers	.13(.04)	LL= .06, UL= .20	.0004
Predictor			
Vigour → Careers	.41(.04)	LL= .32, UL= .50	.0000
Dedication → Careers	.43(.04)	LL= .35, UL= .52	.0000
Absorption → Careers	.35(.05)	LL= .26, UL= .45	.0000
Moderator:			
Migrant Status → Careers	-.03(.10)	LL= -.22, UL= .16	.7575
MTiNZ → Careers	-.01(.02)	LL= -.06, UL= .03	.5962
Interactions:			
Vigour x Migrant Status → Careers	.18(.09)	LL= .01, LU= .36	.0376
Dedication x Migrant Status → Careers	.13(.08)	LL= -.04, LU= .25	.1358
Absorption x Migrant Status → Careers	.20(.10)	LL= .00, LU= .38	.0455
Vigour x MTiNZ → Careers	.05(.02)	LL= .01, LU= .09	.0197
Dedication x MTiNZ → Careers	.04(.02)	LL= .01, LU= .08	.0247
Absorption x MTiNZ → Careers	.06(.02)	LL= .01, LU= .10	.0100
Total Variance (r^2): Careers .32			

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
Careers= Career Satisfaction and MTiNZ=Migrants Time in New Zealand

Table 12 explores turnover intentions as the outcome. Here we find the three dimensions

of work engagement are significantly related to turnover intentions: vigour (β= -.40(.05),

p< .0001, LL= -.50, UL= -.29), dedication (β= -.43(.05), p< .0001, LL= -.54, UL= -.33),

and absorption (β= -.31(.06), p< .0001, LL= -.42, UL= -.19). This supports hypotheses

32a, 32b, and 32c. Table 11 explores career satisfaction as the outcome and again the

findings support all three dimensions of work engagement being significantly related to

career satisfaction: vigour (β= .41(.04), p< .0001, LL= .32, UL= .50), dedication (β=

.43(.04), p< .0001, LL= .35, UL= .52), and absorption (β= .35(.05), p< .0001, LL= .26,

UL= .45). This supports hypotheses 33a, 33b, and 33c.

Towards the work outcomes (Tables 12 and 13), migrant status is not significantly directly related to either turnover intentions or career satisfaction (both p> .05), and neither is the alternative construct around migrants' time in New Zealand. Table 10 also shows there is no significant interactions between migrant status or migrants' time in New Zealand with any of the engagement dimension (all p> .05), failing to support hypotheses 34a and 34b. However, Table 13 (career satisfaction) shows support for a majority of interactions between the two migrant related moderators and the work engagement dimensions. Migrant status interacts significantly with vigour (β= .18(.09), p= .0376, LL= .01, UL= .36) and with absorption (β= .20(.10), p= .0455, LL= .00, UL= .38). This supports hypotheses 35a and 35c. Further, migrants' time in New Zealand significantly interacted with vigour (β= .05(.02), p= .0197, LL= .01, UL= .09), dedication (β= .04(.02), p= .0247, LL= .01, UL= .08), and absorption (β= .06(.02), p= .0100 LL= .01, UL= .10) supporting hypotheses 36a, 36b and 36c. Amongst the control variables, none of the control variables are significantly related to turnover intentions (all p> .05), while towards career satisfaction, income is significantly related (β= .13(.04), p= .0004, LL= .06, UL= .20). The models account for modest amounts of variance towards anxiety (24%) and career satisfaction (32%). The graphed interactions are shown in Figures 22-26 to illustrate effects.

Figure 22: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Vigour with Career Satisfaction as Dependent Variable (Study 2)
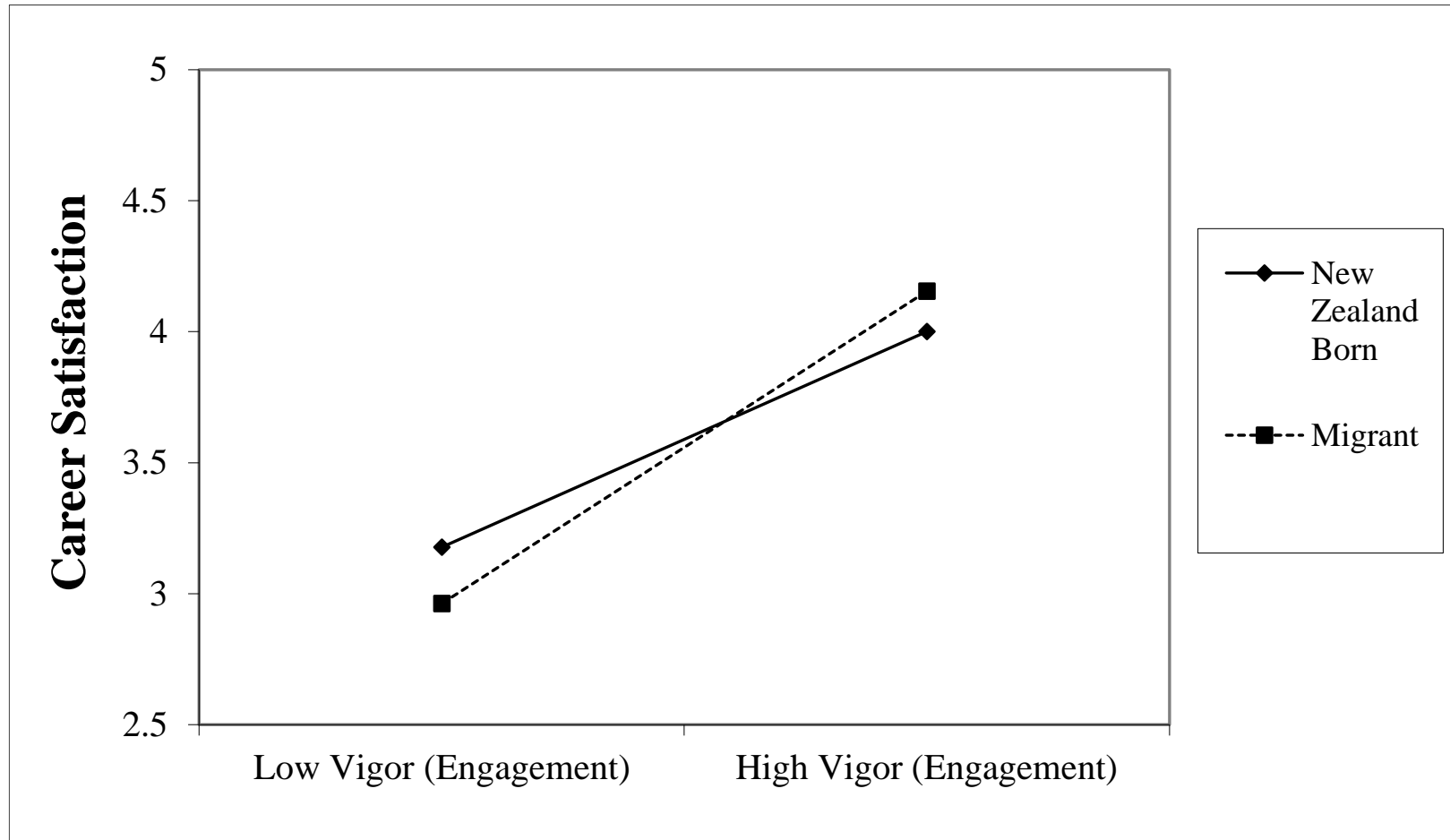
Figure 23: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Absorption with Career Satisfaction as Dependent Variable (Study 2)

Figure 24: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Time in New Zealand on Vigour with Career Satisfaction as Dependent Variable (Study 2)
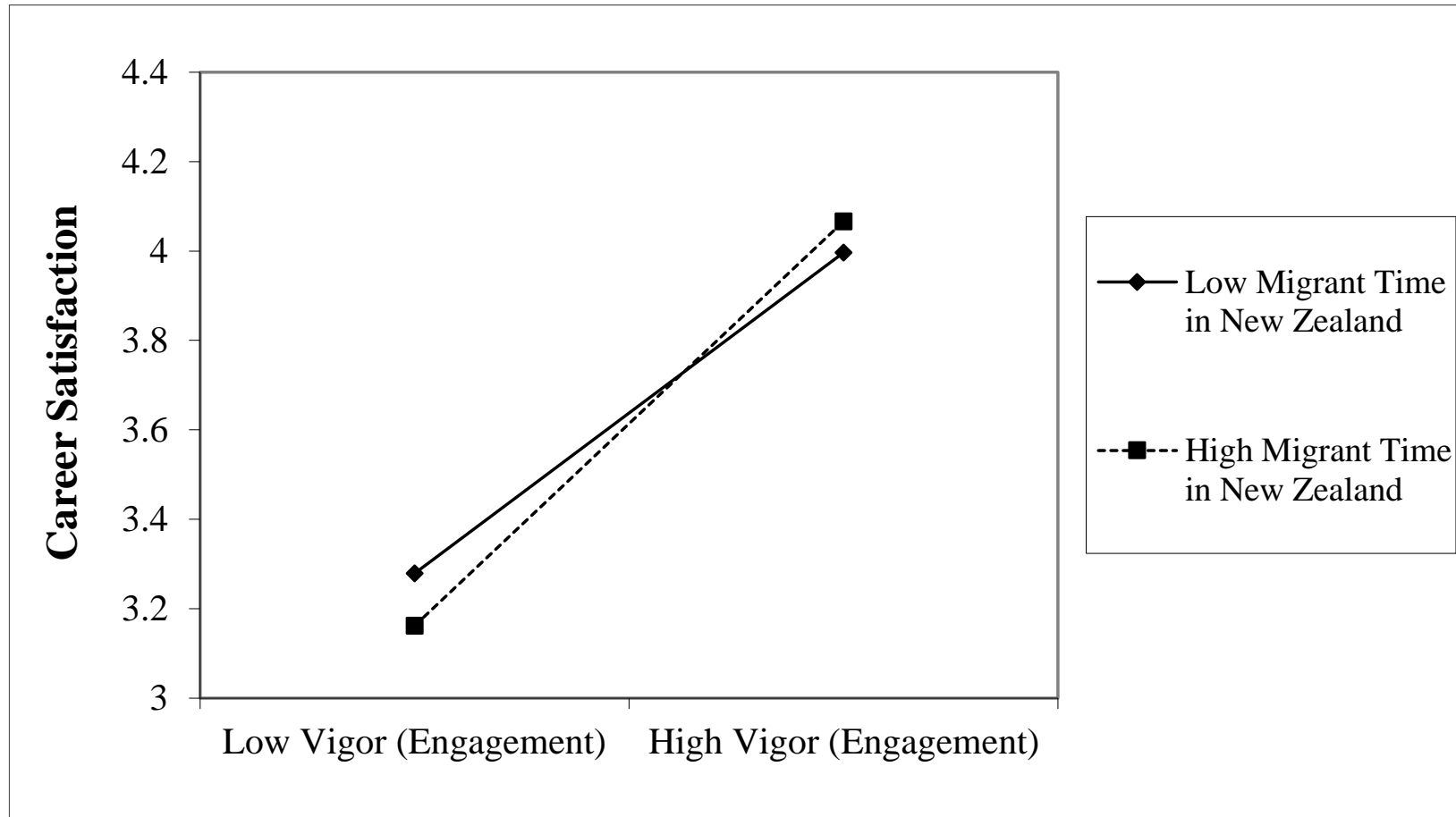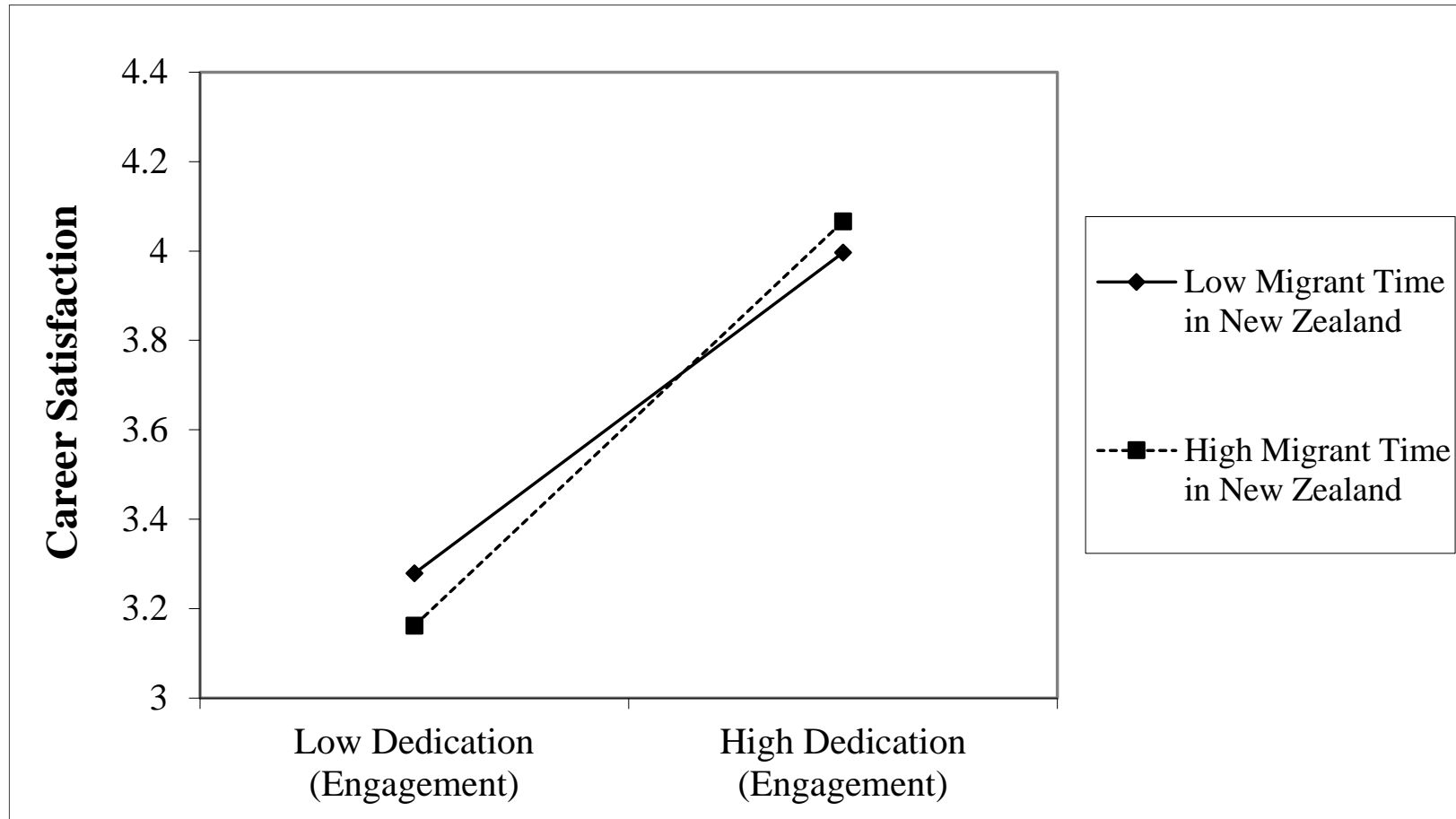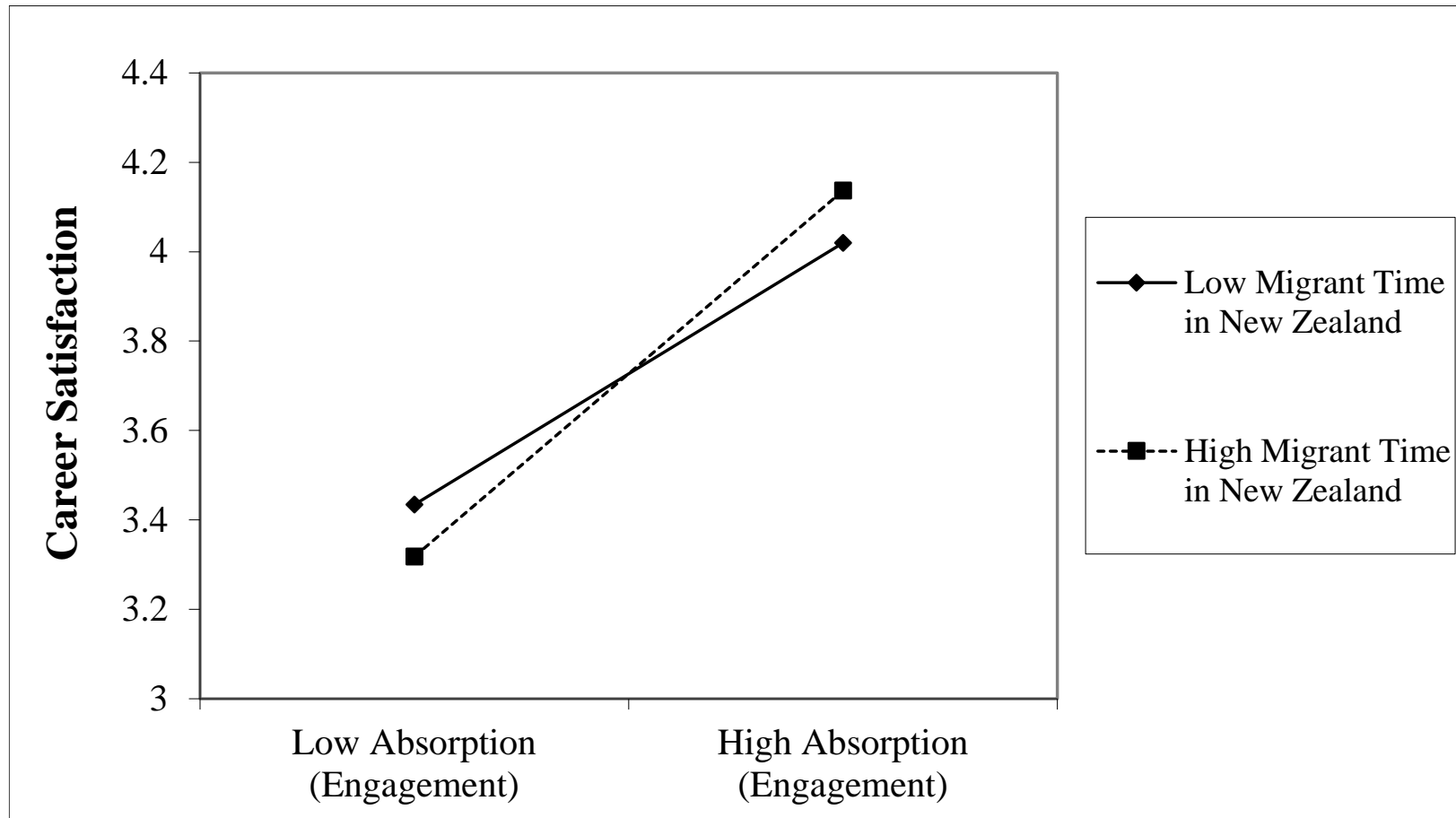
Figure 25: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Time in New Zealand on Dedication with Career Satisfaction as Dependent Variable (Study 2)

Figure 26: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Time in New Zealand on Absorption with Career Satisfaction as Dependent Variable (Study 2)

Figure 22 shows that at low levels of work engagement vigour, respondents who are migrants report significantly lower levels of career satisfaction than New Zealand born respondents. At high levels of work engagement vigour, all respondents in this group report a significant increase in career satisfaction. Further, respondents who are migrants report significantly higher levels of career satisfaction compared to New Zealand born respondents. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 35a.

Figure 23 shows that at low levels of work engagement absorption, respondents who are migrants report significantly lower levels of career satisfaction than New Zealand born respondents. At high levels of work engagement absorption, all respondents in this group report a significant increase in career satisfaction. Further, respondents who are migrants report significantly higher levels of career satisfaction when absorption is high compared to New Zealand born respondents with high absorption. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 35c.

Figure 24 shows that at low levels of work engagement vigour, respondent migrants with high time in New Zealand report significantly lower levels of career satisfaction than New Zealand born respondents and migrants with low time in New Zealand. At high levels of work engagement vigour, all respondents in this group report a significant increase in career satisfaction. Further, respondents report significantly higher levels of career satisfaction when migrants have been in New Zealand a long time, compared to migrants in New Zealand for a short time and New Zealand born respondents. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 36a.

Figure 25 shows that at low levels of work engagement dedication, respondent migrants with high time in New Zealand report significantly lower levels of career satisfaction than New Zealand born respondents and migrants with low time in New

Zealand. At high levels of work engagement dedication, all respondents in this group report a significant increase in career satisfaction. Further, respondents report significantly higher levels of career satisfaction when dedication is high for migrants have been in New Zealand a long time, compared to migrants in New Zealand for a short time and New Zealand born respondents. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 36b.

Finally, Figure 26 shows that at low levels of work engagement absorption, New Zealand born respondents and migrants with low time in New Zealand report higher career satisfaction than respondent migrants with high time in New Zealand report. At high levels of work engagement absorption, all respondents in this group report significantly higher career satisfaction. Further, respondents report significantly higher levels of career satisfaction when migrants have been in New Zealand a long time, compared to migrants in New Zealand for a short time and New Zealand born respondents. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 36c.

7.2.5. Direct and Moderation Effects of Work Engagement towards Well-being Outcomes (Study 2)

The results of the direct effects from Study 2 with work engagement dimensions as the predictors of well-being outcomes are shown in Tables 14-16.

Table 14: Summary of Direct and Moderation Results from Work Engagement
Dimensions to Positive Affect (Study 2 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Age → PA	-.01(.00)	LL= -.02, UL= -.00	.0363
Income → PA	.08(.03)	LL= .01, UL= .14	.0216
Predictor			
Vigour → PA	.47(.04)	LL= .39, UL= .55	.0000
Dedication → PA	.44(.04)	LL= .36, UL= .52	.0000
Absorption → PA	.39(.05)	LL= .30, UL= .48	.0000
Moderator:			
Migrant Status → PA	.21(.09)	LL= .03, UL= .39	.0195
MTiNZ → PA	.03(.02)	LL= -.01, UL= .07	.1092
Interactions:			
Vigour x Migrant Status → PA	.19(.08)	LL= .04, LU= .35	.0164
Dedication x Migrant Status → PA	.15(.08)	LL= -.01, LU= .31	.0580
Absorption x Migrant Status → PA	.30(.09)	LL= .12, LU= .48	.0012
Vigour x MTiNZ → PA	.04(.02)	LL= .00, LU= .07	.0397
Dedication x MTiNZ → PA	.03(.02)	LL= -.01, LU= .06	.1433
Absorption x MTiNZ → PA	.06(.02)	LL= .02, LU= .10	.0046

Total Variance (r^2): PA   .38

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown. PA=
Positive Affect and MTiNZ=Migrants Time in New Zealand

Table 15: Summary of Direct and Moderation Results from Work Engagement
Dimensions to Happiness (Study 2 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Predictor			
Vigour → Happiness	1.28(.10)	LL= 1.08, UL= 1.48	.0000
Dedication → Happiness	1.06(.11)	LL= .85, UL= 1.28	.0000
Absorption → Happiness	.90(.12)	LL= .65, UL= 1.13	.0000
Moderator:			
Migrant Status → Happiness	-.09(.23)	LL= -.55, UL= .36	.6890
MTiNZ → Happiness	-.04(.05)	LL= -.14, UL= .06	.4289
Interactions:			
Vigour x Migrant Status → Happiness	.02(.21)	LL= -.39, LU= .43	.9251
Dedication x Migrant Status → Happiness	-.05(.22)	LL= -.48, LU= .38	.8237
Absorption x Migrant Status → Happiness	-.01(.25)	LL= -.50, LU= .48	.9666
Vigour x MTiNZ → Happiness	.00(.05)	LL= -.09, LU= .09	.9705
Dedication x MTiNZ → Happiness	-.01(.05)	LL= -.11, LU= .09	.8006
Absorption x MTiNZ → Happiness	.03(.06)	LL= -.08, LU= .14	.5764

Total Variance (r^2):   Happiness   .38

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
MTiNZ=Migrants Time in New Zealand

Table 16: Summary of Direct and Moderation Results from Work Engagement
Dimensions to Job Stress (Study 2 only)

Variables	β(SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Gender → Job Stress	.26(.12)	LL= .03, UL= .49	.0284
Predictor			
Vigour → Job Stress	-.31(.05)	LL= -.41, UL= -.21	.0000
Dedication → Job Stress	-.26(.05)	LL= -.36, UL= -.16	.0000
Absorption → Job Stress	-.16(.06)	LL= -.27, UL= -.05	.0051
Moderator:			
Migrant Status → Job Stress	-.03(.11)	LL= -.26, UL= .19	.7841
MTiNZ → Job Stress	.00(.03)	LL= -.05, UL= .05	.9883
Interactions:			
Vigour x Migrant Status → Job Stress	-.03(.10)	LL= -.23, LU= .17	.7692
Dedication x Migrant Status → Job Stress	-.07(.10)	LL= -.32, LU= .14	.4864
Absorption x Migrant Status → Job Stress	-.06(.11)	LL= -.28, LU= .17	.6244
Vigour x MTiNZ → Job Stress	.00(.02)	LL= -.04, LU= .05	.8469
Dedication x MTiNZ → Job Stress	-.01(.02)	LL= -.06, LU= .04	.6695
Absorption x MTiNZ → Job Stress	-.01(.03)	LL= -.06, LU= .04	.6273

Total Variance (r^2):　Job Stress　.17

β = unstandardised regression coefficients, SE= standard error.
Confidence Intervals are 95% and LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit.
All significance tests were two-tailed. Only significant control variables shown.
MTiNZ=Migrants Time in New Zealand

Table 14 explores positive affect as the outcome. The findings show the three dimensions
of work engagement are significantly related to positive affect: vigour (β= .47(.04), p<
.0001, LL= .39, UL= .55), dedication (β= .44(.04), p< .0001, LL= .36, UL= .52), and
absorption (β= .39(.05), p< .0001, LL= .30, UL= .48). This supports hypotheses 23a, 23b,
and 23c. Table 15 explores happiness as the outcome and again the findings support all
three dimensions of work engagement being significantly related to happiness: vigour (β=
1.28(.10), p< .0001, LL= 1.08, UL= 1.48), dedication (β= 1.06(.11), p< .0001, LL= .85,
UL= 1.28), and absorption (β= .90(.12), p< .0001, LL= .65, UL= 1.13). This supports
hypotheses 24a, 24b, and 24c. Finally, towards job stress, the findings support all three
dimensions of work engagement being significantly related to job stress: vigour (β= -

.31(.05), p< .0001, LL= -.41, UL= -.21), dedication (β= -.26(.05), p< .0001, LL= -.36, UL= -.16), and absorption (β= -.16(.06), p= .0051, LL= -.27, UL= -.05). This supports hypotheses 25a, 25b, and 25c.

Towards the well-being outcomes (Tables 14-16), migrant status is significantly and directly related to positive affect only (β= .21(.09), p= .0195, LL= .03, UL= .39), but not towards happiness or job stress (both p> .05). Similarly, migrants' time in New Zealand is not significantly related to any well-being outcome directly (all p> .05). Table 14 (positive affect) shows support for a majority of interactions between the two migrant related moderators and the work engagement dimensions. Towards positive affect, migrant status interacts significantly with vigour (β= .19 (.08), p= .0164, LL= .04, UL= .35) and with absorption (β= .30(.09), p= .0012, LL= .12, UL= .48). This supports hypotheses 26a, 26b, 26c. Further, migrants' time in New Zealand significantly interacted with vigour (β= .04(.02), p= .0397, LL= .00, UL= .07) and absorption (β= .06(.02), p= .0046 LL= .02, UL= .10). However, neither migrant status or migrants' time in New Zealand significantly interacted with any of the work engagement dimensions towards happiness or job stress (all p> .05) failing to support hypotheses 28, 29, 30, 31.

Amongst the control variables, age is significantly related to positive affect (β= -.01(.00), p= .0363, LL= -.02, UL= -.00) as is income (β= .08(.03), p= .0216, LL= .01, UL= .14). None of the control variables are significantly related to happiness (all p> .05), while for job stress, gender is significantly related only (β= .26(.12), p= .0284, LL= .03, UL= .49). The models account for robust amounts of variance towards positive affect (38%) and happiness (38%), but smaller amounts of variance towards job stress (17%). The graphed interactions are shown in Figures 27-30 to illustrate effects.

Figure 27: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Vigour with Positive Affect as Dependent Variable (Study 2)
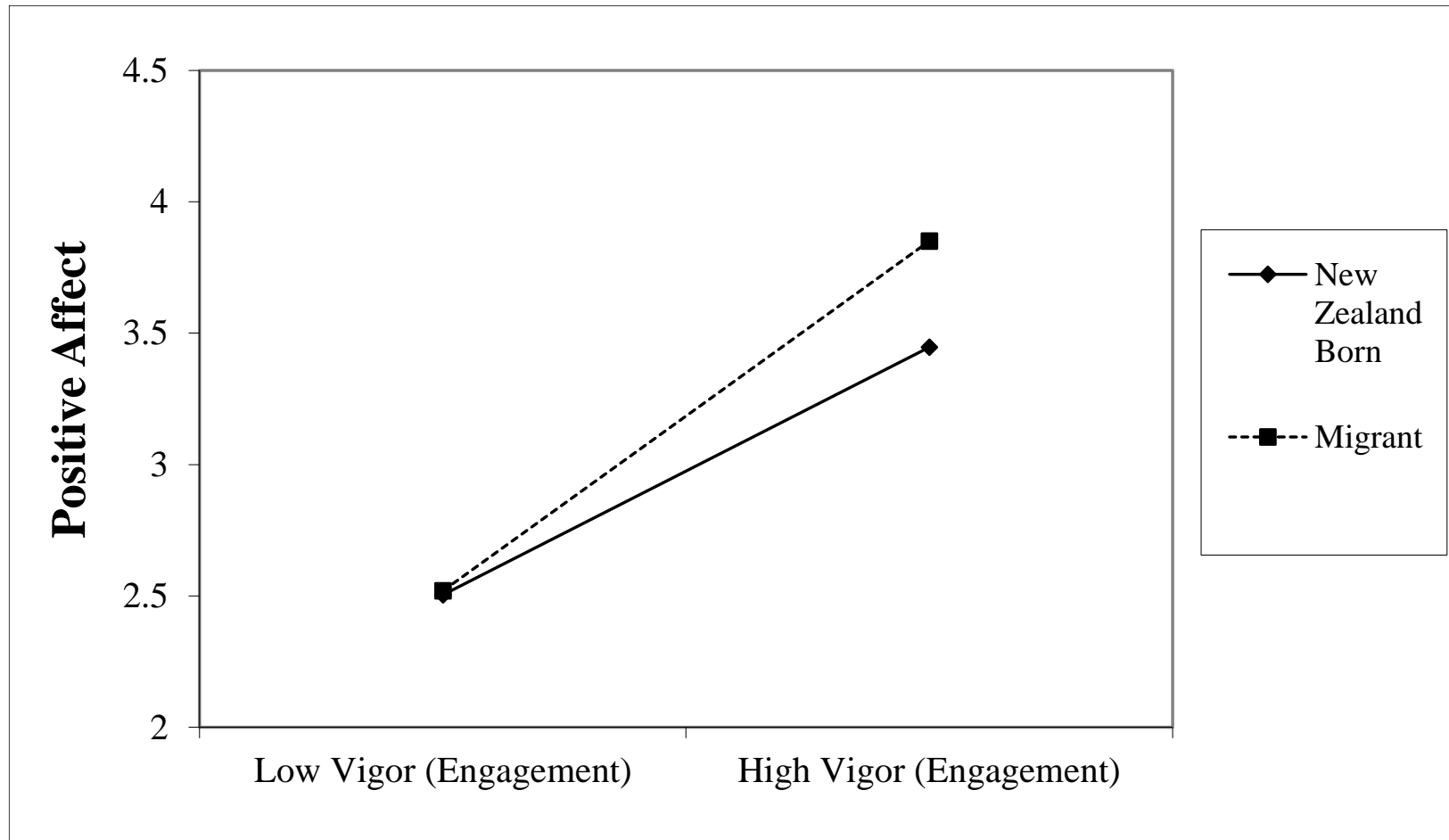
Figure 28: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Status on Absorption with Positive Affect as Dependent Variable (Study 2)
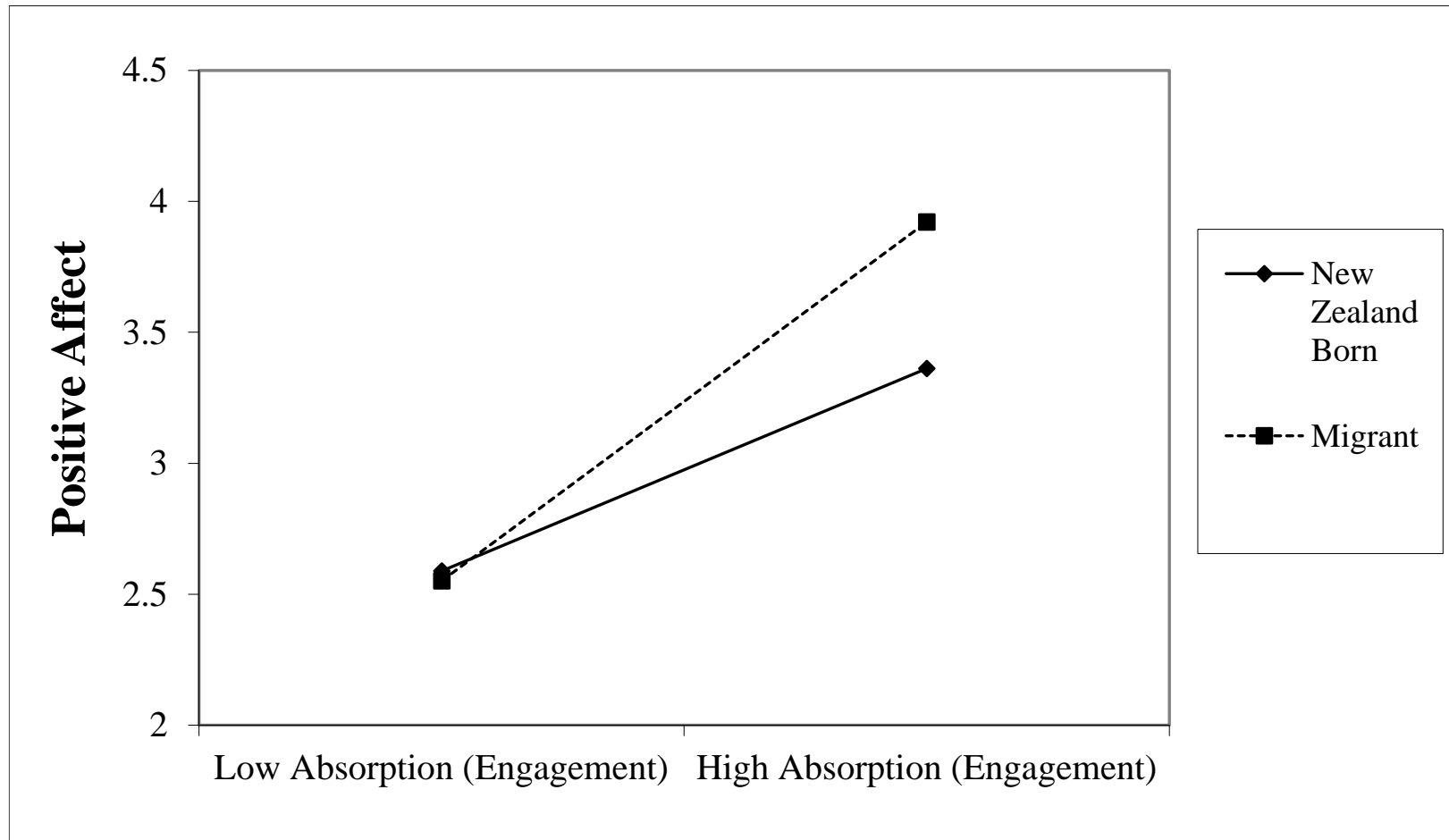
Figure 29: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Time in New Zealand on Vigour with Positive Affect as Dependent Variable (Study 2)
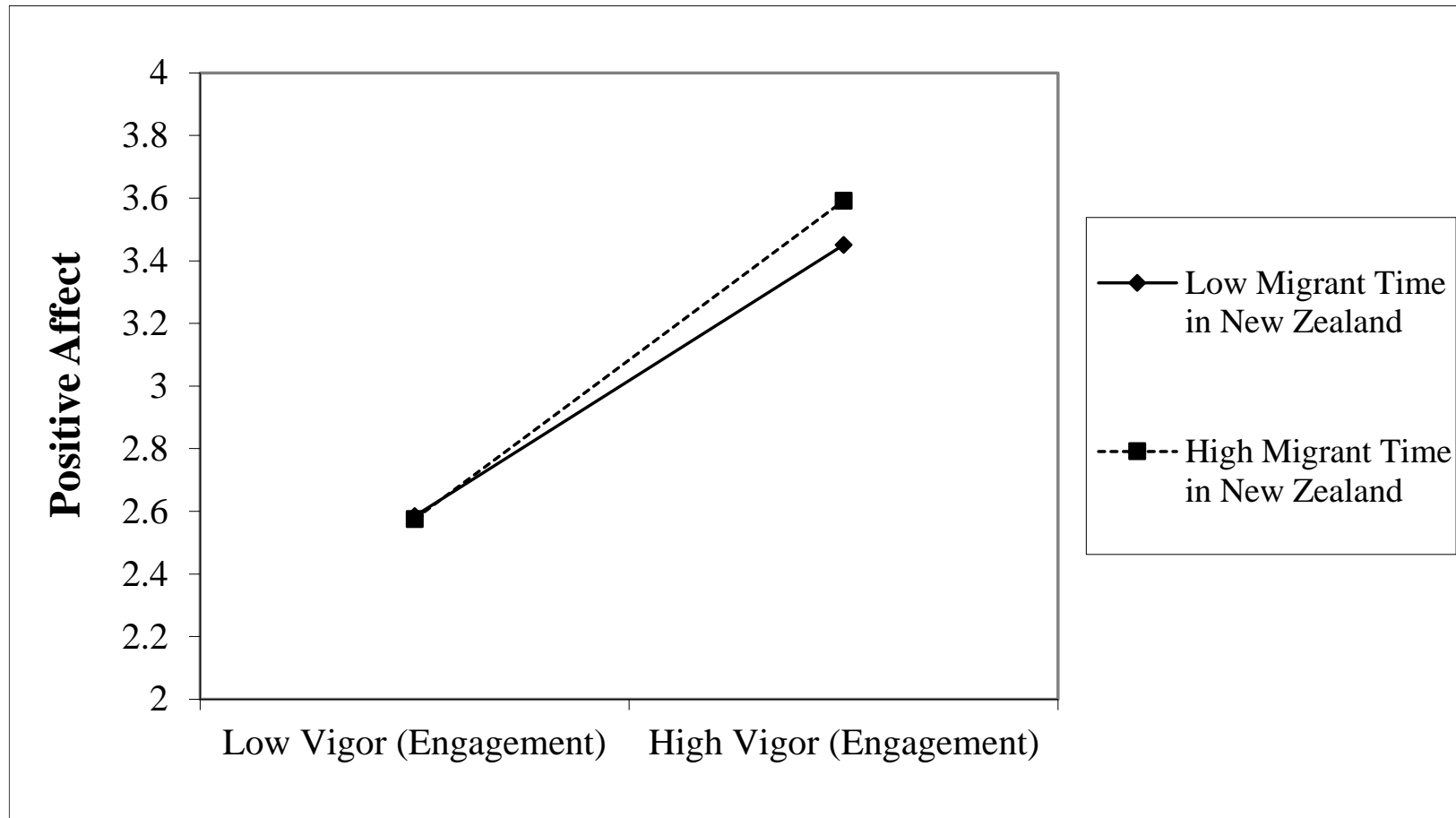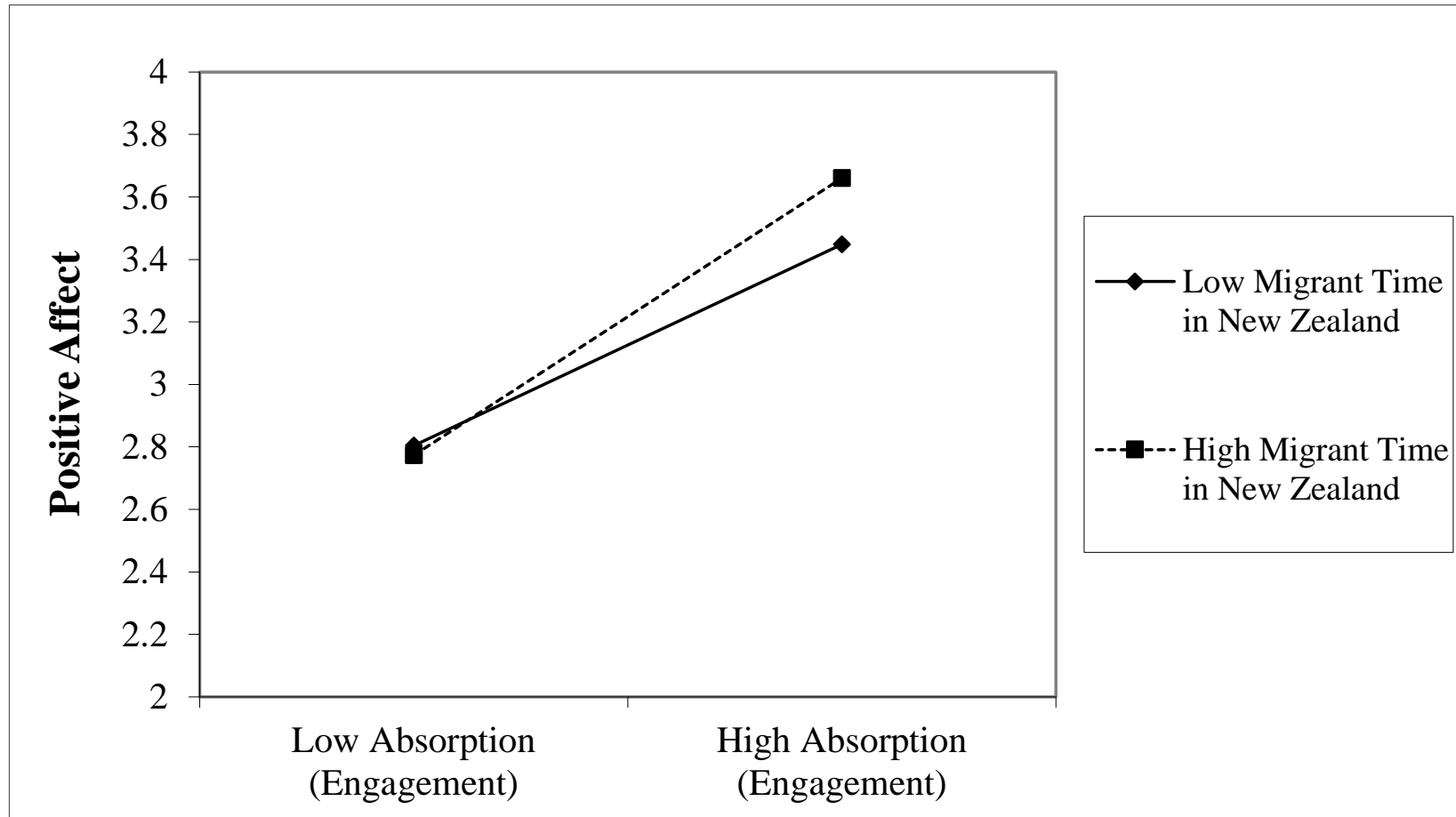
Figure 30: Two-Way Interaction of Migrant Time in New Zealand on Absorption with Positive Affect as Dependent Variable (Study 2)

Figure 27 shows that at low levels of work engagement vigour, respondents who are migrants report the same low levels of positive affect as New Zealand born respondents. At high levels of work engagement vigour, all respondents in this group report a significant increase in positive affect. Further, respondents who are migrants report significantly higher levels of positive affect compared to New Zealand born respondents. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 26a.

Figure 28 shows that at low levels of work engagement absorption, respondents report identical (but low) levels of positive affect, irrespective of whether their migrant status (i.e., migrants or New Zealand born). At high levels of work engagement absorption, all respondents in this group report a significant increase in positive affect. However, respondents who are migrants report significantly higher levels (steeper rise) in positive affect compared to New Zealand born respondents. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 26c.

Figure 29 shows that at low levels of work engagement vigour, respondent migrants with high time in New Zealand report the same lower levels of positive affect as respondents who are either New Zealand born respondents or migrants with low time in New Zealand. At high levels of work engagement vigour, all respondents in this group report a significant increase in positive affect. Again, it is found that migrant respondents report significantly higher levels of positive affect when migrants have been in New Zealand a long time, compared to migrants in New Zealand for a short time or those who are New Zealand born respondents. The effects do support the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 27a. Figure 30 shows the effects for work engagement absorption, and these effects mirror those of Figure 29. Overall, it is only at high levels of absorption that high scores of positive affects are reported, and these are

highest for respondent migrants with high time in New Zealand. The effects do support

the beneficial effect of migrant status and thus support for the hypothesis 27b.

7.3. Summary of Findings (Study 1 and study 2)

A brief summary of the results of the hypotheses from study 1 and 2 are shown in Table 17.

Table 17: Summary of Results from Study 1 and Study 2

Hypotheses	Support
Study 1	
H1: Migrant status will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption	No
H3: Ethical Leadership will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption	Yes
H4: Organisational-Based Self-Esteem will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption	Yes
H5: Psychological Contract Breach will be negatively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.	Yes
H6: Psychological Contract Violation will be negatively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption	Yes
H7: (a) Ethical Leadership and (b) Organisational-Based Self-Esteem will be positively related to work-life balance. (c) Psychological Contract Breach and (d) Psychological Contract Violation will be negatively related to work-life balance.	Yes
H8: Work-life balance will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.	Yes

H9: Work-life balance will mediate the influence of (a) ethical leadership, (b) organisational-based self-esteem, (c) psychological contract breach, and (d) psychological contract violation on work engagement.	Yes
H10: Migrant status will interact with ethical leadership towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption. Including the mediating effect of work-life balance, it is expected migrant status will (d) moderate the mediated relationship between ethical leadership→ work-life balance → work engagement.	Mixed
H11: Migrant status will interact with Organisational-Based Self-Esteem towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption. Including the mediating effect of work-life balance, it is expected migrant status will (d) moderate the mediated relationship between organisational-based self-esteem→ work-life balance → work engagement	Mixed
H12: Migrant status will interact with psychological contract breach towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption. Including the mediating effect of work-life balance, it is expected migrant status will (d) moderate the mediated relationship between psychological contract breach → work-life balance → work engagement.	Mixed
H13: Migrant status will interact with psychological contract violation towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption. Including the mediating effect of work-life balance, it is expected migrant status will (d) moderate the mediated relationship between psychological contract violation → work-life balance → work engagement.	Mixed
H19: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to anxiety.	Yes
H20: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to depression.	Yes

H21: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to towards anxiety.	No
H22: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards depression.	Mixed
Study 2	
H2: Migrant time in New Zealand will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.	Mixed
H14: Perceived organisational support will be positively related to work-life balance.	Yes
H15: Perceived organisational support will be positively related to work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.	Yes
H16: Work-life balance will mediate the influence of perceived organisational support on work engagement.	Yes
H17: Migrant status will interact with perceived organisational support towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.	No
H18: Migrant time in New Zealand in will interact with perceived organisational support towards work engagement dimensions of (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption.	No
H23: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be positively related to positive affect.	Yes
H24: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be positively related to happiness.	Yes
H25: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to job stress.	Yes

H26: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards positive affect.	Yes
H27: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards positive affect.	Yes
H28: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards happiness.	No
H29: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards happiness.	No
H30: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards job stress.	No
H31: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption dimensions towards job stress.	No
H32: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be negatively related to turnover intentions	Yes
H33: The work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption will be positively related to career satisfaction	Yes
H34: Migrant status will be positively related to (a) career satisfaction, and (b) negatively related to turnover intentions	No
H35: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards career satisfaction.	Mixed
H36: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards career satisfaction.	Mixed

H37: Migrant status will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards career turnover intentions	Mixed
H38: Migrant time in New Zealand will interact with the work engagement dimensions (a) vigour, (b) dedication, and (c) absorption towards turnover intentions.	Mixed

Note: Yes=hypothesis was supported and No=not supported. Mixed=in the moderation effects only, some support but not universal.

Chapter Eight: Discussion

The aim of this thesis was to explore the potential differences between the work engagement levels of migrant employees compared to that of NZ local employees. Data was collected from two studies where studies 1 and 2 had 870 and 305 respondents, respectively. The aim was to run a number of moderated regressions from antecedents towards work engagement, and then from work engagement to other outcomes, to determine differences. The details of the specific findings are detailed in the previous chapter. This chapter aims to discuss the results and comprehend the significance of the findings.

8.1. Summary of key findings

Both studies find that the work engagement is similar in NZ born employees and migrant employees. This illustrates that the antecedents significant for work engagement are similar to both groups. Migrant status directly does not provide any significant better outcomes for engagement. In study 2, Migrant employees have shown a high level of vigour even at low levels of work-life balance. Whereas all employees have shown more vigour at high levels of work-life balance as found by numerous researchers (e.g., Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003; Haar & Brougham, 2020; Haar, Brougham, Roche, & Barney, 2017; Haar, Sune, Russo, & Ollier-Malaterre, 2019). Vigour is one crucial element of engagement, while no significant difference was noted for absorption and dedication.

Overall, the migrant employees have shown similar engagement levels with their NZ born counterparts with more resilience towards mental health issues (depression, anxiety). Perhaps, the migrant community does not like to share mental health issues; it has been evident in the research that especially Asian community neither likes to share their mental

health problems like depression, anxiety nor they prefer to seek help (Chan & Parker, 2004).

8.2. Detailed discussion of the results

I will now discuss the hypotheses individually, with the notations from the literature and conservation of resources theory.

The results indicate that ethical leadership is positively linked to all three work engagement dimensions. These results are consistent with other studies (Amos et al., 2014; Anrusha & Sachin, 2019; Bedi et al., 2016; Fahri, 2020; McKenna & Jeske, 2021; Mostafa & Abed El-Motalib, 2020). This reiterates the importance of ethical leadership in organisations and the way that leadership can shape the engagement of the workforce. The presence of ethical leader not only influences the employees to behave ethically but it also enhances job satisfaction, involvement and commitment (Brown et al., 2005). Haar et al. (2019) in their study on Maori leadership styles established that when leaders are ethical, it enhances the behaviour of followers towards a better leader member exchange. Across both migrants and non-migrants, there is strong evidence that ethical leadership influences engagement. However, this study also explored the potential difference in effects. However, the migrant status of employees was found to not impact the influence of ethical leadership on engagement levels. This reinforces that ethical leadership is equally important for all employees towards better engagement as migrant employees do not respond differently to the ethical leaders.

The next antecedent of engagement was organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE), and this was also positively liked to all work engagement dimensions. The findings are in harmony with the previous research findings (Costantini et al., 2019; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2008). OBSE does contribute positively towards all three engagement dimensions but again, migrant status does not largely

impact the level of influence from OBSE on engagement. However, it was found that migrant employees report a higher level of vigour at low level of OBSE compared to lower engagement levels in NZ based employees. The findings echo the COR theory, as migrant employees continue to protect and gain more resources. Also, in harmony with COR theory, saliency of resource loss (less OBSE) is higher than the resource gain (high OBSE) as all employees report high vigour at high levels of OBSE.

Beyond the direct effects on engagement, ethical leadership and OBSE also were positively related to work-life balance, which further leads to improved work engagement. However, migrant employees did respond differently to low levels of work-life balance than NZ born employees. The migrant employees reported higher vigour at low levels of work-life balance. As, migrants have moved from another country, their work-life balance might be easier to achieve when compared to NZ local employees. For example, migrants are likely to have fewer members of their immediate and extended family in NZ; hence, they might have less demands on their time (e.g., Haar et al., 2019) and thus may achieve work-life balance better than their NZ counterparts.

High levels of work-life balance not only led to better engagement levels but also reduces absenteeism (e.g., Magee, Gordon, Robinson, Caputi, & Oades, 2017) and turnover (e.g., Haar et al., 2020; Brough et al., 2014). Imagine a burnt-out employee due to poor work life balance at work, how could this employee be productive? Organisations need employees to be mentally attentive and present at work to be engaged. The employees with poor work-life balance experience stress (e.g., Haar 2013), and often vacillate between work and personal life.

Conservation of resources theory states the resource loss is more salient than the resource gain Hobfoll (1989), and similarly migrant employee did show a significant drop in the engagement levels if their psychological contracts were breached. When employees

lose resources (such as through a psychological contract breach) they are literally left with few resources, making it immensely hard for to them to protect their remaining resources let alone gain new resources. Engaged employees are in the position to gain new resources while protecting their current resources. Migrant employees were able to overlook minor breaches in their psychological contract but, at the higher level of psychological contract breach (PCB), all employees report a significant drop in their vigour leading to a drop in all three engagement dimensions. It is not unusual for vigour to drop, employees have simply reciprocated what they felt of the organisation, or the way organisation has treated them.

Migrant status also has an impact on dedication and absorption with psychological contract violation (PCV). PCV impact migrants more than the NZ born employees as the drop in dedication is significant for migrants. In this instance, being a migrant has not been beneficial towards engagement. With high levels of PCV, the migrant group has reported lower levels of absorption as compared to NZ based employees. It could be incredibly frustrating when (migrant) employees did not receive the reciprocated trust or when employers did not fulfil their promises or employers did not meet the perceived expectations. Theoretically, it is established that such disappointment leads to a drop in work engagement, for example, absorption levels in the workplace. As argued by Hobfoll (1989), the resources of people (employees) do not exist isolation, and specifically they exist and travel together. He referred to this as resources travelling in packs or caravans. Thus, resources are part of an ecological system, which either nurtures or restricts the creation of resources. In this instance, the resource gain or loss is being influenced by PCB and PCV, creating a trust deficit. In effect, this leads to resource losses for the employee, and is also likely to minimise the ability of the employee to gain resources.

The current study also notes that PCB and PCV reduce levels of work-life balance of an employee, regardless of their migrant status. However, the study has also found that the detrimental impact of PCV is lower on migrant employees as compared to NZ born employees in terms of work-life balance. In case for PCB, migrant employees have also reported a similarly low levels of detrimental impact on work-life balance. At low levels of PCB and PCV, migrant employees have reported high vigour as compared to the NZ born employees.

The present study finds that work-life balance and perceived organisational support (POS) also contributes to work engagement. When employees are supported and valued, employees reciprocate that by demonstrating better engagement at work. With the support from organisation employees are better positioned to protect and gain more resources to perform better at their jobs. Wickramasinghe and Perera (2014) also noted in their research of 255 employees that POS is the fundamental level of support which is required to perform job effectively and efficiently. POS is equally important for both the migrant and NZ local employees. It is crucial for employees to recognise that organisation will support them if and when required. This would enable the employees to engross themselves in work while knowing that they will receive the necessary support from the organisation when needed. Migrant employees have also shown equal importance to POS and work-life balance while at times, being a migrant at low levels of work-life balance high level of vigour was found. The study also notes that POS contributes towards work-life balance which, then ultimately translates into better engagement from employees at a workplace. This impact of POS is also same with migrants and NZ born employees. Under the COR theory lens, high POS leads to the creation of additional resources for employees or at least it enables employees to protect their current resources especially when work is demanding or challenging. This ultimately enables workers with more resources (via high POS) to enhance their engagement.

The present study finds that organisations with engaged employees, enjoy low turnover from staff. These findings are also supported by the previous research (Cain et al., 2018; Harter et al., 2002; Ran & Yuping, 2020; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Work engagement enhances the career satisfaction of employees and in return, employees would stay with the organisation for longer. Migrants or not, all employees react equally (beneficial low turnover intentions) when they report high work engagement. However, it is worth noting that migrant employees' satisfaction with their careers was higher when compared to NZ born employees at high levels of vigour and absorption. This supports one of the driving arguments from the theory and literature, whereby migrant workers were expected to have enhanced work outcomes.

Beyond migrant status, study two also focused on the time migrants had been living in NZ. The argument was that those living here longer might feel especially beneficial and thus report stronger outcomes. Indeed, time in NZ amongst migrants was positively beneficial from all three work engagement dimensions towards career satisfaction. Thus, migrants who have stayed longer in New Zealand are found to be more satisfied from their jobs as compared to early migrants and NZ born employees. Employees who have stayed in NZ for a long time might have made NZ home, enjoy a better work-life balance, and have established themselves well in the community. This might also reflect that they have a stronger understanding of the benefits of living and working in NZ, reflecting stronger perceptions around career success.

Beyond career satisfaction, engaged employees were also found to enjoy more positive affect. Work engagement allows employees to be optimistic, which on its own contributes towards better outcomes. Positive affect is the direct result of satisfaction and happiness at work (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005), which places them in a positive and happy mood. Migrant employees were found to have higher positive affect at high levels of

vigour as compared to NZ born employees. Migrants who have moved to a new country when finds and enjoy the job they love, receive support of their employer tend to feel more positive than others. In study two, migrant employees have reported high levels of positive affect in the dimensions of engagement of vigour and absorption, than the NZ born employees. That said, even dedication was close to being statistically significant (p= .0580) highlighting that at least towards positive affect, migrant status played a significant moderating effect. Interesting, the effects of migrant time in NZ are also similarly significant, interacting significantly with vigour and absorption.

Clearly, the migrants have gained more resources – likely through their life experiences – and as such, have gained more resources and might be less vulnerable to resource loss. As Hobfoll (1989) stated, resource loss is more salient than resource gain; the migrant employees who have lived in NZ longer appear to have greater resources and are less vulnerable to resource loss (COR, Corollary 1). Thus, they are well-positioned to gain additional resources and prevent their resource loss in demanding conditions. Another mechanism to understand these effects is Herzberg's two factor motivational theory. Hygiene factors, the presence of these factors like (wages, benefits, working conditions, policies) do not motivate the employees but their absence can cause immense dissatisfaction (Sachau, 2007; Tan & Amna, 2011). If the migrants have come from a country where the presence of these factors was minimal, it will motivate them more than the NZ born employees. Migrant employees reciprocate this positive affect at work.

The present study reported better well-being outcomes for engaged employees irrespective of whether they were migrants or New Zealand born. All three engagement dimensions have reported a negative impact on anxiety, depression and job stress and a positive impact on happiness. Engaged employees were reported to be happier than disengaged employees. The results are in harmony with the previous research of

Rodríguez-Muñoz et al. (2014). The response from all employees has been similar towards happiness. Migrant status did not show any additional benefits over NZ born employees. Happiness is more of an emotion which all employees shared and cherished when they were engaged or well supported by the organisation. Happiness does lead to better outcomes at work and life for all employees. When employees are happy, the willingness and participation increase to improve the work outcomes. Organisations should ask themselves, can employees be engaged with without being happy?

On the contrary, engaged employees were found to report less job stress. When employees are engaged, they are reportedly happy, less anxious, positive, and supported, and ultimately report less job stress. This reflects, under COR theory, a state where employees who are engaged have an abundance of resources (e.g., time, energy, focus) to better manage their work demands to enable them to have lower job stress. Employees form a relationship with the organisation; as the engagement increases the relationship is nurtured, strengthened and a trust is established. Ultimately, POS and ethical leadership are beneficial, being positively related to career satisfaction and positive affect. Engaged employees have greater resources to achieve happiness and this is equally found amongst migrant and NZ local employees. Migrant employees have behaved similarly with their NZ born counterparts in this measure. All employees have reported less stress when engaged. Hence, the benefits of engagement on job stress were evenly found between migrants and NZ local employees.

Migrant employees have reported to have lower level of depression at low levels of dedication. Migrant employees have also reported to have more positive affect the low levels they are also less depressed than NZ born employees. The migrant employees might have gained more personal resources from the previous experiences, move to another country than NZ born employees. Hence, more positive affect and low depression

are not surprising. This is important because New Zealand research has shown anxiety and depression in the New Zealand workforce is relatively common (e.g., Haar, 2013; Haar et al., 2014).

Migrant status has demonstrated an inverse relationship with job stress and depression. Some migrants (especially Asian) are known for not to disclose their mental health issues due to the stigmas associated with them (Chan & Parker, 2004). Furthermore, there is a strong connection between happiness and mental well-being of the employees. In New Zealand, evidence shows that happiness is an important manager outcome, influenced by work factors such as meaningful work (Haar, Schmitz, Di Fabio, & Daellenbach, 2019). However, the present findings show that work-life balance is related to employee happiness and this provides new findings for the literature. This is also important because work life balance has other benefits. For example, work-life balance is linked to other forms of well-being outcomes like life satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and anxiety and depression (e.g., Haar, 2013; Haar et al., 2018; Haar et al., 2014).

8.3. Theoretical contribution

This thesis has contributed to the literature on employee engagement and especially the role of engagement amongst migrants to NZ. The result can be categorised broadly into two categories 1) evidence added to previous research, 2) new results.

The thesis has added more evidence to the previous research on ethical leadership, organisational based self-esteem, perceived organisation support, psychological contract breach and violation in predicting work engagement. The present study finds that all work dimensions respond positively to ethical leadership, organisation-based self-esteem, psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation. Engaged employees

have demonstrated more happiness and satisfaction with their careers. Also, work-life balance contributes positively towards all dimensions of work engagement.

The thesis also adds to the evidence of COR theory on how the availability of resources (for example, greater support, more ethical leadership) can impact employees (both migrants and NZ locals). Indeed, all employees are found to be engaged when organisations provide them with ample resources and support.

The thesis has attempted to fill the void in the engagement research for migrants. It provides an evidence-based approach towards migrant employees' work engagement. The research shows that migrant employees perform on par with their NZ born employees. The results show that especially towards career satisfaction, there are significant benefits for migrants when migrant employees are more engaged. Overall, the studies show that there are theoretical lessons to be had by exploring migrant status as a moderator towards seeing if COR theory can be captured (via resources) when comparing migrant workers and New Zealand local employees. Theoretically, this provides insight into exploring migrant status as a resource to be captured under COR theory. It also encourages further exploration of such potential effects.

8.4. Strengths and limitation of the research

The core strength of this research lies in the multiple sources of data. The data was based on two studies and the demographics were not dominated by any one ethnicity. The sample was a good representation of New Zealand. Further, given concerns about common method bias (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2003) in study two, a common approach to common method bias were followed (Haar & Spell, 2004) with independent variables collected at time one and dependent variables at time two, one month later. This separation provides stronger confidence in relationships tested.

There is a lack of previous comparative studies among migrants and local employees. This data has been scarce in New Zealand and around the world. There is plethora of research available on employee and work engagement. However, it is challenging to find research especially focussed on migrant employees in any country.

Secondly, the qualitative aspect of migrant behaviour has not been studied in this thesis. Previous research has indicated that migrant employees are more vulnerable to exploitation (Anderson & Tipples, 2014; MacKenzie & Forde, 2009; Wright & Clibborn, 2019). While this was not the focus of the present studies, it is thus hard to ascertain if any of these such behaviours were present and thus impacted on the relationships tested here. Future research might look to explore that aspect to the relationships tested here. Further, qualitative interviews might also provide much richer data about the mechanisms through which engagement enhance career satisfaction and positive affect (as found here). This encourages more research how migrant exploitation impacts engagement and well-being outcomes. As migrants have reported (in this study) fewer mental issues as compare to NZ local employees, this also demands more research in the psychological resilience of migrant employees.

8.5. Conclusion

As news and media outlets have praised migrant employees (Newshub, 2017), with some employers also have been part of news stories sharing their admiration of migrant employees (Newshub, 2017). This suggests migrant employees might be better workers. This thesis research finds there is not a significant difference between the engagement levels of migrant employees and NZ born employees. The findings here show that all employees respond well to having good ethical leaders who fulfil their promises and do not breach or violate their psychological contracts; healthy work-life balance, career satisfaction to have good levels of absorption, vigour, and dedication. In line with

conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2011), employees have limited resources and strive to protect their resources while attempting to gain more resources. Employers who provide more opportunities for their employees to gain more resources enjoy more engaged employees. This was supported universally for both migrants and NZ local employees. Migrant employees have notably reported (in this research) more resilience towards mental health issues, when they had high work engagement. Under COR theory, higher engagement would represent more resources – perhaps more psychological resources – which ultimately led to better well-being outcomes as compare to their NZ born counterparts. This was specifically towards positive effect, and included (a) migrant status, and (b) migrants who have spent more time in New Zealand.

It is imperative for any organisation to remember that employees are their most important asset. Organisations need to foster the culture, where dedication is towards support the overall well-being of employees. The organisations who successfully foster this culture will not only have happy, satisfied, and engaged employees but also will be productive, successful, and competitive in the distant future.

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Chapter Ten: Appendicies

10.1. Ethics Approval

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, NZ
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

3 September 2018

Jarrod Haar
Faculty of Business Economics and Law

Dear Jarrod

Re Ethics Application: **18/326 Ethical Work Project**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 3 September 2021.

Standard Conditions of Approval
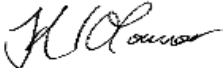
1. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
2. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation, then you are responsible for obtaining it. If the research is undertaken outside New Zealand, you need to meet all locality legal and ethical obligations and requirements. You are reminded that it is your responsibility to ensure that the spelling and grammar of documents being provided to participants or external organisations is of a high standard.

For any enquiries, please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz

Yours sincerely,

Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee
Cc: peter.mcghee@aut.ac.nz; Patricia Grant

10.2 Survey Study 1

Employee Survey

Is your current employment status - in paid work (not self employed) for at least 20 hours a week?

○ Yes (1)

○ No (2)

NZ Workplace Experiences Study

Dear employee,

My name is Professor Jarrod Haar, and along with colleagues and students, we are conducting a study of New Zealand employees and their work experiences. This involves completing two surveys (separated by a two-week gap), with each expected to take most people 10 minutes (each) to complete. Your participation in the research is completely voluntary. We are NOT collecting your personal name or workplace so you will never be personally identified – so you will be totally anonymous - and your anonymity will not be compromised. Please be aware there are no right or wrong answers to the questions asked – just click the response that corresponds closest to what you feel or agree/disagree with.

With thanks, Professor Jarrod Haar (PhD), Auckland University of Technology

Q1.2 Please click here for more information (insert AUTEC information sheet).

Demographics
D1. What is your age?

▼ Less than 20 years (1) ... 70 years or more (12)

D2. What is your gender?

▼ Male (0) ... Other (2)

D3. What is the highest education level achieved?

▼ High School (1) ... Postgraduate Qualification (4)

D4. What is your ethnicity? (tick as many as applicable)

☐ NZ European (1)

☐ Maori (2)

☐ Pacific Islander (3)

☐ Asian (4)

☐ Indian (5)

☐ European (6)

☐ African (7)

☐ Other (8)

- -

D5. Where you born in NZ?

▼ Yes (1) ... No (0)

D5.A If you were not born in NZ, how many years have you lived here?

▼ Less than 1 year (1) ... 17+ years (10)

D6. How many years have you worked in your current role?

▼ Less than 1 year (1) ... 21+ years (12)

D7. Average hours worked per week

▼ 10 hours or less (1) ... 81 hours or more (37)

D8. What is the size of your Organization?

▼ Less than 10 employees (1) ... 5,001+ employees (8)

D9. What sector do you work in?

▼ Private (1) ... Not-for-Profit (3)

D11. What is your personal income from work (annually)?

▼ $20,000 or less (1) ... more than $160,001 (9)

D12. What is your occupation / job title?

_____

2 Please read the following statements and indicate the extent to which you experience the following:

	Never	A few times a year	A few times a month	A few times a week	Everyday
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	○	○	○	○	○
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	○	○	○	○	○
At my job I feel strong and vigorous	○	○	○	○	○
My job inspires me	○	○	○	○	○
I am proud of the work that I do	○	○	○	○	○
I am enthusiastic about my job	○	○	○	○	○
I get carried away when I am working	○	○	○	○	○
I am immersed in my work	○	○	○	○	○
I feel happy when I am working intensely	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following.
When it refers to your job or workplace, consider your main job if you have more than one.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am satisfied with my work-life balance, enjoying both roles	○	○	○	○	○
Nowadays, I seem to enjoy every part of my life equally well	○	○	○	○	○
I manage to balance the demands of my work and personal/family life well	○	○	○	○	○

B6 The following questions relate to your immediate supervisor.
My supervisor ...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Listens to what employees have to say	○	○	○	○	○
Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards	○	○	○	○	○
Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner	○	○	○	○	○
Has the best interests of employees in mind	○	○	○	○	○
Makes fair and balanced decisions	○	○	○	○	○
Can be trusted	○	○	○	○	○
Discusses business ethics or values with employees	○	○	○	○	○
Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics	○	○	○	○	○
Defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained	○	○	○	○	○

| When making decisions, asks "what is the right thing to do?" | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

B7a Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following.
When it refers to your job or workplace, consider your main job if you have more than one.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
At work I count	○	○	○	○	○
At work I am trusted	○	○	○	○	○
At work I can make a difference	○	○	○	○	○
At work I am valuable	○	○	○	○	○
At work I am helpful	○	○	○	○	○

B8 Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your work.

When it refers to your job or workplace, consider your main job if you have more than one.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept thus far	○	○	○	○	○
I feel that my employer has come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I was hired	○	○	○	○	○
So far my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me	○	○	○	○	○
I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions	○	○	○	○	○
My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal	○	○	○	○	○
I feel a great deal of anger towards my organisation	○	○	○	○	○
I feel betrayed by my organisation	○	○	○	○	○
I feel that my organisation has violated the contract between us	○	○	○	○	○
I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organisation	○	○	○	○	○

10.3 Survey Study 2

Employee Survey

Q32 Is your current employment status - in paid work (not self employed) for at least 20 hours a week?

○ Yes (1)

○ No (2)

Skip To: End of Block If Is your current employment status - in paid work (not self employed) for at least 20 hours a week? = No

NZ Workplace Experiences Study

Dear employee,

My name is Professor Jarrod Haar, and along with colleagues and students, we are conducting a study of New Zealand employees and their work experiences. This involves completing two surveys (separated by a two-week gap), with each expected to take most people 10 minutes (each) to complete. Your participation in the research is completely voluntary. We are NOT collecting your personal name or workplace so you will never be personally identified – so you will be totally anonymous - and your anonymity will not be compromised. Please be aware there are no right or wrong answers to the questions asked – just click the response that corresponds closest to what you feel or agree/disagree with.

With thanks, Professor Jarrod Haar (PhD), Auckland University of Technology

Q1.2 Please click here for more information (insert AUTEC information sheet).

Demographics
D1. What is your age?

▼ Less than 20 years (1) ... 70 years or more (12)

D2. What is your gender?

▼ Male (0) ... Other (2)

D3. What is the highest education level achieved?

▼ High School (1) ... Postgraduate Qualification (4)

D4. What is your ethnicity? (tick as many as applicable)

☐ NZ European (1)

☐ Maori (2)

☐ Pacific Islander (3)

☐ Asian (4)

☐ Indian (5)

☐ European (6)

☐ African (7)

☐ Other (8)

D5. Where you born in NZ?

▼ Yes (1) ... No (0)

D5.A If you were not born in NZ, how many years have you lived here?

▼ Less than 1 year (1) ... 17+ years (10)

D6. How many years have you worked in your current role?

▼ Less than 1 year (1) ... 21+ years (12)

D7. Average hours worked per week

▼ 10 hours or less (1) ... 81 hours or more (37)

D8. What is the size of your Organization?

▼ Less than 10 employees (1) ... 5,001+ employees (8)

D9. What sector do you work in?

▼ Private (1) ... Not-for-Profit (3)

D11. What is your personal income from work (annually)?

▼ $20,000 or less (1) ... more than $160,001 (9)

D12. What is your occupation / job title?

_____

2 Please read the following statements and indicate the extent to which you experience the following:

	Never	A few times a year	A few times a month	A few times a week	Everyday
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	○	○	○	○	○
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	○	○	○	○	○
At my job I feel strong and vigorous	○	○	○	○	○
My job inspires me	○	○	○	○	○
I am proud of the work that I do	○	○	○	○	○
I am enthusiastic about my job	○	○	○	○	○
I get carried away when I am working	○	○	○	○	○
I am immersed in my work	○	○	○	○	○
I feel happy when I am working intensely	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following.
When it refers to your job or workplace, consider your main job if you have more than one.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am satisfied with my work-life balance, enjoying both roles	○	○	○	○	○
Nowadays, I seem to enjoy every part of my life equally well	○	○	○	○	○
I manage to balance the demands of my work and personal/family life well	○	○	○	○	○

QB1. These items relate to your perceptions of your organisation.
My organisation...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
values my contribution to its well-being	○	○	○	○	○
would fail to appreciate any extra effort from me	○	○	○	○	○
would ignore any complaint from me	○	○	○	○	○
really cares about my well-being	○	○	○	○	○
would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible	○	○	○	○	○
cares about my general satisfaction at work	○	○	○	○	○
shows very little concern for me	○	○	○	○	○
takes pride in my accomplishments at work	○	○	○	○	○

Q13. Indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree or Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work	○	○	○	○	○
I feel fairly satisfied with my present job	○	○	○	○	○
I find real enjoyment in my work	○	○	○	○	○
I am thinking about leaving my organization	○	○	○	○	○
I am planning to look for a new job	○	○	○	○	○
I intend to ask people about new job opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
I don't plan to be at my organisation much longer	○	○	○	○	○

Q26. Overall, how would you rate your happiness from 0 (extremely unhappy) through 5 (neutral) to 10 (extremely happy)? [move the slider on the left or right]

Extremely --   -- Neutral --   -- Extremely
Unhappy   Happy

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Q8. Please rate the extent to which they have experienced each <u>particular emotion</u> within the past week:

	Not at all/very slightly	A Little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Very much
Enthusiastic	○	○	○	○	○
Interested	○	○	○	○	○
Determined	○	○	○	○	○
Excited	○	○	○	○	○
Inspired	○	○	○	○	○

10.4. PROCESS models

Moderation

Model 1

Conceptual Diagram
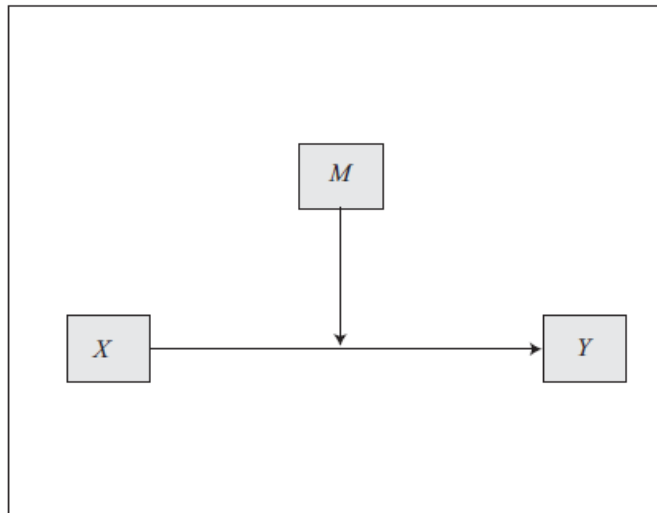
Statistical Diagram
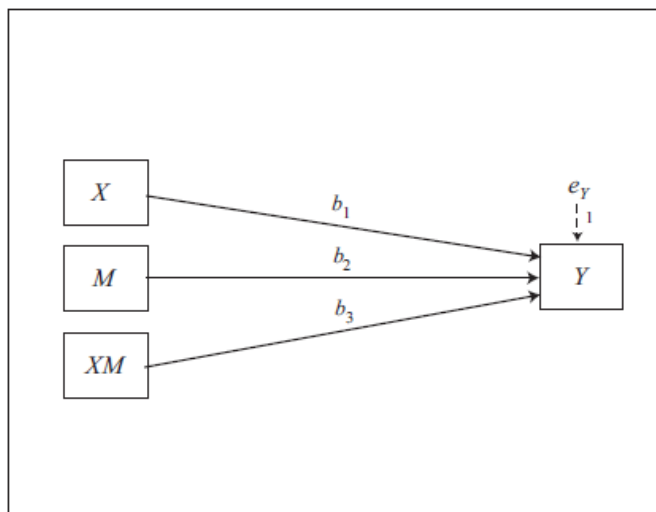
Conditional effect of X on $Y = b_1 + b_3 M$

Moderation (Study 2 only)
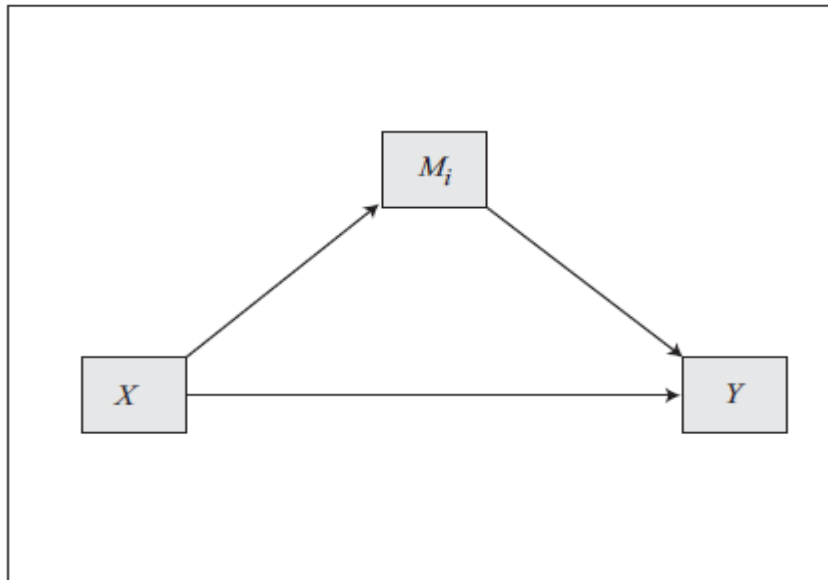
Model 2

Conceptual Diagram
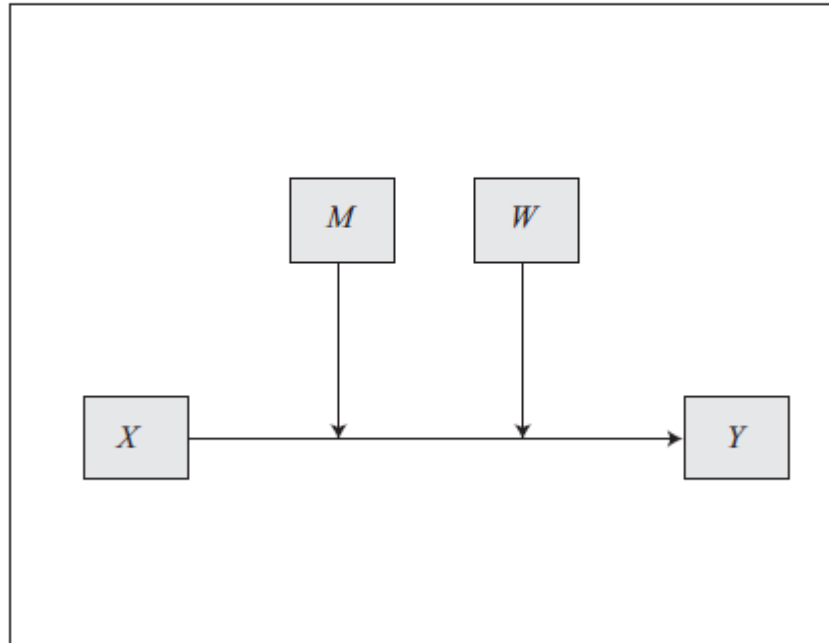
Statistical Diagram
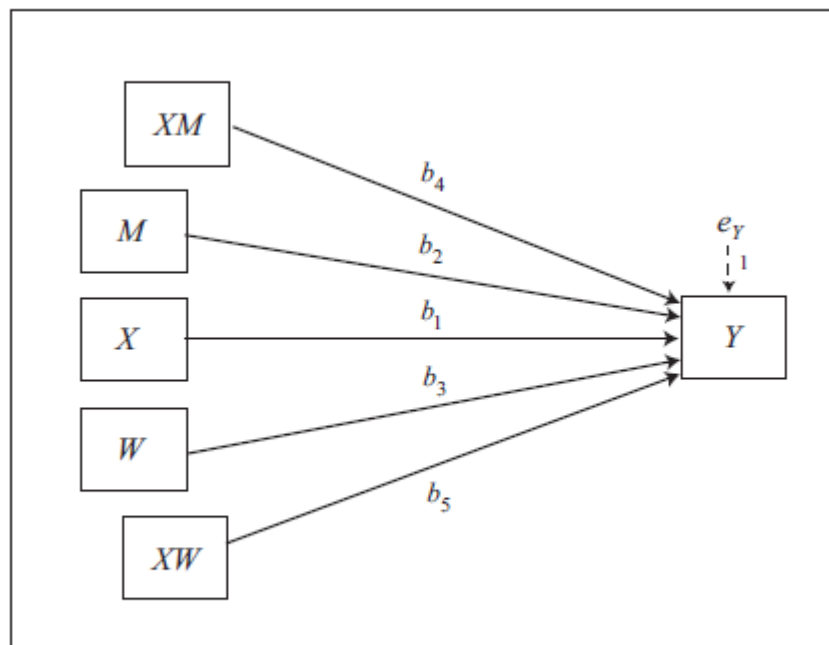
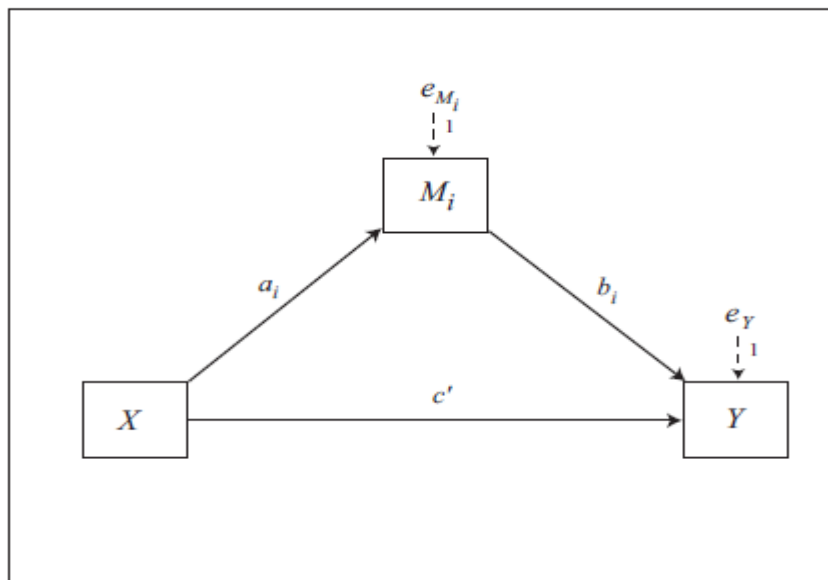Conditional effect of X on $Y = b_1 + b_4M + b_5W$

Mediation

Model 4

Conceptual Diagram

Statistical Diagram

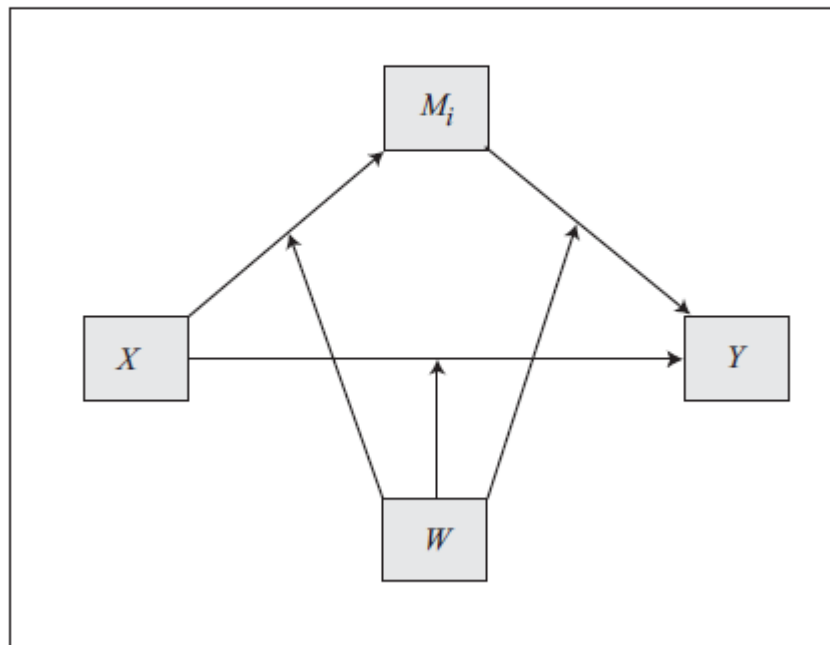Indirect effect of X on Y through $M_i = a_i\, b_i$

Direct effect of X on $Y = c'$

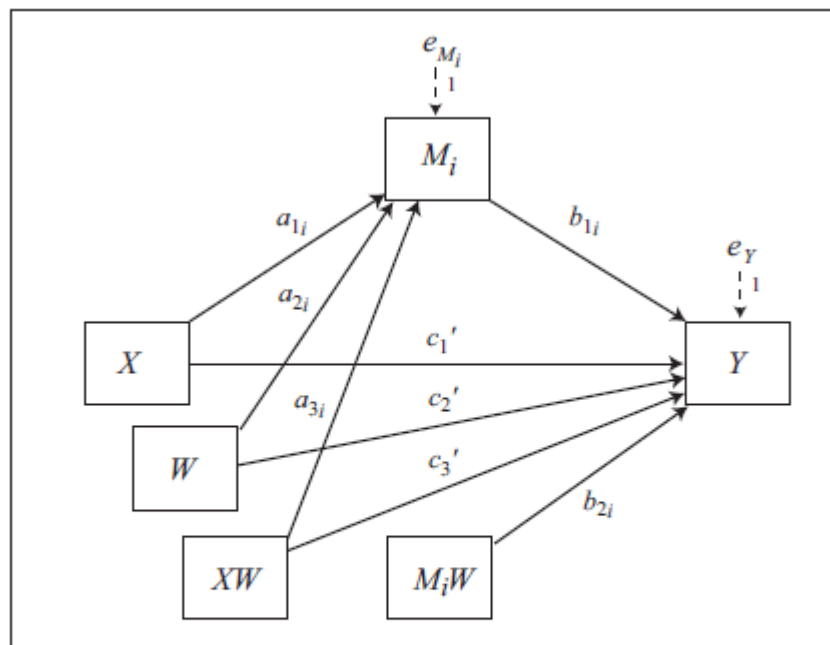*Model 4 allows up to 10 mediators operating in parallel

Moderated Mediation

Model 59

Conceptual Diagram

Statistical Diagram

Conditional indirect effect of X on Y through $M_i = (a_{1i} + a_{3i}W)(b_{1i} + b_{2i}W)$

Conditional direct effect of X on $Y = c_1' + c_3'W$

*Model 59 allows up to 10 mediators operating in parallel