

The effects of work disengagement on flight attendants' well-being: The mediating role of organisational commitment and the moderating role of employment status

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ABSTRACT

This study examined both the mediating process of flight attendants' organisational commitment between their work disengagement and well-being, and the moderating role of employment status in the mediation process. Using a sample of 171 flight attendants from a Middle East airline, the research hypotheses were tested through Hayes' PROCESS macro. The study introduced employees' work disengagement at four levels: psychological, physical, emotional, and financial.

The results showed that "organisational commitment of flight attendants" as a mediator in the link between work disengagement and well-being. All flight attendants exhibited high levels of psychological, physical, emotional, and financial disengagement. This study categorised the employment status of flight attendants as either currently active or temporarily inactive. Results indicated that irrespective of employment status, both sets of flight attendants experienced high levels of disengagement. Temporarily inactive flight attendants were found to be more committed to their organisation and exhibited stronger well-being, compared to those who were currently active. Financial disengagement had a positive effect on currently active flight attendants.

Based on the research findings, the study explains the theoretical and practical implications of the results for airline management companies.

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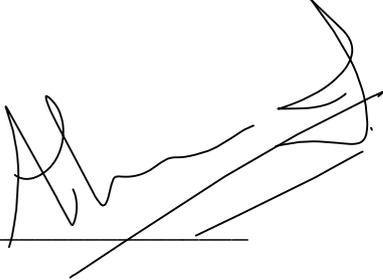
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ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP

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.

Signed:  _____

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

As the world witnessed the disastrous impact of the coronavirus (COVID-19) on the livelihood of individuals across the globe, many organisations in various sectors faced financial crises in keeping their businesses viable. The World Health Organization (WHO) declared the COVID-19 outbreak to be a public health emergency of international concern in January 2020, and a pandemic, in March 2020 (World Health Organization, 2021). The hospitality and tourism industry were the worst hit sectors in this pandemic, along with the aviation industry, which played an important role in connecting various business sectors and individuals across the globe. It was noted that the aviation sector played a central role in the spread of COVID-19 in the early days of the pandemic, even though it was one of the worst affected economic sectors (Sun et al., 2020). Air transport was one of the means for the virus to be transferred from one place to another, domestically and internationally. With this in mind, government led travel bans and restrictions were implemented around the world. As of 15th June 2021, a substantial decrease was observed in the number of new cases and deaths because of COVID-19. In the light of this pandemic affected era, this research examined the disengagement factor experienced by flight attendants due to COVID-19 restrictions and decisions affecting the aviation sector. This research particularly sheds light on the effects of disengagement on the well-being of flight attendants.

1.2 Background to the Study

1.2.1 Impact of COVID-19 on the aviation industry

In the midst of this on-going pandemic, some countries resumed partial air travel, with strictly implemented safety guidelines for passengers and employees. to mitigate the spread of the disease. The greatest concern for airline passengers was the possibility of contracting the virus from other passengers who were unaware of their positive infection status. However, public perceptions of air travel changed, as more information was made available on COVID-19 safety measures. With the gradual roll-out of vaccinations against COVID-19 in most

countries, some people were able to resume air travel for essential activities (Sun et al., 2021).

With more than 85% reduction of international demand for air travel, many airline companies parked their long-haul fleets and opted to fly short distances where possible, which was more costly in terms of fuel and other operational expenses. With the majority of the fleets grounded, potential job losses and economic devastation grew as the crisis continued. Many airlines opted for financial aid from their governments to ensure their survival, as 1.3 million airline jobs were at risk (Thomas, 2020). The jobs of those in the wider economy, whose work was supported by aviation, were in jeopardy, along with the jobs of the airline employees. The threatening loss of US\$1.8 trillion in economic activity would have an impact on global gross domestic products (GDPs) due to the loss of aviation connectivity (Thomas, 2020), and it was expected that the impact of this pandemic led crisis would be much greater than that of the earlier global financial crisis (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2020).

With most airline companies parking their major fleets to reduce costs, many opted for employee reductions as a temporary cost saving strategy to reduce further losses. For example, Air Asia cut more than 80% of its flights, losing hundreds of millions of dollars, and Qatar Airways, a strong leading airline in the Middle East, laid off around 30% of its staff. Some of the other bigger companies such as South African Airways and Thai Airways only survived due to the financial aid provided by their governments in support packages (British Broadcasting Corporation, 2021). British airways implemented a “fire and rehire” policy for its flight attendants, many of whom lost salaries and seniority-based benefits (Tiemeyer, 2021). The former chief executive officer (CEO) of the International Air Transport Association (IATA), Mr Alexandre de Juniac, stated that “35-40 airlines have disappeared already” (BBC, 2021, p. 1). An estimated 38 million people, about 70% of the workforce of the hospitality and tourism industry, were predicted to lose their jobs (Radhakrishnan, 2020). The hospitality, travel, and tourism industries continued to face the direct impact of COVID-19 globally, with heavy financial losses, job redundancies, company closures, salary cuts, and unemployment (Malhotra, 2021).

These direct impacts of the pandemic on the airline transportation industry led to frequent flight cancellations and flight suspensions, causing great difficulties for air travellers in terms of planning and rescheduling their travel. This in turn disadvantaged flight attendants, whose frequent roster changes and losses of flying hours reduced their emotional and financial well-being (Charernnit, 2021). A subsidiary company of Thai Airways, Wingspan, laid off almost 2,600 employees in the year 2020 due to the pandemic (Thaiger, 2020). Following these global impacts, the airline companies' loss saving strategies led to an increase in the number of redundant flight attendants, some of whom were stranded in different countries (while paid basic salaries) and others who were required to go on leave without pay (Charernnit, 2021).

As the pandemic continued into its second year of global disastrous impacts, air travel seemed to become increasingly necessary for business survival and further reduction of losses. Some recent evidence suggested that there was minimal risk of in-flight transmission of COVID-19 due to the enhanced mechanisms for efficient air-flow management on aeroplanes. This could be further improved by the crew members, the travellers, and the airlines, rigorously following COVID-19 safety measures. Recent reports also suggested that, with the implementation of strict in-flight safety measures for air travellers and flight crew during COVID-19, proper standards and specific care should be given to the efficient ground handling of air travellers and crew (Sun et al., 2021).

Even though the World Health Organization initially declared COVID-19 as a public health emergency of international concern and later as a global pandemic, it did not support the restrictions on travel (domestically and internationally), and advised against their implementation in countries experiencing outbreaks of COVID-19 (WHO: Travel Guidelines, 2020). This decision was in line with the potential socio-economic impact on all industries as a result of travel restrictions imposed across the globe.

In comparison with other industries, the aviation sector was probably affected the most (Suau-Sanchez et al., 2020). The unforeseen decrease in passenger demand along with flight bans within and between countries, led to an immediate halt of many airlines. Many airline companies grounded their entire fleets, and some ceased all their operations (Sun et al., 2020). Most companies were

working with a minimum number of staff with strict rotations on their rosters (Iacus et al., 2020). Many airports shut down indefinitely due to the sudden halt in operations, and some closed their runways to free up space for parked aircraft (Adrienne et al., 2020). Aircraft manufacturers were also forced to shut down their production lines (Truxal, 2020) as a result of the global pandemic. This adversely affected travel plans for air travellers, and increased unemployment and health risks for flight attendants.

1.2.2 Importance of flight attendants in the aviation industry

Flight attendants play a vital role in the development of the airline industry. They are considered as an important point of contact and service on-board the aircraft, and many describe them as “cabin crew.” According to Sveinsdottir et al. (2007), cabin crews’ jobs are mostly performed by females, who create a service-oriented platform from where they are expected to cater to the individual needs of passengers on-board the aircraft. Flight attendants are frontline service employees in constant direct contact with different passengers, and as frontline employees, they must deal with the high emotional demands of their passengers. Flight attendants were also likely to witness frequent flight suspensions and cancellations due to the outbreak of COVID-19, resulting in fewer flying hours, creating a financial obstacle for them in terms of their incomes (Charernnit, 2021).

In commercial aviation, operational and passenger safety are of utmost importance, with flight attendants playing a crucial role in maintaining this. Before the world witnessed the impact of COVID-19, flight attendants were part of a fast-growing profession, with increases in demand for new recruits expected to rise between 2020 and 2039 to over 300,000 crew members in the Asia Pacific region, and North America requiring 169,000 new flight attendants, based on expected increases in air traffic of around four percent (Statista, 2021). Flight attendants are also considered as the boundary spanning front line personnel responsible for efficient inflight service delivery along with the provision and maintenance of cabin safety (Kao et al., 2009). Flight attendants play a key role in the overall safety of the airline industry with the quality and relevance of their inflight performance, which directly affects air travel safety (Ji et al., 2019).

1.2.3 The current role and status of flight attendants

Many studies have provided evidence that employee engagement predicts employee outcomes, the financial performance of a company, and the overall organisational success of an establishment (Baumruk, 2004; Harter et al., 2002). In the aviation industry, organisational success is partly dependent on the crucial role of the flight attendants who provide an efficient service on-board to its passengers, who are the source of income to the airline company. In light of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, employee engagement became a crucial and difficult task for companies to deal with. A survey conducted by Charernnit (2021), indicated that employees worried about uncertainty over their jobs and their future in the industry, as the spread of the virus was shutting down companies, creating job losses and job insecurity.

As a part of their occupation, flight attendants visit different locations and interact with unspecified individuals. These contacts may be on-board with travelling passengers, with the ground staff, with travellers at the airport, with individuals working at the airline operation centres, with accommodation staff, transportation staff, or even the local people at stopover/layover areas. On the aircraft, flight attendants interact and have encounters with random air travellers in the cabins (business class, first class, and economy class) as well as having close contact with colleagues on-board in crew resting areas, galleys, or storage areas. During these times, flight attendants are in close contact with air travellers for long periods of time (Yeh, 2014), which could lead to work disengagement for flight attendants during the pandemic, as their health was at risk (Grout & Leggat, 2021). With international travel experiencing a downfall for more than a year due to the pandemic, many countries and airlines began preparing to resume their air-related operations. With this positive sign for air travel, stranded flight attendants were likely to be called upon to resume their jobs and contribute to the recovery of the lost businesses of the airline companies. As a result, flight attendants' role in salvaging the airline businesses was of utmost importance.

In general, flight attendants work in a high-risk environment and are those most likely to be exposed to risks and hazards in their occupation. As most occupational settings pose a threat to employee health, Griffiths and Powell's (2012) research indicated that during the pandemic, individual health was at

potential risk in the cabin environment for flight attendants. Flight attendants were also likely to experience burnout, emotional exhaustion, and disengagement in their workplace.

1.3 Research Gap

In the context of the airline industry, only a few researchers have investigated the individual and organisational consequences of burnout or employee engagement of flight attendants (Chen, 2006; Chen & Kao, 2012; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). As the number of flights continued to increase, “red-eye” flights became more common (Cheng et al., 2018). With increased demand, the airline companies were likely to speed up the process of getting stranded flight attendants to resume their job roles. In addition, due to heavy revenue losses, the recruitment of new flight attendants paused. As a result, the flight attendants currently in service faced an increased number of working hours, work-related stress, and irregular flight schedules. This in turn added to the flight attendants’ burden in the form of emotional and aesthetic labour (see Hochschild, 1983; Spiess & Waring, 2005; Tsaur & Tang, 2013). With such job conditions and characteristics, the flight attendants were likely to face a high work pressure environment (Boyd & Bain, 1998), which would strongly influence their performance at work (Chen & Kao, 2012).

Griffiths and Powell (2012), suggested that flight attendants were vulnerable to a variety of health-related issues at their workplace. Evidence suggests that their job characteristics and certain aspects of their job role have become more demanding over the years, with increased working hours and irregular schedules resulting in disruption and unpredictability (Shalla, 2004). In addition, some countries (e.g. Canada) have seen a progressive reduction of flight attendants on-board with an earlier implementation of a ratio of one flight attendant to 40 passengers, then revising it to one per 50, which was considered a controversial government decision (Canadian Union of Public Employees, 2017). Schiffinger and Braun (2020) stated that scheduling satisfaction (a temporal resource) is considered an influential job resource, affecting the emotional exhaustion experienced by flight attendants.

Recent studies conducted on work engagement have demonstrated that the relationship between personal resources (or psychological capital) and job performance is mediated by work engagement (Chaurasia & Shukla, 2014; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Some studies have explored and examined the moderating role of work engagement between different types of stress and work-related outcomes (Britt, 1999). Recent studies have suggested that the in-role performance (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008) and extra-role performance (Bakker et al., 2004) of employees is positively associated with work engagement. Furthermore, in a study by Shirom and colleagues on the organisational behaviour of European flight attendants (Shirom et al., 2008), findings suggested that work engagement had a positive impact on flight attendants' job performance, which includes extra-role and in-role performances (Chen & Kao, 2013).

Some researchers' theoretical work on burnout has suggested that emotional exhaustion is a major work-related stressor, and likely to impact on the well-being and health of employees in their workplace (Demerouti et al., 2001; Maslach et al., 1986). Furthermore, emotional exhaustion as an antecedent of work disengagement. is likely to have an impact on work outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance, turnover intent, and organisational commitment (Hakanen et al., 2011; Halbesleben, 2010). Demerouti et al. (2010) defined *disengagement* as the extent of withdrawal from all aspects of work by an individual in their workplace. Thanacoody et al. (2014) examined the influence of the emotional exhaustion of health-care professionals on turnover intention and organisational commitment, using the intervention of work disengagement.

Some studies in the airline-related literature have investigated the consequences of employee engagement and disengagement (individual and organisational), and burnout (emotional exhaustion and disengagement) within the workplace environment for flight attendants (Chen, 2006; Chen & Kao, 2012; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). Kahn's (1990) study on engagement and disengagement of employees, suggested three psychological conditions that shape the engagement aspect of employee at the workplace: meaningfulness, availability, and safety. *Psychological meaningfulness* represents the emotional, physical, and cognitive (psychological) energy that an individual experiences from

investing time in work (Kahn, 1990). Research on these three aspects of psychological meaningfulness is yet to explore them in the context of flight attendants. Engagement/disengagement at work is likely to cause positive/negative work-related outcomes such as organisational commitment (Saks, 2006). Engagement/disengagement at work can positively predict various positive organisational outcomes such as organisational commitment, work-related well-being, and withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover (Schaufeli et al., 2006). A recent study by Mohamed and Zaki (2017) investigated the relationship between work-life balance and employee engagement among flight attendants in Egypt; their findings suggested that work-life policies and supervisor (including organisational) support, help achieve employee engagement at workplace.

Frontline employees in general, must face and cope with several emotionally demanding encounters and interactions with customers. In these situations, employees are unable to fully express themselves, being bound by their job responsibilities and the requirements of their workplace. As a result, employees are likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs, resulting in their disengagement. In addition, employees who frequently suppress their emotions, experience burnout, followed by dissatisfaction with their jobs, and exhibit decreased organisational commitment and increased turnover intentions (Karatepe et al., 2009; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Wong & Wang, 2009). Most previous studies have indicated that job demands intensify burnout and emotional exhaustion (Babakus et al., 2008; Bakker et al., 2004; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). This is consistent with the Job Demand-Resource (JD-R) model, which states that employees' disengagement is reduced by the interaction of job demands and job resources (Bakker et al., 2005; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

Empirical evidence has also suggested that frontline employees face a high degree of exhaustion (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Ledgerwood et al., 1998; Yavas et al., 2008). In the context of flight attendants, it is important to understand the underlying factors of disengagement experienced by them, and the extent to which the types of disengagement affect their work-related well-being. Taris et al. (2005) found that exhaustion predicted depersonalisation. Depersonalisation at

work may reflect the use of employees' avoidance coping strategies such as disengagement at work (Houkes et al., 2011).

An employee's emotional, physical, and cognitive (psychological) processes are impaired by various undesirable situations at their workplace or in their personal lives, to which they react by reducing work-related activities, motivation, and work investments, such as exhibiting signs of disengagement from their work (van den Elzen & MacLeod, 2006). A recent study by Munyenyembe et al. (2021) on primary care nurses amidst COVID-19, suggested that they experienced high levels of disengagement, as they faced undesirable situations at their workplace. Furthermore, their findings were consistent with COR (Conservation of Resources) theory and established three broad categories: threat of losing central resources, actual loss of central resources, and failure to gain central resources. However, such studies have focused only on the antecedents of disengagement, and there is a lack of research conducted on its outcomes.

Recent studies have also indicated that home confinement due to COVID-19 had a negative effect on mood and psychological well-being of individuals by increasing psychosocial stress and depressive symptoms (Alsalhe et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2020; Jaenes et al., 2020; López-Bueno et al., 2020; Mon-López et al., 2020; Pieh et al., 2020; Rossi et al., 2020). Rastogi, Pati, Dixit et al. (2018) explored work disengagement among workers in small to medium enterprises (SMEs) using the JD-R model and a model of burnout, and found evidence to support the definitions of disengagement at work given in each of the models. However, the effects of work disengagement on employees' well-being and commitment to the organisation has not been widely explored. In the airline context, researchers have also explored the effects of burnout on employees' job performance, and further examined whether it is dependent of their levels of work engagement and/or on experience in their jobs (C.-F. Chen & Kao, 2013). These studies clearly indicate the lack of research on the outcomes of disengagement at workplace.

Sinclair and Cheung (2016) found that financial insecurity experienced by an employee is negatively associated with work engagement, organisational commitment, and performance of the employee at their workplace. Extending on the same research, Whitman et al. (2014) found that when diminished resources

were not able to be substituted, individuals were likely to disconnect from that situation to avoid further losses of resources. Earlier studies have indicated that job demands increase emotional exhaustion while job resources (or lack thereof) lead to work disengagement (Kaiser et al., 2020; Peterson et al., 2008). Some studies have suggested that perceptions of financial insecurity by employees reduce their organisational commitment and increase their levels of disengagement (Lambert et al., 2010). A recent study on financial insecurity during COVID-19 by Rasdi et al. (2021) stated that financial insecurity spills over the exchange relationship shared between work disengagement and burnout. In the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic, financial insecurity has been the greatest concern in relation to the wellness for every employee across a range of organisations. The lack of research on financial insecurity as a disengagement factor influencing employees' well-being and commitment indicates a clear gap for exploration.

A study by Chen and Kao (2013) explored aspects of work engagement, burnout, job tenure, and work performance, and analysed the moderating effects of job tenure on the engagement and performance of flight attendants. Employment status has an important influence on employees' psychological and physical well-being (McKee-Ryan et al., 2005). In various studies, employment status has only been a part of the demographic characteristics, along with gender, age, marital status, education, income, etc., Very few researchers have used employment status as a moderator in their studies. Most studies using employment status as a construct, have categorised it as employed or unemployed (Özden & Ermis, 2017), active or inactive (Alameddine et al., 2011; Steenland & Stayner, 1991), employed or economically inactive (Brown et al., 2012), or full-time or part-time (Alexandrov et al., 2007; Darden et al., 1993), and so on. Employment status differentiates employees quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of the time they spend at work (Avery et al., 2012). Previous studies have suggested that employment status - such as the motivating potential of the specific job, level of job responsibility and autonomy, and job tenure - may be positively related to organisational commitment (Greenberg & Baron, 1986). In the post pandemic recovery phase, researchers suggest that airline management should find effective solutions to mitigate the negative consequences of the COVID-19 shock on their frontline personnel (Sobieralski, 2020), which includes flight attendants.

The foregoing discussion reveals a lack of in-depth theoretical research on the aspects of psychological meaningfulness pertaining to work disengagement experienced by flight attendants. The unprecedented situation caused by COVID-19 allowed for exploration into employees' work disengagement on their work-related well-being. This study aimed to fill the clear gap in the literature, with organisational commitment mediating the relationship between disengagement and well-being. In addition, most of the studies reviewed have used demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, income, and tenure, as moderators to examine relationships. Very few studies have explored employment status as a moderator. With the lack of literature on employment status acting as a moderator in the airline context, this study aimed to analyse the effects of employment status on the disengagement-organisational commitment-well-being relationship.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between flight attendants' disengagement (psychological, physical, emotional, and financial), and their work-related well-being. The study also aimed at investigating the mediating role of organisational commitment on this relationship. The study also evaluated the effect of flight attendants' employment status on their level of commitment to the organisation, as well as on their disengagement-well-being relationship.

First, this study assessed whether flight attendants who feel a psychological, physical, emotional, or financial disengagement in their jobs, experienced a low or high level of work-related well-being.

Second, this study also examined whether the relationship between work disengagement and well-being would be stronger for flight attendants who scored low on organisational commitment than for those who were highly committed to their organisation.

Finally, this study tested whether the relationship between work disengagement and well-being through organisational commitment would be stronger or weaker for flight attendants, based on their current employment status.

These questions were especially important at a time when flight attendants faced a high level of work disengagement in the current COVID-19 affected situation, and their work-related well-being was of utmost importance for airline companies, to enable them to recuperate with recovery strategies for lost business.

To fulfil these objectives, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. Does work disengagement enhance or reduce the work-related well-being of flight attendants?
2. Does the organisational commitment of flight attendants control the effects of work disengagement on their well-being?
3. Does the current employment status of flight attendants directly affect their disengagement-well-being relationship?
4. Does the current employment status of flight attendants indirectly affect the relationship between disengagement and well-being through organisational commitment?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the airline literature in several ways. It also provides new insights into some of the studied variables which were explored in various new contexts. This research opens a scope for new research in light of the COVID-19 pandemic.

This study fills the gap in the literature on the psychological meaningfulness aspect of disengagement. It explores the three dimensions of psychological meaningfulness; physical, emotional, and cognitive (psychological). Previous studies have explored and investigated the three aspects of disengagement, which are psychological meaningfulness, availability, and safety. Hence, investigating the physical, emotional, and cognitive (psychological) aspects of flight attendants' disengagement helps contribute to mitigating disengagement and, as a result, increasing work-related well-being.

In relation to the COVID-19 pandemic, this study also introduces a new aspect of disengagement, financial disengagement, which was drawn from the financial insecurity and instability experienced by flight attendants. The study explores financial disengagement as a cause of financial burdens faced by flight

attendants, which adds to psychological meaningfulness. This allows future researchers to explore financial disengagement in light of the pandemic or any crisis which might affect individuals' work-related well-being. The exploration of this aspect will help airline companies keep their employees engaged with work by providing financial stability, using efficient management strategies.

This study adds to the literature on employment status moderating the relationship between disengagement and well-being through organisational commitment. Previous studies have explored employment status as merely a demographic variable or sometimes as a moderator, categorised as employed/unemployed, or part-time/full-time. In this study, employment status (currently active/temporarily inactive) is considered in a new light to examine its effects on the disengagement, organisational commitment, and well-being of flight attendants. This will allow future researchers to explore other fields, using employment status as a moderator.

Investigating the important role of the organisational commitment of flight attendants will help airline companies to re-evaluate and modify their strategies to better understand the disengagement experienced by flight attendants, and introduce new policies to keep them committed to the organisation. The findings of this study will also help airline companies retain highly experienced and motivated flight attendants to contribute more to the company's business.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

This research has a total of five chapters. Chapter one presented an introduction to the research topic, which included a background to the study, highlighting the importance and current situation of the research subject, followed by the research gap identified in the literature, then the objective or purpose of this study, and the significance of the study.

Chapter two provides a theoretical background to the hypotheses proposed in this study. It also gives a detailed explanation of engagement and disengagement, followed by an in-depth exploration of the key constructs of disengagement. In the next section, four different types of work disengagement

are explained with theoretical evidence and theories. It also provides information on organisational commitment and the importance of flight attendants' well-being.

Chapter three gives an overview of the methods used in this research followed by the sample size and procedures used to recruit respondents. This chapter also highlights the importance of the quantitative methods used and data collection techniques implemented. This chapter also overviews the pilot study, and the refinement and modification of the scales used. This is followed by the details of the demographic data collected from respondents and an overview of the ethical considerations affecting the study.

Chapter four outlines the data collection methods with the data analysis briefly explained. This chapter then states the results of this research with information on respondents' profiles, scale reliability, and proposed hypotheses testing. The exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis results are provided to verify the research model. The hypotheses are tested for mediation and moderation using regression analyses.

Chapter five summarises the findings of the research followed by its theoretical implications. This chapter also provides managerial implications and suggestions to mitigate the effects of disengagement on well-being. This is followed by presenting the limitations of this study and scope for future research. Finally, an overall conclusion of the results of the study is provided.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 The Concept of Employee Engagement

Work engagement has been widely studied and explored by researchers over the past decades, playing a key role in contemporary human resource management (HRM) (Markoulli et al., 2017), in which this phenomenon has attracted many establishments and practitioners. Tasker (2004) defined *engagement* as “a relationship between employers and employees who are likely to benefit and are willing to go an extra mile for each other” (p. 8). Engagement is also referred to as a “fulfilling, positive, work-related state of mind that is characterised by dedication, vigor and absorption” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Dedication reflects employees’ enthusiasm and feelings of pride, whereas vigour relates to the energy levels displayed by employees, and absorption illustrates their willingness to completely focus on their task. Work engagement connects individuals emotionally, cognitively, and psychologically to their tasks (Bakker et al., 2012) and work (Mazzetti et al., 2018).

Work engagement and employee engagement have been explored by many researchers, and these phenomena have been used reciprocally in their studies. Comparing both concepts, it is observed that the connection between employees with their work relates to work engagement. On the other hand, employee engagement may also include their connection with the organisation (Truss et al., 2013). As Gibbons (2006) noted, employee engagement reflects the heightened intellectual and emotional connection that an employee shares with their organisation, supervisors, co-workers, and the job itself, wherein they would be willing to invest extra effort in their work. Alfes et al. (2010) defined *employee engagement* as the positive presence of employees at the workplace, exhibiting significant connections with co-workers, contributing intellectually, and experiencing positive emotions during their work performance. As a motivational construct, employee engagement has been found to play a mediating role, serving as a critical linking mechanism between a number of antecedents and positive work outcomes (Karatepe, 2015; Saks & Gruman, 2014).

Employee engagement has been defined by researchers in many ways, and it is important to agree to a single, generally accepted definition. The Gallup

Organization (2005) categorised employees as engaged, not engaged, and actively disengaged. Engaged employees displayed emotional and physical efforts with a passion for company goals, non-engaged employees displayed physical presence with no passion and enthusiasm, and actively disengaged employees exhibited work behaviours with possible negative outcomes on others. Many researchers have commonly used the job demands-resources (JD-R) (Demerouti et al., 2001) model to determine the antecedents of work engagement (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018). Engaged employees are important for organisational effectiveness; they perform better (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2013) and are more productive (Young et al., 2018). On the other hand, non-engaged employees are satisfied but not attached to their work or workplace wherein they would be physically present at work doing the required tasks but they aren't connected; these employees would leave the company at the first opportunity on finding a better job elsewhere. Perrin's (2003) study suggested the categorisation of employees based on their engagement level: highly engaged, moderately engaged, or disengaged. Moderately engaged employees in this study displayed neutral behaviours with signs of disengagement, as well as positive attitudes in some areas.

Kahn (1990, p.694) described personal engagement as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles." In addition, he stated that "in engagement, people employ and express themselves emotionally, cognitively and physically during role performances." With so many context-related meanings and definitions of *engagement*, the academic literature has defined this notion as a unique and distinct construct that exhibits cognitive, physical, and emotional energies associated with individual role performances (Saks 2006, p. 602). Three psychological conditions (i.e. meaningfulness, safety, and availability) experienced by employees at their workplace are linked to personal engagement and disengagement (Kahn 1990; Saks, 2006). These three psychological conditions were found to be major influencers of the engagement levels of employees in a study by May et al. (2004) providing a psychological perspective on Kahn's (1990) conceptual model.

Additionally, a state of harmony between the values of individuals and their organisations was found to be a crucial factor connected to engagement (Pauken,

2008a). In relation to psychological meaningfulness and safety at work, these values influence the level of employee engagement. As described by Kahn (1990, p. 704), *meaningfulness* is a “sense of return on investments” wherein employees contribute their energy and efforts towards company goals, with a feeling of being valued and appreciated by the establishment. Positive emotions such as joy, interest, happiness, contentment, and enthusiasm, are experienced by employees who are often engaged in their roles and with their organisation. Individuals with a higher level of emotional stability usually invest their energy to obtain more experience and increase work engagement (Janssens et al., 2019). Emotional stability can increase employees’ ability to remain stable and balanced and thus may optimize their personal resources (Albrecht & Marty, 2020) to secure themselves from hectic situations and its costs. Such personal resources act as a proximal antecedents of work engagement (Albrecht & Marty, 2020). Existing research suggests that employees can cope well with a certain level of work pressure, which is expected to lead to more effort, and thus increased work engagement (Leppink & Pérez-Fuster, 2019; Petrou et al., 2017). Emotional stability helps employees more effectively handle stressful situations (David et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2017) by pre-empting the negative consequences of work pressure that may hinder performance, and thus enhancing work engagement (Janssens et al., 2019). Conversely, employees with lower levels of emotional stability will perceive performance pressure as a threat rather than a challenge as they display low self-esteem and are unable to handle stress effectively (Jankovic et al., 2021), which ultimately affects their work engagement. Robinson et al. (2004) suggested that employee engagement is driven by job satisfaction. Mosadeghrad and Ferdosi (2013) found out that there is a positive link between job satisfaction and work engagement. Satisfied employees have higher levels of work engagement in all sizes of organisations (Antoncic & Antoncic, 2011). Albrecht et al. (2018), Morris and Bloom (2002), and Schaufeli (2016) argue that employees working in organisations with suitable organisational climate are more likely to be satisfied and engaged. Viitala et al. (2015) summarizes that there is a strong relationship between organisational climate and a high level of employees’ well-being at work and work engagement. Lu et al. (2016) urges organisations to pay attention to the organisational climate components with which they can influence work engagement of employees. Banihani et al. (2013) summarises that work engagement has positive consequences for both employees and

organisations. Organisational climate has a positive impact on work engagement of employees (Haugnes, 2016; Viitala et al., 2015). Positive organisational climate is likely to greatly improve employee work engagement. Such positive environment would increase trust between employees and the organisational management, thus promoting their engagement to the organisation and work (Eldor & Harpaz, 2016). Past studies have examined the potential boundary conditions that influence the linkage between work engagement and organisational outcomes (Schmitt et al., 2016). Research expends those employees who are engaged at work are likely to go beyond the task-related boundaries (Bakker et al., 2020). Engagement substantially predicts organisational citizenship behaviour, intentions to quit, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction (Saks 2006, p. 615). Some researchers have examined engagement as a moderator of the relationship between different types of stress and work-related outcomes (Britt, 1999). Also, work-life balance and employee engagement have been identified as major factors contributing to business success, thereby providing a competitive advantage for organisations (Deery, 2008; Naithani, 2009). Although employee engagement is firmly grounded in the academic literature by many researchers, employee disengagement has received less attention (Dawsey & Taylor, 2011); it is this gap that motivated this study to further explore this phenomenon.

2.2 The Disengagement Concept

Employee engagement and employee disengagement are concepts considered to be related to each other, and many researchers have discussed the connections between them, in the academic literature. The phenomenon of employee disengagement cannot be influenced by organisations until a good understanding of the concept of employee engagement is gained. In addition, it is important for organisations to know what influences these phenomena, the driving factors, the outcomes, and how they might affect employees and their organisations. Gaining adequate knowledge about these related concepts allows individuals to engage better, increase performance and commitment at work, and improve their overall well-being; this also allows organisations to find effective ways of managing disengagement experienced by their employees, which can help enhance the achievement of business goals, with increased engagement.

Employee engagement has been at the centre of academic research for several decades, with researchers pursuing multiple approaches and various perspectives on the concept, such as the role theory approach (Kahn, 1990), the social exchange theory approach (Saks, 2006), and the burnout approach (Maslach et al., 1986; Schaufeli et al., 2002). In contrast, disengagement at work has been underexplored and requires more attention (Dawsey & Taylor, 2011) for it to be further generalised into various contexts. In this study, disengagement is explored by examining its relation to work among flight attendants and its influence on work performance, lifestyle, job security, commitment, and their well-being. To gain further knowledge of the disengagement concept, the academic literature explaining this phenomenon such as job demands-resources theory (Demerouti et al., 2001), burnout theory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), coping theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and psychological theory (Kahn, 1990) is explored. These theories explain the disengagement phenomenon and conceptualise disengagement as distancing oneself physically, emotionally, and cognitively from work.

Work disengagement relates to employee engagement, with many researchers exploring the interaction between the two concepts, and concluding that disengagement is a negative influence on organisations (Rastogi, Pati, Dixit, et al., 2018). Kahn (1990) related the disengagement issue as the decoupling of oneself from one's job role. Kahn also elaborated on and defined *personal disengagement* as "a simultaneous withdrawal and defense of a person's preferred self in behaviors that promote a lack of connections, physical, cognitive, and emotional absence, and passive incomplete role performance (p. 701)." Kahn (1990) highlighted three psychological conditions related to employee engagement: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Meaningfulness relates to the emotional, physical, and cognitive energies which an employee experiences by investing time in work; safety relates to an employees' ability to exercise their skills without any fear of criticism; and availability relates to the confidence level of an employee by which they engage (Kahn, 1990). In the present study, the researcher aimed to gain an in-depth knowledge and explore the absence of psychological meaningfulness dimensions: the physical, emotional, and cognitive aspects of disengagement among flight attendants.

In general, disengaged employees tend to show a lack of team effort at their workplace, adopting casual behaviours with less determination towards completing their tasks, and no interest in the company's goals, including their own role in them. Employees who display low engagement levels at their workplace often share a diminished relationship with their co-workers and supervisors (Wellins & Concelman, 2005). Poor trust levels between the employer and employee may cause the engagement levels to be low (Beech & Anderson, 2003). The gains of an organisation, including good morale, can be negatively influenced by disengaged employees who exhibit unhappiness at their workplace and are actively expressive over their disengagement (Branham, 2012). Employees who are disengaged are likely to be less satisfied in life, show less efficiency in their work, display low commitment levels towards their organisation, experience insecurity and stress towards their job, and are disconnected from their job roles (Gallup, 2001). Employees are likely to disengage from work when they encounter undesirable situations that affect their emotional, physical, and cognitive states, which they counter with reduced motivation and investment in their work (van den Elzen & MacLeod, 2006).

With the initial conceptualisation of disengagement by Kahn (1990), it is important to look into another prominent approach for disengagement: burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001). Disengagement is one of the components of burnout, the other being exhaustion. Exhaustion is an outcome of intensive physical, affective, and cognitive strain. For example, in the airline context, flight attendants are prone to high work pressure while performing their job role and tend to experience exhaustion because of long-term prolonged exposure to job demands. Demerouti et al. (2001) defined *disengagement* as "distancing oneself from one's work and experiencing negative attitudes towards the work object, work content, or one's work in general" (pp. 500-501). Although the initial approach by Kahn (1990) argued that the absence of the psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety, and availability leads to disengagement at work, an in-depth investigation on these constructs and aspects of it has been lacking. On the other hand, the JD-R model of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001) has been empirically examined, finding that job demands lead to exhaustion, and (lack of) job resources leads to disengagement. In addition, the process model of burnout states that exhaustion also predicts disengagement (Bakker et al., 2004; Leiter, 2018). The JD-R

perspective on loss of job resources states that individuals can experience reduced motivation in such an event. Such events of perceived loss of job resource could result in disengagement, which is a state of withdrawal and distancing oneself from one's work (Demerouti et al., 2001). This notion was supported by the COR framework (Hobfoll, 1989) which has been widely used to study stress related concepts, and now, employees' work disengagement (see Cheng & McCarthy, 2013; Rubino et al., 2012). It states that individuals may feel vulnerable to a further loss of resources on an initial threat to their perceived loss of resources (Hobfoll, 1989). In such a case, disengagement or withdrawal can be considered as a self-protecting measure and coping mechanism (Demerouti et al., 2001; Hobfoll, 1989; Thanacoody et al., 2014). Conservation of resources theory proposes that employees strive to protect, retain, obtain, and foster those elements they centrally value (resources) and are likely to experience disengagement at work when: (a) these central resources are threatened with loss; (b) these central resources are lost; or (c) they fail to gain these central resources after significant effort (Rastogi, Pati, Dixit, et al., 2018). These resources could also surpass the work environment into their personal lives. The present study builds on these theories to further examine the disengagement of flight attendants and its outcomes. Using Kahn's (1990) conceptualisation of disengagement as the base, the JD-R model of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001) and the COR (Hobfoll, 1989) framework are employed as theoretical foundations for the study.

2.3 Disengagement and Well-Being

Employee well-being is one of the most important factors recognised across all industries as a vital issue for both employers, and employees. Various studies and evidence have suggested that employee well-being is linked to various performance-based metrics, such as productivity, job satisfaction, stress, work-life balance, employee turnover, and organisational commitment (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Keeman et al., 2017). As many government bodies have responded to the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic with travel bans, restrictions, and social distancing, many service industries have been significantly affected, forcing them to choose between hibernation and service continuity. One of the major economically affected industries is the airline industry, which faced a losses

of billions of dollars in revenue, and a large number of airline employees being made redundant as a result of the consequent economic crisis (Ghosh, 2020). Similarly, the hospitality industry experienced a heavy blow due to government lockdowns and restrictions on travellers (Dixon, 2020). Many restaurants and eateries had to change their style of operations to ensure business continuity through take-aways and deliveries. However, very few company practices and methods affecting the well-being of employees have been empirically examined at an organisational level (Sharma et al., 2016).

Although well-being is important within most work contexts, it significantly differs for frontline employees such as flight attendants, who experience constant work pressures caused by irregular work schedules, long hours of work, sleep deprivation, and interactions with impatient customers, all of which lead to emotional exhaustion (Schiffinger & Braun, 2020a). The topic of employee well-being becomes even more critical during a pandemic. On the one hand, frontline employees working in essential services (e.g. health care, grocery stores, pharmacies, long-term care homes, air transport etc.), face increasing health-related risks in terms of mental illness, infection, and stress (Sim, 2020). However, the sudden shift to work from home, self-isolation, and not being able to resume one's job role, has caused unexpected mental health issues, such as loneliness, anxiety, and depression (e.g. for teachers, stranded flight attendants, hospitality workers, etc.) (Braverman, 2020; Staglin, 2020), which have led to an increase in suicide attempts and substance abuse worldwide (Higgins-Dunn, 2020). Previous research on employee well-being has focused primarily on stress, mental health, and the personality traits of employees (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Grant et al., 2007). Since then, research has developed to provide broader dimensions of well-being: psychological (i.e. subjective happiness and satisfaction), physiological (i.e. physical and physiological wellness) and social (i.e. interpersonal relationships) (Hayman, 2010; Ponting, 2020).

Waddell and Burton (2006) recommended a definition for *well-being* as "the subjective state of being satisfied, happy, healthy, comfortable and content with one's life" (p. 4). This state could include material, physical, emotional, social, and any other activities related to growth. *Subjective well-being* is defined as the affective and cognitive self-evaluations by an individual over their personal and

work lives (Diener et al., 2002). These self-evaluations include diminished levels of mood (negative), pleasant and satisfying emotions, and high-level satisfaction with one's life. Warr (1987) categorised concepts such as job-related depression, job-related tension, and job satisfaction as work well-being. Mental and physical health of individuals, job security, work-life benefits, wages, organisation of work, and work engagement/disengagement are some of the factors which also influence well-being at work (Cooper, 2008; Gauthier & Schmitt, 2010; Green, 2004; Halbesleben, 2010; Layard, 2010; Muse et al., 2008; Waddell & Burton, 2006; Warr, 1990; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

In Hobfoll's (1989) COR framework, he stated that individuals who perceive a loss of resources are likely to use personal resources to avoid further loss of resources in their workplace. Subjective well-being is closely and strongly related to the use of social and personal resources by individuals (Diener & Fujita, 1995). Accordingly, in an airline context, disengaged flight attendants are likely to exhibit low subjective well-being. The feeling of reduced well-being experienced by flight attendants is an outcome of their inability to utilise their personal and social resources to mitigate the influence of the loss of job resources on their engagement. In such circumstances, where flight attendants experience a complete resource depletion, it can be assumed that they are likely to exhibit increased depression, poor life satisfaction, and reduced subjective happiness. Thus, disengaged flight attendants will strive to protect, obtain, and prevent further loss of job resources to counter their inability to compensate for the initial threat to the perceived loss of resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Threats to the perceived loss of job resources such as job security, flexibility of the work environment, salary and job satisfaction, and opportunities offered for career development, are likely to drive employees to the decision to resign or look for job alternatives (Atmojo, 2015; Booth & Hamer, 2007; Boxall et al., 2003). Researchers have identified and examined the stabilising and destabilising factors that influence employees' intention to stay or leave in other service industries (Choi et al., 2011; Osuji et al., 2014). Some identify the stabilising attributes as financial incentives, recognition, co-worker relationships, professional development, management leadership and support, and a sense of professionalism. On the other hand, ineffective management, unfavourable work surroundings, and inadequate

staffing, all constitute destabilising factors (Choi et al., 2011; Frye et al., 2020; Osuji et al., 2014).

Most of the employee well-being research adopts the job demand-resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) to provide an understanding of the factors that determine the well-being of employees. This model suggests that job demands that require continuous efforts and skills, and job resources to meet those demands at a functional level, could relate to different dimensions of employee well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). External forces (which include technology, industry-related factors, economic factors and government policies) influence the level of job demand and resources (Bakker et al., 2003). Significant changes in the external factors lead to a change in demands and resources for employees, which in turn influences their well-being (Brauchli et al., 2013). The psychological well-being of employees is likely to be affected with exposure to work-related demands resulting from social change (Pinquart et al., 2009). The job demands from social change include reduced opportunities for career development and worsening prospects of employment. Job demands resulting from social change, including the new demands of the current situation, can be conceptualised as stressors that induce responses based on the stress and coping theories (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). With situations affected by social change where stressors could likely have a negative impact on psychological well-being, employees' effects could be moderated by processes adopted by individuals to deal with those stressors (see Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Pinquart & Silbereisen, 2004). Similarly, flight attendants experiencing new stressors are likely to be disengaged at work. Accordingly, it can be assumed that they are likely to use disengagement as a coping mechanism for these stressors, to further avoid loss of job resources and reduce impacts on their well-being. New stressors arising from external factors such as social change, lead to disengagement. Hence, future prospects, and the impacts of these on flight attendants, are difficult to foresee in the airline industry. Consequently, such circumstances create uncertainty for employees in the workplace (see Jeffrey & McDowell, 2004; Schoon, 2007). Some researchers have explored uncertainty as a powerful stressor in other contexts (not social change) that has a negative impact on psychological well-being (e.g., Greco & Roger, 2003; Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). Poor psychological well-being has been observed where there are high levels of

perceived political and economic changes among employees (Kim, 2008). However Schoon (2007) stated that not all individuals are impacted by social change in the same manner. Pinguart et al. (2009) suggested that social changes such as economic shifts impacting individuals' career prospects (e.g., heightened risk of being unemployed due to job cuts and layoffs) and related goals, are expected to overcome new stressors by encouraging them to engage at work despite the changes in work-related conditions. These new stressors have led flight attendants to disengage at work, which is likely to have an impact on their well-being. Given the detrimental impact of COVID-19 on the economy and the airline industry, the next section sheds light on the aspects of psychological meaningfulness that encompass the psychological, physical, and emotional energies involved. In the present study, financial disengagement is introduced as an aspect of psychological availability caused by financial instability and insecurity. The baseline conceptual model is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1 *Baseline Conceptual Model*



2.4 The Phenomenon of Psychological Meaningfulness

Following the conceptualisation by Kahn (1990), the research by May et al. (2004) suggested that engagement shares a positive relationship with the three psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety, and availability, and the strongest relation was observed with meaningfulness. Kahn (1990) defined *personal engagement* as the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's preferred self in task behaviours that encourage connections with others and work, and personal presence. which involves physical, cognitive (psychological), emotional, and active participation, through full role performances (p. 700).

According to Kahn (1990), individuals possess dimensions of themselves that they prefer to use and express during role performances if suitable conditions are met. For such dimensions to be executed, individuals must drive their energies into physical, cognitive (psychological), and emotional labours. Researchers have referred to these self-employing characteristics as mindfulness (Langer, 1989), involvement (Lawler & Hall, 1970), intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975), flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), and effort (Hackman et al., 1980). Individuals can freely express their real identity, feelings, and thoughts through these dimensions. However, *personal disengagement* is defined as the simultaneous withdrawal and defence of a person's preferred self, and encourages a lack of connections, the absence of physical, cognitive (psychological), and emotional states, and passive inadequate role performances (Kahn, 1990). As a sign of disengagement, individuals withdraw their preferred dimensions by removing their personal energies from physical, cognitive (psychological), and emotional labours. These self-employing attitudes towards task behaviours are referred to as effortless (Hackman et al., 1980), burned out (Maslach, 1982), automatic or robotic (Hochschild, 1983), and detached (Goffman, 1961). In an airline context, flight attendants who experience disengagement uncouple themselves from their job roles (Kahn, 1990); they display behaviours which are suppressive, while they execute on-board duties. As disengagement evolves, they become physically uninvolved, psychologically, or cognitively unvigilant, and emotionally disconnected with co-workers and the workplace to such an extent that they stop expressing themselves freely.

Flight attendants face several psychological stressors related to work, as well as stressors that come from their personal lives. A multitude of psychological stressors have been identified as causing unexpected levels of anxiety among employees during the COVID-19 outbreak (Nepogodiev et al., 2020; Spinelli & Pellino, 2020). According to COR theory, stress will occur when resources valued by flight attendants are threatened, lost, or their investment is hampered, and no possible return is anticipated (see Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). The COR theory suggests that burnout is a possible outcome of the third condition of stress mentioned above which states that stress occurs when there is no possible return of resources as anticipated. Burnout is considered as a multidimensional construct that involves cognitive (psychological) weariness, exhaustion, and

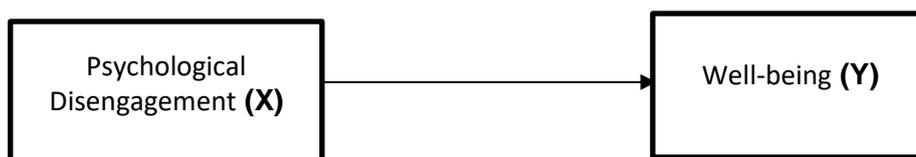
physical fatigue (Melamed et al., 2006). Demerouti et al. (2001) suggested two components of burnout: exhaustion and disengagement. The job demands-resources model of burnout also accounts for the physical and cognitive (psychological), aspects of exhaustion. The COR theory can be used to predict beyond the stress models suggested by previous researchers, as it states both the circumstances that involve an individual's reaction when confronted with stress (i.e., attempting to minimise net loss of resources) as well as those when not confronted with stress (Hobfoll, 1989). In the latter situation, individuals are likely to generate surplus resources to further avoid the possibility of future resource depletion (Hobfoll, 2001). Consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), exhausted flight attendants are likely to engage in withdrawal coping mechanisms as a measure to reduce loss of job resources and the psychological costs involved, because of threat exhaustion. During the pandemic, even if they were fully vaccinated, flight attendants were required to isolate themselves, to comply with mandatory restrictions imposed by various governments around the world. These quarantine routines have been reported to have psychological impacts on individuals, causing post-traumatic stress symptoms such as depression, irritability, poor concentration, low moods, insomnia, anger, confusion, and emotional exhaustion (Brooks et al., 2020). Researchers exploring gender differences on the confinement of individuals at home found that women had a worse emotional response than that of men, with women displaying risk factors for poorer mental health (Pieh et al., 2020; Rossi et al., 2020). Apart from the flight attendants currently active in their job, some flight attendants were stranded in different countries and confined to their homes, and therefore likely to experience a similar state of poor psychological or mental health during their isolation.

According to the engagement concept (Kahn, 1990), flight attendants employ and express themselves cognitively (psychologically), emotionally, and physically during their role performances; conversely, the disengagement concept suggests that flight attendants withdraw themselves cognitively (psychologically), emotionally, and physically, while performing their job role. A better understanding of the underlying factors of disengagement can be gained by investigating meaningfulness, where meaningfulness is found to have a stronger relationship with engagement (May et al., 2004). Meaningfulness results from

individuals' perceptions that their work is valuable to them and to the organisation (Pauken, 2008a). As *disengagement* refers to individuals' withdrawal from work and the establishment of negative attitudes towards work, it is considered as a broader dimension than is depersonalisation, as it encompasses the emotions around work, along with related aspects of engagement with tasks and identification with work (Demerouti et al., 2001). Previous studies on employee behaviours suggest that meaningfulness and identification aspects of employees have a significant impact on the levels of engagement they are willing to provide (Pech & Slade, 2006). A two-fold premise suggested by Kahn (1990), stated that the psychological experiences of work drive individuals' attitudes and behaviours (Hackman et al., 1980). These experiences are simultaneously influenced by organisational, group, intergroup, interpersonal, and individual factors (Alderfer, 1983). Flight attendants are likely to encompass psychological experiences that define their attitudes and behaviours pertaining to work, and which are affected by organisational as well as individual factors. Employees are likely to respond positively towards their work environment when the relationship between the employee and employer is based on mutual trust. With increased uncertainty due to social change (e.g., worsening employment prospects and reduced career opportunities) (Jeffrey & McDowell, 2004; Schoon, 2007), the plight of flight attendants during COVID-19 could lead to cognitive (psychological) disengagement and have a possible impact on their well-being. Drawing from this discussion, the following hypothesis was proposed (see Figure 2):

H1a: *Cognitive (psychological) disengagement of flight attendants has a significant impact on their well-being.*

Figure 2 *Psychological Disengagement and Well-Being*



Demerouti et al. (2001) stated two strong components of burnout; exhaustion and disengagement. From the JD-R perspective, exhaustion and disengagement have different antecedents, with exhaustion resulting from job demands and

disengagement resulting from a lack of job resources. Some researchers have investigated the possibility that exhaustion predicts disengagement, such as in the process model of burnout (Leiter, 1993) which predicted certain aspects of a job (e.g., work overload) lead to exhaustion and consequent disengagement. Flight attendants are likely to experience exhaustion because of intensive cognitive (psychological), affective, and physical strain arising from the job demands they face at work (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Recent studies have reported a high risk of burnout for employees during the pandemic, in which employees experienced physical symptoms of stress such as exhaustion and severe lethargy, as well feeling disconnected from their work (Hamouche, 2020). Flight attendants who are currently active in their job roles are likely to experience physical stress leading to exhaustion, because of the job demands they face in their high work pressure environment; this could lead to disengagement at work. On the other hand, flight attendants who are stranded or isolated due to mandatory restrictions, are also likely to experience stress, causing disengagement, as they are unable to resume their job role. Thanacoody et al. (2014) stated that individuals exhausted by job demands may display signs of withdrawal and fulfil their job roles with minimal effort. In addition, exhausted flight attendants are likely to disengage from their job roles to conserve resources so as to prevent resource depletion (Hobfoll, 1989; Thanacoody et al., 2014). It can be assumed that in such circumstances, flight attendants may seek replacements for their diminishing resources from other available resources (see Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). During the pandemic, the lifestyle of flight attendants was adversely affected, and many also faced changes in their daily routine. As air travel resumed in most countries, flight attendants were still required to isolate themselves to comply with safety precautions. During this period of isolation and quarantine, the overall lifestyle, healthy habits, and activities performed by individuals underwent changes due to individual as well as environmental differences (Brooks et al., 2020; Constant et al., 2020; Ingram et al., 2020; Jungmann & Withhöft, 2020; Liu et al., 2021).

Previous studies have consistently provided evidence for the vulnerability of flight attendants to an array of health-related risks and issues (Griffiths & Powell, 2012). Over the years, work schedules of flight attendants have become more disruptive

and unpredictable, and certain aspects of their jobs involve high levels of difficulty (Shalla, 2004). Recent research on COVID-19 found that individuals were prone to significant psychological disorders such as stress, anxiety, and depression, and sleep problems were strongly associated with minimised activities and movements, as well as diminished interactions with others (Ammar et al., 2020, 2021). Drawing from this discussion, it is proposed that (see Figure 3):

H1b: *Physical disengagement of flight attendants has a significant impact on their well-being.*

Figure 3 *Physical Disengagement and Well-Being*



During the COVID-19 affected era, it was observed that several effects on job demands and resources exist across different industries, and that this existence can be validated by extending the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Previous studies have stated that heightened emotional exhaustion is an outcome of increased job demands, and work disengagement is a result of job resources (or lack of thereof) (Kaiser et al., 2020; Peterson et al., 2008). Demerouti et al. (2001) described “exhaustion” as an effect of intensive physical, affective, and cognitive (psychological) strain caused by prolonged exposure to certain demands. “Disengagement,” on the other hand, refers to distancing oneself from one’s own work, and creating negative attitudes towards one’s workplace, job role, and work in general (Demerouti et al., 2001). Bhalerao (2013) suggested that engagement is a state wherein an individual shares an emotional and intellectual connection with the organisation, allowing them to commit to the organisation. Conversely, *disengagement* refers to as a state wherein individuals disconnect themselves emotionally and intellectually with the organisation, exhibiting low commitment levels. A recent study found that increased stress levels were observed in individuals because of pandemics such as COVID-19, which could possibly lead to mild depressive symptoms (Haider et al., 2020). Mak et al. (2009), in their study of the SARS outbreak of 2003, found

that post-traumatic stress disorder and depressive symptoms were a direct outcome of this widespread disease, which was labelled as a “mental health catastrophe.”

Flight attendants constantly exposed to the possible threat of contracting a virus while performing their job, are likely to experience stress, leading to depressive symptoms. Zheng et al. (2005) found that most students experienced feelings of helplessness, fear, worry, and depression, because of COVID-19, even though none had contracted the virus. Higher anxiety levels were also identified among university students in China, due to the impact of COVID-19 (Wang & Zhao, 2020). For flight attendants working as frontline employees in the airline industry, even higher anxiety levels can be expected, given that stress is already prevalent, regardless of extraordinary circumstances. In such stressful situations, flight attendants are likely to experience burnout. As a result of exhaustion from burnout encounters, flight attendants are likely to disengage from their jobs due to the extensive and demanding nature of the airline industry. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) described *burnout* as a state of mental weariness that causes depersonalisation, emotional exhaustion, and diminished personal accomplishment among individuals whose job roles are emotionally demanding (Halbesleben, 2010).

Consistent with the idea of burnout concept, emotional exhaustion is also often found among individuals whose demanding job roles require complete mental and physical presence (Bradley & Cartwright, 2002). In such contexts, flight attendants are expected to experience emotional, physical, behavioural, and cognitive (psychological) reactions. Moore (2000) defined *emotional exhaustion* as mental and emotional energy depletion caused by exposure to specific job demands; this materialises when employees feel that they do not have enough resources to cope with their work demands (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Many researchers have reported insomnia (B. Tan et al., 2020; W. Tan et al., 2020), suicidal ideation (Hao et al., 2020), post-traumatic stress disorders (Chew et al., 2020), and anxiety, stress, and depression (B. Tan et al., 2020; W. Tan et al., 2020) as a consequence of COVID-19. The health impairment process of the JD-R model argues that the mental and physical resources of employees are likely to be exhausted due to extreme job demands and poorly designed job roles,

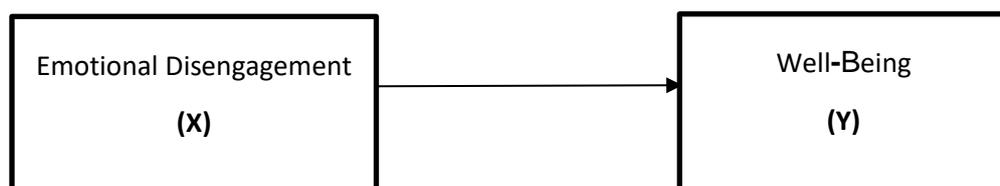
which may deplete their health status and energy levels (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Various studies have supported and provided evidence that job demands intensify emotional exhaustion (Babakus et al., 2008; Bakker et al., 2004; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Employing the COR theory of stress (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Freedy, 2017), it can be assumed that individuals possess a limited number of resources (mental, emotional, and physical) which they invest at different levels of their job roles. Consistent with COR theory, it is also posited that loss of resources is considered more stressful than are resource gains. In such a case, and where the job demands are high, individuals may experience energy loss in the form of emotional exhaustion (Hobfoll, 1989). Flight attendants who encounter high job demands in their workspace are therefore likely to experience loss of energy, and this energy, lost in the form of emotional exhaustion, could lead to disengagement. In other words, flight attendants may experience emotional disengagement due to exhaustion caused by high job demands.

A study by Heuven & Bakker (2003) of Dutch flight attendants, reported that emotional exhaustion was strongly and positively influenced by emotional dissonance. The health impairment process of the JD-R model considers emotional dissonance as a work stressor, which leads to exhaustion and disengagement, the two components of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001, 2003); this occurs extensively among frontline employees such as hospitality workers, flight attendants, and employees in other service industries (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Van Dijk & Kirk, 2007). Karatepe and Aleshinloye (2009) reported a similar result to that of Heuven & Bakker (2003), that emotional dissonance had a strong positive effect on the emotional exhaustion of frontline hotel employees in Nigeria. In Northern Cyprus, Karatepe et al. (2009) yielded a similar result among hotel employees. Furthermore, the emotional dissonance of flight attendants has been reported to decrease their job performance at work (Julian, 2008). As emotional dissonance has a strong relationship with burnout and negative outcomes on health, it is considered a key aspect of emotional labour (Dormann & Zapf, 2004), which is the conflicting factor between the emotions exhibited and the actual emotions felt (Heuven & Bakker, 2003). Frontline employees such as flight attendants must face emotionally demanding interactions with their passengers. In such situations, they perform *emotional*

labour, which is defined as the organisationally crafted desired emotion required during interpersonal interactions that need full control, effort, and planning to express (J. A. Morris & Feldman, 1996). Drawing from the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Freedy, 2017), earlier studies on burnout signified that emotional exhaustion was a major job-related stressor, likely to impact on the health and well-being status of employees at work (Maslach et al., 1986). In other words, exhausted flight attendants are likely to protect their resources by displaying signs of withdrawal from work, and minimising their efforts towards their job roles, to mitigate the impacts on their well-being. Similarly, flight attendants stranded or confined due to travel restrictions and the COVID-19 spread, are unable to devote time and energy towards their work, which ultimately makes them feel inadequate and inconsistent in their ability to deliver organisational goals. Being confined to home spaces and not being able to resume job duties presents the risk of poor mental health (Pieh et al., 2020; Rossi et al., 2020) and emotional disengagement, causing irritability, anxiety, and distress (Alsalhe et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2020; Jaenes et al., 2020; Mon-López et al., 2020). Drawing from this discussion, it is proposed that (see Figure 4):

H1c: *Emotional disengagement of flight attendants has a significant impact on their well-being.*

Figure 4 *Emotional Disengagement and Well-Being*



2.5 Financial Insecurity as an Aspect of Disengagement

The wide spread of the COVID-19 virus has imparted a devastating financial loss on the airline industry, with significant job losses and redundancies for its employees, including flight attendants, who play a central role as frontline employees. Hobfoll's (1989, 2001) COR theory revealed and explored different forms of security and stability as resources. Consistent with COR theory,

individuals strive to retain, protect, and build resources to counter the job demands that accompany their job roles. In an organisational context, *job security* refers to the stability of one's job as perceived by the employee, along with its likely continuity (Probst, 2003). Conversely, *job insecurity* refers to "the perceived powerlessness to maintain the desired continuity in a threatened job situation" (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984, p. 438). Where job security is considered as a resource, job insecurity can be perceived as a possible threat to that resource. Job insecurity and uncertainty about one's future work are daunting factors that influence and trigger disengagement. Disengagement occurs when the mutual relationship of trust between the employer and employee is breached. In such a case, employees are likely to distance themselves physically, cognitively (psychologically), and emotionally, causing disengagement to protect themselves and maintain their self-identity (Cheng et al., 2014; Parkinson & McBain, 2013). When employees experience financial instability in an organisation, their individual behaviours and are not restricted to individual factors, but also depend on the way the organisation treats them (Lin et al., 2018; R. H. Price et al., 2002).

Safety is one of the most essential and basic human needs (Maslow, 1943). When employees join their desired organisation, one of the first things they expect from their employer is job safety and security. When they encounter a lack of thereof, their initial expectations become a threat to financial security, and this sudden demand forces them to re-evaluate their willingness to perform their job role. As a result, when employees feel they are not valued, and their loyalty and dedication towards their work is not appreciated, they are likely to perform their job roles with reduced quality (Parzefall & Hakanen, 2010). Kim and Garman (2004) referred to *financial insecurity* as the frequency of personal financial concerns and financial stresses that intervene in one's work.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, employees' greatest wellness concern was their financial insecurity. As COVID-19 infections dramatically increased at the start of 2020, many businesses faced an array of government imposed restrictions (Robertson et al., 2020) to help mitigate the spread of the disease. The airline industry came to a standstill with most operations shut down, as they were affected by drastic economic losses. The impact of travel and movement restrictions for organisations meant that employees experienced a significant

feeling of job insecurity. Hjelm et al. (2017) stated that financial insecurity is one of the major influences on psychosocial stress, wherein the basic living conditions of an individual are based on the handling of their personal financial resources. In certain circumstances, when financial resources are denied to employees by their employers, their sense of ability to achieve their career-related goals along with organisational goals can be drastically hampered, leading to fundamental setbacks, disappointments, and disengagement (Bakker et al., 2008). In terms of disengagement, the fear of losing a job could be more prominent for an employee than is the actual job loss (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Price et al. (2002) found that employees who were casualties of economic stress and financial burdens, faced challenging and complex outcomes, and as a result, were likely to force themselves through intensified mental and physical conditions. This reduced their level of life satisfaction and simultaneously enhanced the possibility of emotional exhaustion and burnout.

From a JD-R perspective, Demerouti et al. (2001, p. 501) considered job demands as the “physical, social, or organisational aspects of the jobs that require sustained physical or psychological effort are hence associated with specific physiological and psychological costs.” Similarly, and consistent with JD-R theory, financial insecurity can be considered as a demand that intensifies health impairments, contributing to the exhaustion of mental and physical resources. Continued depletion of resources is strongly connected with the disengagement experienced by employees; as a result, negative work attitudes and behaviours are initiated by distancing themselves from their work (Demerouti et al., 2017). Flight attendants currently in service along with those who are stranded or confined to home spaces, are likely to experience financial insecurity in the COVID-19 affected era. According to JD-R theory (Demerouti et al., 2010), flight attendants are likely to exhaust their mental and physical resources to cope with their financial insecurity, which may lead to disengagement at work. Given that work disengagement is a possible response to the financial insecurity of flight attendants, the fear of losing an income during a pandemic would increase the likelihood of an actual loss of income (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Given the perceived threat to flight attendants’ personal finances, they are considered likely to disengage at work with signs of withdrawal and low productivity at work, and may possibly look for alternative options of employment. Whitman et al.'s (2014)

research on financial insecurity as a major contributor to psychosocial stress, observed that when depleted resources of individuals could not be replaced, they were likely to disconnect from the causal situations or work, to further avoid complete depletion or loss of resources. Hence, if financial security is considered as a resource, then financial insecurity is definitely a threat to the resource.

Adopting Kahn's (1990) conceptualisation of disengagement, which relates to psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability, it was identified that psychological availability shared links with how secure individuals felt about their work and status. Gustafson and Cooper (1985) suggested that for individuals to freely express themselves in their social systems, they must feel comparatively secure in their ability to adhere to the norms of those social systems. Insecurity is a characteristic that interrupts the involvement of oneself in one's work, and creates undesirable anxiety. Hence, the energies (physical, cognitive, emotional) of individuals that might have been used for engagement, are likely to turn into energies that encourage disengagement.

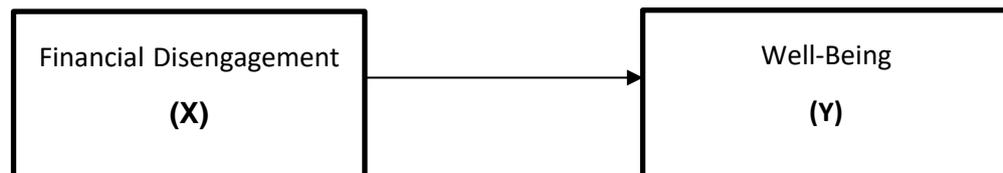
According to Odle-Dusseau et al. (2018), financial insecurity can intensify and increase, if employees cannot meet their financial commitments and obligations. The airline companies that hibernated their operations or offered limited services due to the economic losses caused by COVID-19, were unable to provide job safety and financial security to their employees, which in this case, were flight attendants. In such circumstances, flight attendants who were in service, as well as those confined or stranded in home spaces, were likely to experience negative emotions towards their work and organisation. In addition, they were also likely to encounter work stress, which may have influenced their productivity at work, and impair their resources. Flight attendants may react to such encounters with emotional exhaustion, absenteeism, heightened disengagement, and diminished commitment to their organisation (Russo et al., 2020). As disengagement indicates an absence of physical, cognitive (psychological), and emotional energies towards psychological meaningfulness, in the present study, the researcher viewed these individual energies as physical, cognitive, and emotional disengagement.

Corresponding with the psychological availability aspect of disengagement, financial insecurity was introduced as financial disengagement experienced by

flight attendants in a pandemic. Drawing from this discussion, the following hypothesis was proposed (see Figure 5):

H1d: *Financial disengagement of flight attendants has a significant impact on their well-being.*

Figure 5 *Financial Disengagement and Well-Being*



2.6 Disengagement and Organisational Commitment

Russo et al. (2020) stated that when employers are unable to provide job safety and financial security, employees are likely to develop negative attitudes towards work, experiencing chronic work stress, which directly affects the efforts and resources they invest in the organisation; such emotions manifest as absenteeism, emotional exhaustion and burnout, increased disengagement, and reduced organisational commitment. *Organisational commitment* is referred to as a psychological state that (a) delineates the relationship of the employee with their organisation, and (b) has a significance with the decision of the employee to maintain or terminate the affiliation with the organisation (Suharto et al., 2020; Woznyj et al., 2019). Organisational commitment is an emotional and psychological bonding and linkage to an organisation (Andi Kele, 2020). According to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), when flight attendants face high job demands due to the demanding nature of the airline industry and its passengers, they are likely to experience energy loss in the form of emotional exhaustion. To counter their exhaustion, flight attendants may try to protect their remaining resources as a coping source by disengaging from work and reducing their commitment to their organisation (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). Employees' efforts towards organisational goals and values alignment, behavioural investments in organisation and motivation to stay in an organisation contribute towards the organisational commitment (Bani-Melhem et al., 2020). When employees are engaged in their job role, they acknowledge the organisation's

business goals and objectives and simultaneously motivate co-workers to also pursue the successful achievement of organisational goals (Dulagil, 2012). Committed employees of the organisation will perform their responsibilities and duties in an efficient manner (Viseu et al., 2020). This suggests that if employees possess high job satisfaction, they will be more motivated which increases their commitment with the organisation. On the other hand, if employees are less satisfied, they will be less motivated with decreased commitment levels (Abuhashesh et al., 2019; Tarigan & Ariani, 2015). Flight attendants who efficiently engage themselves at work are likely to experience high energy levels and a strong sense of identity at work (Bakker et al., 2011). Organisational commitment is a kind of passion of an employee for being identified with the organisation. Thus, it is a psychological connection of an employee with the organisation to stay and being identified with the organisation he/she works (Haque et al., 2019). The organisational identification level of individuals is also responsible for their corresponding organisational commitment levels (Allen et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2015; Gupta, 2017; Marique & Stinglhamber, 2011; Soenen & Melkonian, 2017; Wilkins et al., 2016). According to Saks (2006), organisational commitment is considered a positive work outcome of engagement; conversely, disengagement may reduce one's commitment to an organisation. Organisational commitment and awareness of all the work-related factors of the organisation are considered major determinants of efficient engagement and performance by employees (Mappamiring & Kusuma Putra, 2021). Roy et al. (2020) suggested applying components of organisational commitment to developing a healthy organisational culture to achieve organisational performance. Muhammad and Abdullah (2016) stated that individual abilities such as commitment and motivation contribute positively to organisational performance. Similarly, Ireferin and Mechanic (2014) found a positive and significant relationship between organisational commitment and organisational performance.

The existence of a positive relationship between job engagement and job performance was identified by Rich et al. (2010), who stated that highly engaged employees contribute their efforts towards work-related goals with complete physical presence, cognitive involvement, and an emotional connection with the endeavour. Similarly, disengaged employees withhold their physical, cognitive

(psychological), and emotional energies towards work-related tasks, causing them to detach from their work. Other studies also exploring a lack of engagement among employees have found that disengaged employees are likely to be characterised by low energy, dissatisfaction, disaffection, uncertainty, counterproductive work behaviours, uninterestedness, low prosocial behaviour, disconnection, poor work performance, withdrawal, lack of commitment, and turnover intention (Allenbaugh, 2003; Branham, 2012; Johnson, 2004; Momal, 2003; Pater, 2013). Valentin (2014) analysed perspectives on employee engagement and urged researchers to explore disengagement in an organisational context. An organisation needs positively deviant employees who contribute to the well-being of the organisation. In this regard, it is organisational imperative to develop supportive working environments for building very engaged (committed) and well-performing team of employees (Haque et al., 2019).

According to Thanacoody et al. (2014), disengagement predicts affective commitment; it diminishes employees' efforts and emotional connections to the workplace, resulting in reduced affective commitment towards the organisation. Managerial support at a workplace leads employees to exhibit increased organisational commitment and lower levels of work disengagement (Collie et al., 2018). The emotional attachment to, and involvement and identification with the organisation, is referred to as *affective commitment* (Meyer et al., 1993). It has been observed that affective organisational commitment moderates the effect of burnout for in-role performances of employees at their workplace (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007). Similarly, Slade (1994) in an earlier study, observed that low productivity by employees resulted from large scale terminations of workers and redundancies. Employees who are unable to express themselves at their workplace, experience burnout and dissatisfaction with their jobs, and exhibit reduced organisational commitment and increased turnover intention (Karatepe et al., 2009; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Wong & Wang, 2009).

Higher levels of disengagement and diminished organisational commitment behaviours have been observed in employees who perceived that their organisation was unable to provide financial security to them (Lambert et al., 2010). Flight attendants are therefore likely to be disengaged and exhibit a lack of commitment because of the financial threat imposed on them during the

COVID-19 pandemic. Based on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), it can be assumed that if job resources are denied to flight attendants, they are likely to be disengaged and unwilling to expand their existing resources to being committed to their job roles in the organisation. As a result, increased turnover intention and decreased affective commitment towards the organisation occur (Rasdi & Tangaraja, 2020). Financial insecurity has been found to have a negative connection with employees' performance at the workplace, engagement at work, and organisational commitment (Sinclair & Cheung, 2016). Flight attendants facing financial insecurity are likely to cope with its effects by employing efforts towards their work while maintaining the performance expected by their organisation, to claim themselves as valuable and useful to the organisation (Wang et al., 2015). Financial insecurity and any personal finance-related stress among flight attendants could indicate a negative outcome at the workplace. Therefore, when employees feel that their employer does not value their task-related contributions and loyalty towards the organisation, they are likely to perform less efficiently, resulting in poor productivity and quality of work (Parzefall & Hakanen, 2010).

As many employees face financial insecurity, they are likely to experience stressful emotions such as desperation and frustration. Wollard (2011) urged researchers to explore this issue of "quiet desperation" by exploring the causes, symptoms, and effects of disengagement in a systematic examination. Uncertain job security among flight attendants may cause them to disengage and seek alternative options to restore and build resources. However, if flight attendants enjoy job security, they are likely to be committed and develop a sense of belonging to their organisation. *Organisational commitment* is often referred to as employees' psychological attachment to the organisation (Adegbesan, 2013; Broccardo et al., 2019; Cho et al., 2019; Lee & Hidayat, 2018; Shinkevich, 2019). When employees exercise organisational commitment behaviours, they are likely to contribute efforts and channel their energies in a way that exceeds their in-role performances, yielding high productivity (Dalal, 2005; Organ, 1988, 1990).

Employees' behaviours and reactions towards uncertainty caused by financial insecurity not only accounts for individual factors, but also for the organisation's treatment of their employees (Lin et al., 2018; Price et al., 2002). Employees'

perceptions of the extent to which their organisation values and cares for them, is referred to as *perceived organisational support* (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Stamper & Johlke, 2003). It is also defined as the extent to which an organisation supports and motivates them (Witt & Carlson, 2006). The results of meta-investigation conducted by Muafi et al. (2020) found a moderate degree of leadership impact on organisational commitment. Research by Broccardo et al. (2019), Cho et al. (2019), and Shinkevich (2019) showed that there is a positive relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment. Broccardo et al. (2019) stated that a leader's ability to inspire and motivate employees is based on trust. Employees who trust their business leaders feel more committed to the company, feel the organisation supports them more, and feels that organisation fairly allocates resources, treat others well, and follow procedures transparently. While anticipating support from management or the organisation, and being practically supported, employees may choose to view their job-related tasks as unpleasant (Susskind et al., 2000) and exhibit undesirable job productivity (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Drawing from COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), it is reasonable to expect that disengagement experience may lead flight attendants to be less committed and possibly increase their turnover intention. By validating responses and opinions from professionals on organisational commitment, Qing et al. (2020) identified three main components: 1) having unconditional trust on organisation's goals and values; 2) exhibiting desired efforts towards those goals; and 3) having a strong aspiration to continue with the organisation. Despite the exposure to high physical, cognitive, and emotional stress levels, flight attendants may repress their intention to leave, and efficiently contribute towards their organisation's objectives if its values and goals align to those of the attendants (Robbins, 2001). However, prolonged exposure to psychological, physical, and emotional stress at work, can affect the productivity and commitment levels of flight attendants. Drawing from this discussion, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H2a: *Psychological (cognitive) disengagement of flight attendants has a negative impact on organisational commitment (see Figure 6).*

Figure 6 *Psychological Disengagement and Organisational Commitment*



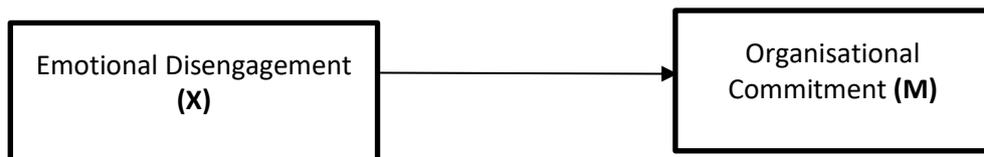
H2b: *Physical disengagement of flight attendants has a negative impact on organisational commitment (see Figure 7).*

Figure 7 *Physical Disengagement and Organisational Commitment*



H2c: *Emotional Disengagement of flight attendants has a negative impact on organisational commitment (see Figure 8).*

Figure 8 *Emotional Disengagement and Organisational Commitment*



H2d: *Financial disengagement of flight attendants has a negative impact on organisational commitment (See Figure 9).*

Figure 9 *Financial Disengagement and Organisational Commitment*



2.7 Organisational Commitment as a Mediator

Service industries such as hospitality, tourism, and travel, whose prime goal is to provide extraordinary services to their customers through their employees, seek to hire and train individuals willing to fully engage themselves in achieving the organisations' goals and objectives. Similarly, the airline industry's primary objective is to deliver efficient service to its air travellers through flight attendants who constantly cater to the various requests of their passengers. All airline companies need employees who are engaged, as they are likely to be psychologically involved in their job tasks, and willing and able to fully commit themselves in their job roles with proactive behaviours and high levels of commitment to performance standards (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Flight attendants engaged in their job roles are likely to anticipate the responsibilities expected of them in relation to achieving their organisations' business goals (Dulagil, 2012) and experiencing a distinct identity within the organisation, exhibiting high levels of energy in their performances (Bakker et al., 2011). Such high levels of energy in engagement, are likely to result in positive organisational commitment (Saks, 2006). Organisational commitment also refers to love and loyalty. This organisational commitment is related to the willingness to be inside and part of a company (Haque et al., 2019). It is the psychological relationship between an employee and the organisation where he/she works to stay and being identified with the organisation (Astuty & Udin, 2020; Ingsih et al., 2020; Rustiarini et al., 2019). Employees with high commitment level towards the organisation will do anything to advance the company because they believe in their work (Qing et al., 2020).

Organisational commitment has been defined as "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604). Shuck and Reio (2011) stated that employees engaged in their job-related tasks are likely to outperform those who are disengaged in their job role. Therefore, engagement matters (Wollard, 2011), as it plays an important role in assessing flight attendants' commitment levels to their organisation. In the airline industry, the work environment of flight attendants can influence their disengagement at their workplace. The way flight attendants are recognised and appreciated for their work by their employer, along with the organisation's work

climate, policies, and practices affecting them, are likely to determine their levels of disengagement. A potential risk to their identity and perceived negative feedback from their employer, helps employees determine their decision to disengage from work as a response to protect themselves (Emerson & Murphy, 2015). Disengagement experienced by employees, is likely to incur heavy economic losses for businesses (Gopal, 2003, 2006), lower morale (Tritch, 2001), lessen productivity (Prencipe, 2001), and increase accidents and turnover intentions (Frank et al., 2004; Klie, 2014).

Strong commitment towards the organisation enhances the employee's level of satisfaction (Gopinath, 2020). Employees will have high organisational commitment if they are satisfied with their jobs and will continue to be a part of the organisation (Ćulibrk et al., 2018). Counter-productive behaviours and reactions, reduced commitment levels, poor performance quality, and heightened turnover, are some of the basic traits identified in employees who disengaged at their workplace (Baker, 2014; Frank et al., 2004; Klie, 2014; Prencipe, 2001; Tritch, 2001).

Harter and Stone (2012) suggested that a lack of appreciation in the workplace diminishes relationships with co-workers, and inadequate provision of resources, and reduced opportunities for growth, are conditions likely to cause disengagement. Consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), it can be posited that when depletion of resources occurs at the workplace, flight attendants may choose to disengage, exhibiting a lack of commitment to their organisation. In addition, when resources are denied to flight attendants, they are highly unlikely to expend existing resources to being committed to the organisation. This proposal is supported by Hobfoll's (1989) COR theory. As far as resources are concerned, employees who are disengaged with their job roles are likely to feel at their lowest, when their personal and social resources are at low levels, driving them to disengage. Such disconnection could possibly render negative outputs harmful for both employees as well as for their organisations (Rastogi, Pati, Krishnan, et al., 2018). Disengagement at work is argued to have negative implications for employees' well-being, causing stress and aggression, low life satisfaction, increased levels of depression, and lower levels of happiness (Harter & Stone, 2012; Tam, 2013). Therefore, organisational commitment is

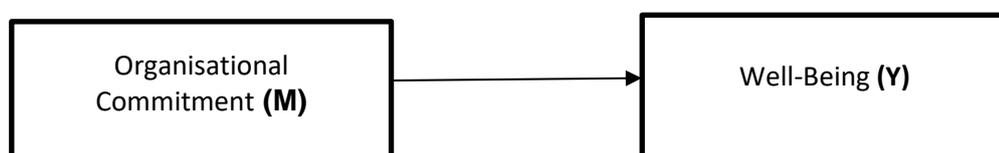
essential for flight attendants, especially when employees and organisations want to maintain and preserve the working relationship between them. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) described *organisational commitment* as a desirable state indicating a positive attachment to job performance and intention to remain with the organisation. Selvi and Maheswari (2020) recognised one of the essential elements to ensure organisational efficiency is developing organisational commitment among employees. Loan (2020) stated that organisational commitment is feeling of workers or strength of an organisation to bond workers for staying in the organisation.

Many studies have indicated that employees are likely to perform well and commit in their job roles, deliver work quality, display individual trust towards organisation, and exhibit positive attitudes if they are happy with their organisation's decision-making traits. Meiyani and Putra (2019) describe such decision-making traits of the organisation from the employees' perspective as "organisation fairness," a concept that represents employees' feelings. *Commitment* can be understood in simple terms as a relation of trust between two entities. In an airline context, flight attendants as the employees, and the airline companies as the employers, share a mutual trust between each other in the form of commitment. Zayas-Ortiz et al. (2015) stated that employees who show strong levels of commitment are likely to have the ability and assurance to deliver and serve their organisation with a high level of integrity and loyalty (Meyer et al., 2015). Organisational commitment can be stated as a bond and loyalty of the employee with his organisation and job (Mahmoud et al., 2020). According to Andika and Darmanto (2020), and Norbu and Wetprasit (2021), empowered employees are committed with their organisation because organisations provide them with jobs, empowering, and treating them fairly. Job factors such as task identity, which is related to performance, and feedback from the employer, are considered important predictors of the organisational commitment of employees (Steers, 1977). When such job factors or resources (using Hobfoll's COR terminology) (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) are denied to flight attendants at their workplace, they are likely to cope with this denial by reducing their involvement and cautiously altering the concentration of their identity with the organisation. This can lead to increased turnover intention and diminished affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Many researchers have suggested that employees have a notion about what their organisation thinks of them, and conclude that the organisation has either a positive or negative view of them (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Any support rendered by the organisation for their employees is considered crucial and thoughtful from the employee's perspective. Such acts of support can be in the form of perceived organisational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (PSS), or perceived co-worker support (PCS). *Perceived organisational support* refers to employees' "beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501). Similarly, *PSS* refers to the support received from supervisors for their employees, considering their well-being and acknowledging their individual value in the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2002). According to the COR framework (Hobfoll, 1989), support offered to employees by their employer is a resource. In addition, PSS has also been identified as a job resource (Demerouti et al., 2001; Halbesleben et al., 2014) stimulating employee retention, job satisfaction, and job performance of employees (Babin & Boles, 1996; Eisenberger et al., 2002). Perceived colleague support (PCS) also plays a significant role, and relates to employees' perceptions of their co-workers' concern about their well-being and appreciation of their contributions to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Simosi, 2012). The combination of these support acts by organisations towards their employees, could act as possible motivators and contributions to their growth, development, training, learning, and sense of belonging (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). When such job resources are made available to flight attendants by airline companies, the attendants are likely to exhibit high commitment to their organisations, followed by enhanced well-being. Conversely, a lack of job resources creates disengagement, which alters the commitment of flight attendants and affects their well-being. Drawing from this discussion, the following hypotheses were proposed (see Figure 10):

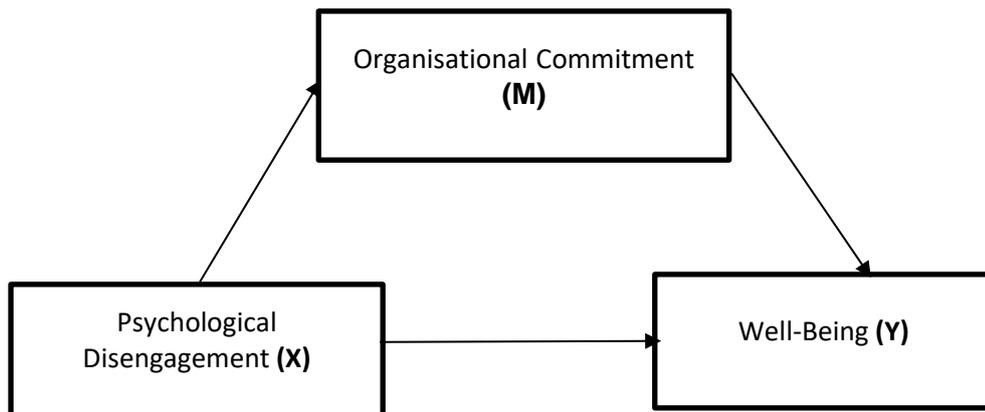
H3: *Organisational commitment of flight attendants is positively related to well-being.*

Figure 10 *Organisational Commitment and Well-Being*



H4a: Organisational commitment of flight attendants mediates the relationship between psychological (cognitive) disengagement and well-being (see Figure 11).

Figure 11 Organisational Commitment - Psychological Disengagement - Well-Being (Model 1)



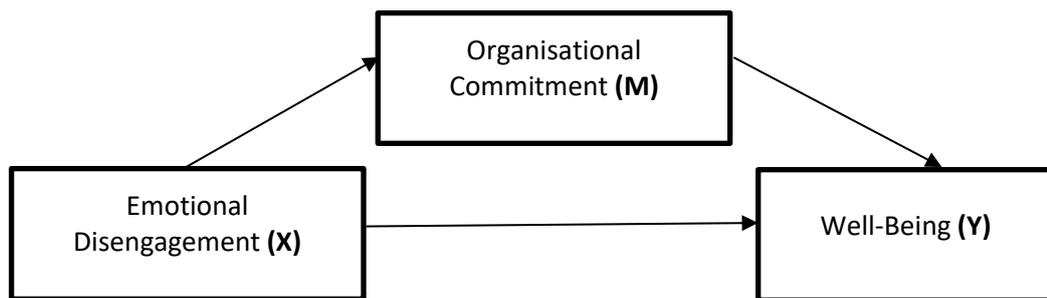
H4b: Organisational commitment of flight attendants mediates the relationship between physical disengagement and well-being (see Figure 12).

Figure 12 Organisational commitment - Physical disengagement - Well-Being
(Model 2)



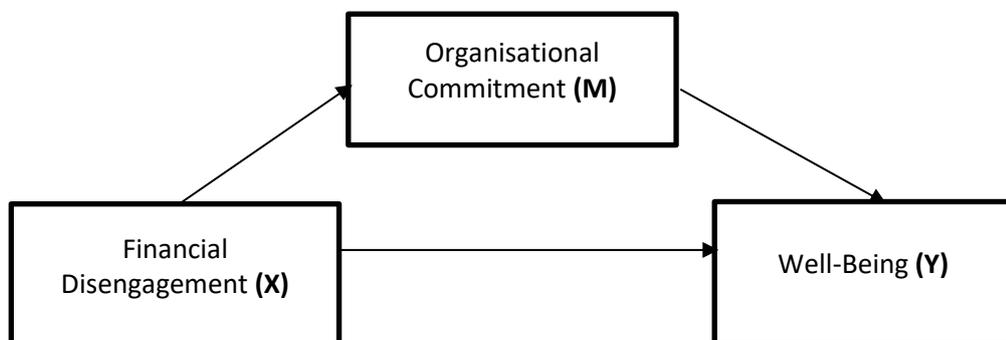
H4c: Organisational commitment of flight attendants mediates the relationship between emotional disengagement and well-being (see Figure 13).

Figure 13 Organisational commitment - Emotional disengagement - Well-Being
(Model 3)



H4d: Organisational commitment of flight attendants mediates the relationship between financial disengagement and well-being (see Figure 14).

Figure 14 Organisational Commitment - Financial Disengagement - Well-Being
(Model 4)



2.8 Employment Status as a Moderator

During the initial implementation of social distancing as a major protocol by governments in response to the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic in February and March 2020, many experienced changes in their work environment, job uncertainty, and job loss (Douglas et al., 2020). Economic changes and employment uncertainty create high risk for the overall mental well-being of families and individuals (Holland, 2016; Jonsson et al., 2020). With the adoption of social distancing guidelines, resulting in frequent lockdowns, the way people organised social and work relationships changed. These changes in social interactions and work schedules could affect the coping mechanisms and the general sense of well-being of individuals.

Employment status has an important influence on employees' psychological and physical wellbeing (McKee-Ryan et al., 2005). In various studies, employment status has been a part of only the demographic characteristics, along with gender, age, marital status, education, and income. Very few researchers have used employment status as a moderator in their studies. Most studies using employment status as a construct, have categorised it as employed or unemployed” (Ozden & Ermis, 2017), active or inactive (Alameddine et al., 2011; Steenland & Stayner, 1991), employed or economically inactive (Brown et al., 2012), full-time or part-time (Alexandrov et al., 2007; Darden et al., 1993), and so on. In the present study, the effect of employment status as a moderator on the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being, and disengagement and well-being were explored. For the purpose of this study, flight attendants' employment status was categorised as “currently active” and “temporarily inactive.” Currently active flight attendants were those currently in service and temporarily inactive flight attendants were those currently not in service, yet still employed by their organisation. This view is supported by the partial inclusion (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and social comparison (Festinger, 1954; Kruglanski & Mayseless, 1990) theories.

Partial inclusion theory focuses on the multiple roles of an individual in a variety of social systems, and the degree to which an individual may be fully or partially included in these systems. According to this theory, the level of inclusion (full or partial) will foresee the importance of each role, which varies across social

systems. In the context of organisational systems, currently active flight attendants who spend most of their time at work are expected to be fully integrated into the system. It then becomes their primary social system in which the currently active employees play their most vital role. In contrast, the temporarily inactive flight attendants are partially included in this social system and, hence, may feel that their contribution, due to their inactiveness at work, is not the most important role they have. Indeed, temporarily inactive flight attendants might be inclined to look for more important roles outside the organisation. Partial inclusion in the system may strengthen their disengagement and weaken their commitment level towards their organisation, which could affect their work-related well-being. On the other hand, currently active flight attendants may exhibit lower disengagement levels, increased organisational commitment, and work-related well-being, compared to their temporarily inactive counterparts.

Employment status also differentiates employees quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of the time they spend at work (Avery et al., 2012). In this context, the quantitative component of employment status reflects the differences in the number of hours that temporarily inactive and currently active employees spend in the workplace. The qualitative component of employment status encompasses the differences in the quality of relationships developed in the workplace for both these categories of employees.

Social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954; Kruglanski & Mayseless, 1990) suggests that individuals' evaluations of themselves and their opinions are heavily linked to and dependent on their reference groups. A central premise of this study is that a currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendant will react differently to the same job situation because of differences in their frames of reference, which have created different expectations or comparison standards. Currently active flight attendants may use flight attendants from other airlines as a frame of reference for making various affective judgements, affecting their job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Job status and job environment are the best criteria for comparing the satisfaction and disengagement levels of currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants. Currently active flight attendants spend a good portion of their time at the workplace. On the other hand, due to non-exposure to the workplace, temporarily inactive flight attendants'

satisfaction and disengagement are affected (Darden et al., 1993). Goodman (1977) characterised the social comparison process as a pervasive phenomenon wherein individuals compare some characteristic to a reference point. Flight attendants relating themselves with a currently active or temporarily inactive reference group, could moderate a variety of job-connected relationships (Darden et al., 1993). Such differences may mean that the two groups respond differently to their commitment to their organisation, which could affect their work-related well-being.

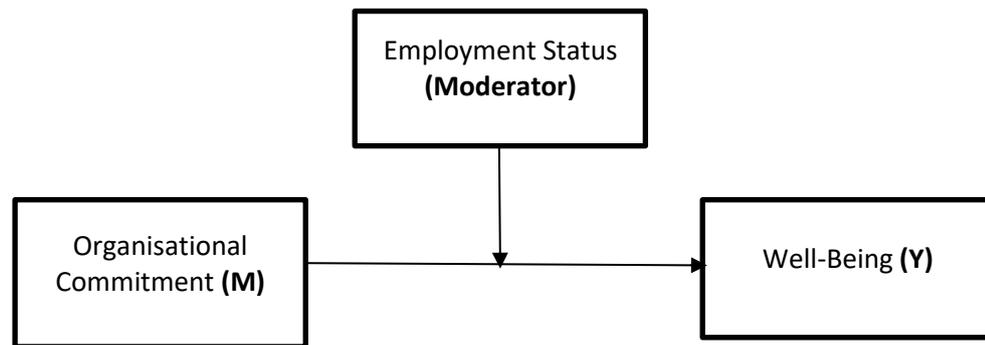
According to Price and Mueller (1986), *organisational commitment* is an employee's loyalty to the organisation, and reflects the degree of strength of the individual's involvement and identification with the organisation (Steers, 1977). Employment status - such as the motivating potential of the specific job, level of job responsibility and autonomy, and job tenure - may be positively related to organisational commitment (Greenberg & Baron, 1986). *Organisational identification* is the individual's perception of being in unity or belonging with an organisation (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), and is considered an aspect of affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) defined it as "the emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (p. 67). Thus, the employment status of currently active and temporarily inactive employees may have a direct influence on their organisational commitment.

Well-being is often related to happiness (Dodge et al., 2012) and is best described as "the overall quality of employee's experience and function at work" (Van De Voorde et al., 2012, p. 393). Many researchers have associated well-being with the physical aspect of well-being, but it also encompasses emotional, spiritual, social, and intellectual well-being (Brunetto et al., 2012; McCarthy et al., 2011). Well-being at work is often measured in terms of affective well-being that incorporates the pleasure–displeasure factor (e.g. job satisfaction, organisational commitment), tiredness–vigour factor (e.g. general well-being) and enthusiasm–displeasure factor (e.g. disengagement) (Skakon et al., 2010). Previous studies have proposed a negative relationship between employee well-being and turnover intentions, meaning if well-being increases, employee turnover intention decreases (Brunetto et al., 2012; Scanlan et al., 2013; Van De Voorde et al., 2012). Given this evidence, it can be assumed that increases in the well-being

factor can be an outcome of high job satisfaction and increased organisational commitment. Drawing from this discussion, the following was proposed:

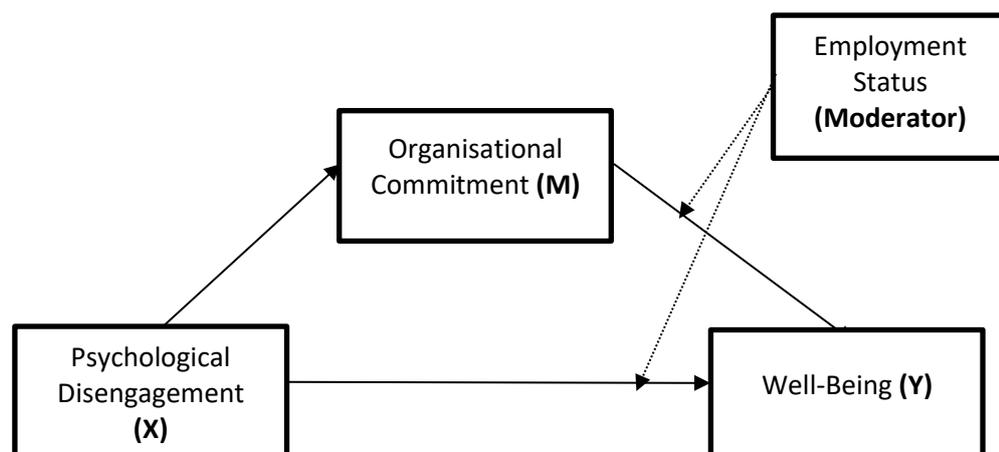
H5: *Employment status moderates the positive relationship between organisational commitment and well-being (see Figure 15).*

Figure 15 *Employment Status - Organisational Commitment - Well-Being*



H6a: *The direct and/or indirect effect of psychological disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment is moderated by employment status, such that the direct and/or indirect effect is more negative for temporarily inactive flight attendants than for currently active (see Figure 16).*

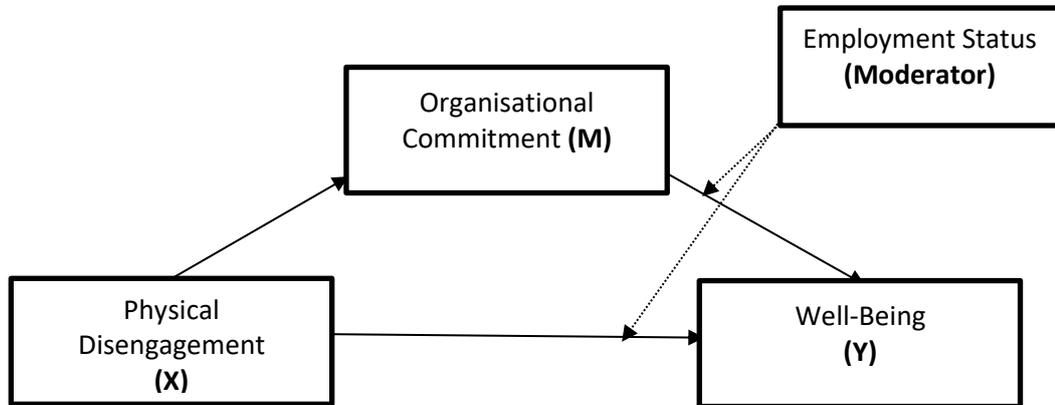
Figure 16 *Moderated Mediation Model 1*



H6b: *The direct and/or indirect effect of physical disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment is moderated by employment status, such*

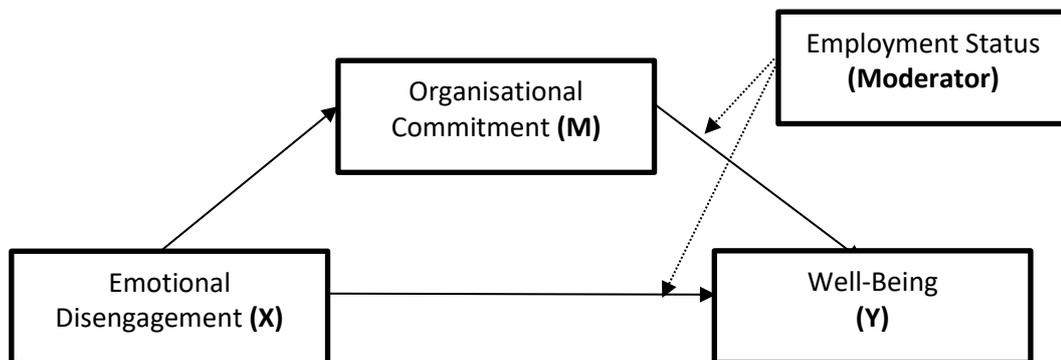
that the direct and/or indirect effect is more negative for temporarily inactive flight attendants than for currently active (see Figure 17).

Figure 17 Moderated Mediation Model 2



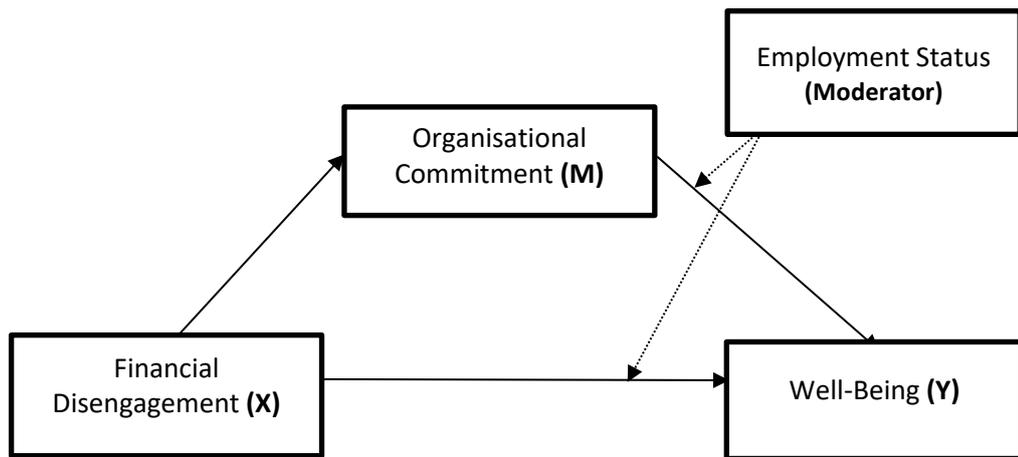
H6c: The direct and/or indirect effect of emotional disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment is moderated by employment status, such that the direct and/or indirect effect is more negative for temporarily inactive flight attendants than for currently active (see Figure 18).

Figure 18 Moderated Mediation Model 3



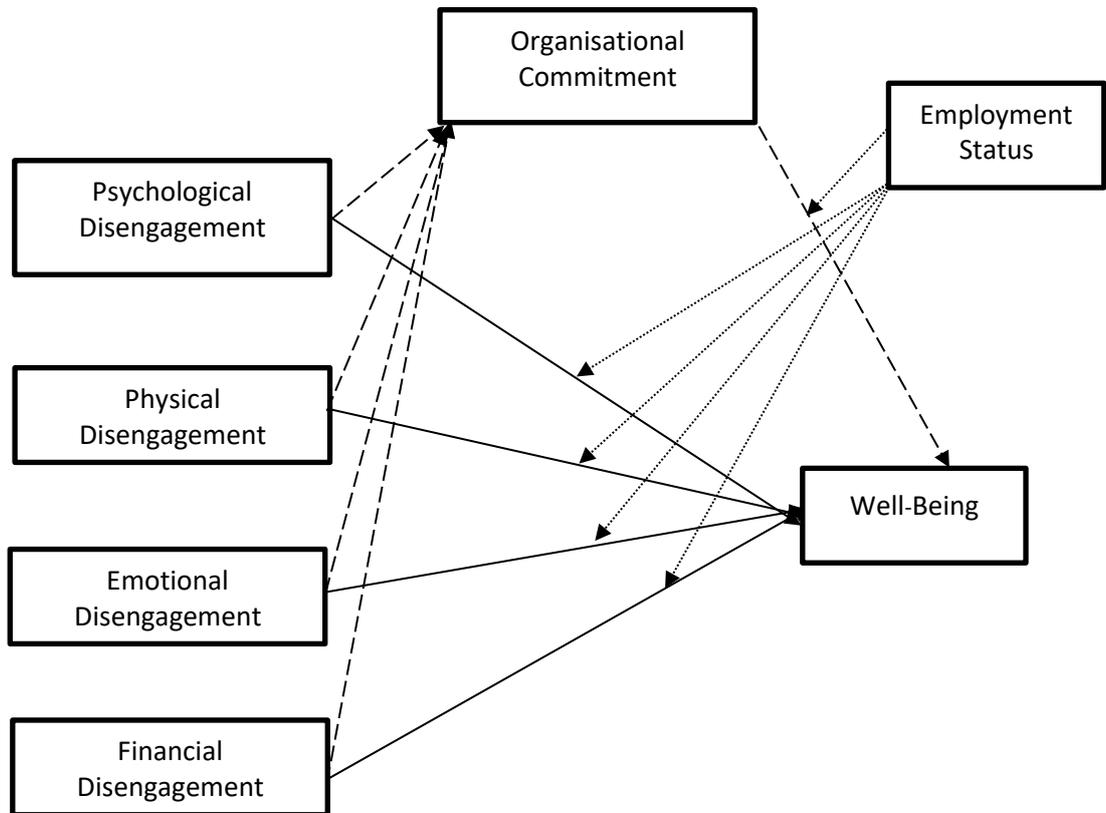
H6d: The direct and/or indirect effect of financial disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment is moderated by employment status, such that the direct and/or indirect effect is more negative for temporarily inactive flight attendants than for currently active (see Figure 19).

Figure 19 Moderated Mediation Model 4



Based on the foregoing hypotheses, this study proposed an overall conceptual model, as presented in Figure 20.

Figure 20 Overall Conceptual Model



Chapter 3: Method

3.1 Research Paradigm

Epistemology refers to beliefs about knowledge and how knowledge is constructed (Godwin et al., 2021). The methodologies and methods chosen by researchers in ways they consider appropriate, are influenced by aspects of these philosophical assumptions (Crotty & Crotty, 1998; Lather, 2006). The epistemology delineates all the aspects and dimensions of a research process from the embedded assumptions to what is known, affecting the research questions, study design, and development of theory (Collins, 1990; Pallas, 2001). Interpretation of research and its understanding within the research community is also influenced by epistemologies when the findings of the research are distributed in the community (Pallas, 2001).

This study took a post-positivist approach, in which a set of beliefs were characterised by the notion that reality can be explored and known to a specific degree (see Godwin et al., 2021). Post-positivism evolved as a response to positivism, which has been popular in social science work (Reed, 2010). Positivism is very specifically bound to limited knowledge production, as the prime focus relies on what can be observed and measured with a much stricter focus on causality and the division between the observer and knowledge. On the other hand, post-positivism permits human perspective and error to play its role by maintaining its initial commitment to the objective of observation and measurement (Ryan, 2006). Deriving from post-positivism, most quantitative approaches accentuate the dimensions of causality, objectivity, and replicability. Variable-centred approaches such as factor analysis, regressions, correlations, and structural equation modelling were established in Nardi (2015) social science research, which helped to address the research questions as well as issues and concerns related to “how variables, observed or latent, relate to each other” (Wang et al., 2013, p. 350). Simultaneously, these variable-centric methods produce results based on averaged sets of parameters.

Quantitative approaches are based on a positivist paradigm (Reinhardt & Cook, 1979) whereas qualitative approaches reflect a phenomenological paradigm (Bogdan & Taylor, 1984). The positivist philosophy delineates the path for

quantitative researchers to believe the existence of social facts with an objective reality distanced from individuals' beliefs. Through objective measurement and quantitative analysis, this approach seeks to elucidate the cause of changes in these assumed social facts. To clearly perceive these social facts, the researcher adopts a quantitative approach with the implementation of correlational and experimental designs to mitigate any possible errors, bias, and other complex factors (Cronbach, 1975). An ideal quantitative researcher is not attached to the avoidance of bias, but examines the magnitude of relationships between constructs precisely. In a quantitative approach, the regression coefficients highlight the degree of change for a dependent variable with a given change for an independent variable. Fanelli (2010) stated that researchers use different average effects in most social science studies that provide statistical significance to make comparisons between groups, and based on that, arrive at possible conclusions.

3.2 Data Sample and Collection

The *sampling method* is a data collection technique that represents a specific part of a population (Acharya et al., 2013). Sampling techniques assist with enhanced accuracy and wider scope for research with minimal costs incurred on equipment, administration, or trained investigators. It also helps in saving time and labour and determining the extent of sampling errors. In the present study, a non-probability convenience sampling method (Etikan et al., 2016) was adopted. This sampling technique has no base rules or standard procedures to follow and is entirely based on its convenience to the researcher. This technique enables the targeted population to be easily accessed and contacted, but there is a high probability of samples being biased, and therefore may not represent the population. However, the advantage of this method is that it enables the recruitment of future subjects by existing subjects, as there is a possible connection based on their acquaintances. A snowballing technique was used in this study, using individuals to help reach the required sample size by performing an indirect role of recruiting informants for the research (see Goodman, 1961). This choice of further recruitment of respondents relies completely on the choice of the informants.

Convenience sampling method was adopted by this study based on the limited timeframe of the research. Since the study was conducted amidst Covid-19 lockdowns, self-isolation requirements, travel restrictions, and redundancy phases, the data collection process has been time sensitive. As a result, convenience sampling technique has been an appropriate measure to gain responses from the participants under these given circumstances considering that the respondents could have other immediate concerns to attend to. This non-probability sampling method has facilitated a timely gathering of data which involves a combination of purposive and homogeneous methods, and respondent self-selection (Saunders et al., 2003). This form of strategy has allowed the researcher to address respondents directly who hold experience of the questions raised in the survey and could generate new insight. The survey strategy implemented in this study has allowed a collection of data in an efficient manner given the limited timeframe under Covid-19 circumstances. This has also allowed the researcher to bring together standardized data that can be easily compared between subjects (Saunders et al., 2003). The convenience sampling method was implemented through a web-based survey which provided a mechanism to collect data more quickly and efficiently which lead to increase in responses rates (Griffis et al., 2003). The use of self-administered questionnaire in this study allowed the respondents to complete the survey without any interaction with a second person and at a time of their choice given the circumstances that face-to-face interaction with respondents was not feasible for this research. Time being the most crucial factor for this research, the sampling method adopted has had better advantages in terms of maintaining the anonymity and confidentiality of respondents. Amid worry on heavy job losses and financial downfall for many, respecting the privacy and time of the participants deemed more important, and this method was appropriate to address the issue.

In this study, data were collected from a large-sized airline in the Middle East. This airline was well-established in terms of firm size, number of employees, number of destinations, domestic and international routes, and number of flights. A convenience sample of flight attendants was initiated by contacting one of the flight attendants in a supervisory position. A convenience sampling method was then adopted (McDaniel & Gates, 2006), and respondents were asked to participate in the survey and give informed voluntary consent. The respondents

were surveyed for their self-reported organisational commitment, work disengagement, and work-related well-being, using a structured self-administered questionnaire. Respondents were asked to report their responses on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5).

3.2.1 Participants

Currently active and temporarily inactive (still employed) flight attendants from the Middle East airline were invited to participate in an anonymous online survey between April and May 2021. Flight attendants were recruited using several methods. Firstly, the survey link was sent via WhatsApp, a smartphone-based application, and social media platforms such as Facebook and Instagram targeted the specific flight attendants' group. Secondly, a snowballing technique was used to further increase the response rate by advertising an invitation to participate in the survey with a link that was shared by respondents in the targeted flight attendants' chat groups and social media portal. This non-probability snowballing technique seemed more effective to recruit participants and reach the maximum number of flight attendants through initial respondents (see Goodman, 1961). Thirdly, the online survey link was also distributed through email to respondents known to the researcher using the snowballing technique. This survey was conducted with voluntary consent from the respondents, who were informed of their anonymity, with no personal information registered by the researcher and their responses being analysed for academic purposes only. A total of 208 flight attendants from the Middle Eastern airline responded to the survey. No financial incentives were provided for participation, and anonymity was maintained to ensure reliability and confidentiality of data.

3.2.2 Design

An online survey design was employed in this study. The main purpose for using an online survey was to reach the maximum number of respondents without interfering with their personal space. Online survey responses can be completed by respondents at their convenience. The responses are not forced and allows respondents to fully express themselves while contributing towards the study. An online survey does not exert any pressure on respondents, as there are no time

constraints. It can be completed at their preferred time, and as the survey responses are registered in their own time and space, respondents can contribute genuine responses to the research. This survey was administered using QualtricsXM survey software (www.qualtrics.com), a web-based survey tool to conduct survey research, evaluations, and other data collection activities. The survey was designed to be user-friendly and accessible from mobile devices and computers, and had an estimated completion time of five minutes.

The questionnaire used in this study was based on six established instruments to measure six constructs vital to this study. These were: psychological disengagement, physical disengagement, emotional disengagement, financial disengagement, organisational commitment, and well-being. The questionnaire also included demographic questions such as age, gender, job position, employment status, family income type, tenure, marital status, education, and cabin class of service. Survey questions were structured with single-choice options and closed ended questions, except for demographic questions such as tenure and age, for which responses were sought with an open-ended question in months and years, respectively. The inclusion criteria for participating were: (a) currently active in job role, and (b) temporarily inactive (still employed) in job role. Flight attendants that had been laid-off, and ex-flight attendants, were excluded from this study.

3.2.3 Pre-test

Prior to the final distribution, the online survey questionnaire was pre-tested with the researchers' colleagues at AUT, some of whom were pursuing their masters' degrees in hospitality management at AUT, and others who had successfully completed their degrees with AUT. The same survey link for the pre-test was sent to two flight attendants of the participating group to ensure understanding of the terminology and the content of the questionnaire. No questions were changed after the pre-test, as overall respondent feedback was positive. The pre-test provided an approximate estimate of survey completion time, which was five minutes, which was set as the expected time for the survey.

3.3 Operationalisation of Constructs

The measurement items used in the study were adopted from previous studies with established scales proven to be statistically accepted (see Churchill, 1999; Hair et al., 2006), demonstrating validity and reliability. All scales in this study were measured on a Likert 5-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). For the scales to be consistent and stable for measuring the constructs in the study, a standard Cronbach's α score of 0.7 (DeVellis, 2016) was required to be established in the study (see Table 1).

Well-being

Previous researchers have explored the concept of well-being, suggesting two major perspectives, the extant hedonic view and the eudemonic view, deriving from Aristotelian ideology (Ryan & Deci, 2001); both have different views yet are seen to contribute to the overall well-being psychology. Danna and Griffin (1999), in their review on well-being in the workplace, identified some gaps to be explored. As health psychology is closely related to well-being outcomes (e.g., work overload, low satisfaction levels, poor control leading employees to experience various health concerns) (Marmot et al., 1991), a positive approach to these constructs was suggested. Similarly, as the notion of positive psychology has broader dimensions to be explored, Parker and Hyett (2011) designed a measure that captured certain constructs of well-being and positive psychology relevant to the workplace. The resulting 31-item scale had four major facets of well-being: work satisfaction, organisational respect for the employee, employer care, and intrusion of work into private life. Three items were adopted from this scale to measure well-being, and changed to positively worded statements for the study. The sample items included: "I believe that my employer cares about my well-being". Responses were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5) (see Table 1).

Table 1 Measurement Scales and Items

Measurement scales and items	
Construct	Alpha
Organisational Commitment	0.89
I would be very happy to spend the rest of career with this organisation	
I do not think I could become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	
Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not consider it	
Well-being	0.93
I feel content with the way my organization treats its employees	
I believe that my employer cares about my well-being	
Outside of work hours, I find myself positively thinking about work	
Psychological Disengagement	0.81
My job is very hectic	
I do have conflicting issues to the demands that (others) make on the job	
I am often required to work for a longer period of time	
Physical Disengagement	0.89
After work, I do not physically distance myself from work	
After work, I do not shake off the physical exertion from work	
Emotional Disengagement	0.96
Over the last few weeks, how often have you been bothered by these problems?	
(a) Feeling nervous anxious or on edge	
(b) Not being able to stop or control worrying	
(c) Little interest or pleasure in doing things	
(d) Feeling down, depressed or hopeless	
Financial Disengagement	0.87
I am not satisfied with my present financial situation	
I am not satisfied with the amount of money I am saving & investing for retirement	

Psychological Disengagement

The Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ) developed by Karasek and colleagues (1985,1998) has been widely used to assess the psychological working conditions of employees (Hurrell et al., 1998). In the present study, the researcher adopted three items from the 10-item psychological job demands scale with physical job demands items derived from the JCQ (see Choi et al., 2012). This scale encompasses factors involving psychologically and physically demanding occupations. The items adopted for this study were negatively worded to highlight

the disengagement factor. The sample items included: “I do have conflicting issues to the demands that (others) make on the job” and “I am often required to work for a longer period of time” (see Table 1).

Physical Disengagement

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) predicted job demands and job resources as the key characteristics of a job, that influence employees' health and well-being. Certain job demands are deemed necessary to challenge and motivate employees in their job roles (Bakker et al., 2010), and job resources act as psychological assets related to work to counter these job demands (van den Tooren et al., 2011). De Jonge and Dormann (2003) developed the DISC (Demand-Induced Strain Compensation) model to simplify the concepts of job stress and work motivation focusing on the specific and targeted buffering effects of resources. The DISC model has two principles: multidimensionality of constructs and triple-match principle (TMP), which relates to three constructs, namely, job demands, job resources, and job-related outcomes, in either cognitive, emotional, or physical form (De Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Jonge et al., 2008). Shortened versions of the 31-item, Demand-Induced Strain Compensation Questionnaire (DISQ) (De Jonge et al., 2007) such as DISQ-S (shortened version) (Bova et al., 2015; Van de Ven et al., 2008; Van Den Tooren & De Jonge, 2008) and DISQ-R (detachment at work) were developed to study off-job events influencing work-related health in line with the DISC model dimensions. The present study adopted two items from the DISQ-R scale developed by Jonge et al. (2012) highlighting the physical demands related to detachment at work. The sample items adopted in this study were negatively worded to indicate the physical disengagement factor as presented in Table 1.

Emotional Disengagement

In Western societies, depression and anxiety are known to be the most influencing and disabling conditions an individual experiences, with significant implications for their lives and the societies in which they live (Kessler et al., 1994, 2004). The Patient Health Questionnaire-2 (PHQ-2) (Kroenke et al., 2003; Löwe et al., 2005) was established as the most validated 2-item measurement for depression, originating from the well-grounded 9-item Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) (Gräfe et al., 2004; Kroenke et al., 2001). Similarly, for

anxiety, the 2-item Generalised Anxiety Disorder Scale (GAD-2) was established by Kroenke et al. (2007) and developed from the well-established 7-item Generalised Anxiety Disorder Scale (GAD-7) (Löwe et al., 2008; Spitzer et al., 2006). As both these measures were widely adopted in the clinical field, an appropriate measure was required to generalise such a scale to a larger population. Löwe et al. (2010) developed the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-4) which included two items each from the PHQ-2 and GAD-2 scales to be combined as a measure for larger representative sample. In the present study, all four items from PHQ-4 scale were adopted with all responses rated using a 5-point scale ranging from: *not at all* (1), *a few days* (2), *several days* (3), *more than half the days* (4), and *nearly every day* (5) (see Table 1).

Financial Disengagement

The subjective perception of one's personal finances relates to financial stress (Kim & Garman, 2004). In the present study, the researcher adopted two items from the Pay Satisfaction Scale developed by Kim and Garman (2004) which measured satisfaction levels with one's present financial situation, income adequacy, debt, savings, and investment. The items adopted were negatively worded to highlight the disengagement factor (see Table 1).

Organisational Commitment

Meyer et al. (2006) viewed commitment as "a force that binds an individual to a target (social or non-social), and to a course of action of relevance to that target" (p. 666). This phenomenon can be experienced in many ways and with different mindsets. These mindsets can be referred to as affective (AC), normative (NC), or continuance (CC). For the present study, the researcher adopted four items from the 24-item Organisational Commitment Scale developed by Allen & Meyer (1990) which encompassed the affective, normative, and continuance aspects (see Table 1).

Demographic variables

Demographic information was collected from respondents to build a rapport between the researcher and the respondent. It also helps the survey results to produce reports specific to demographic and organisational subgroups. Gender was measured in this study using a dichotomous variable where *male* indicated

(1) and *female* indicated (2); other demographic related items included age, marital status, level of education, and family income types (see Table 2). Other key variables in this section included the respondent's cabin class of service (e.g., economy class, business class, or first class), tenure (which was captured in months), job position (as supervisory or non-supervisory), and employment status (as either currently active or temporarily inactive).

3.4 Statistical Analyses

Data analysis was conducted by the means of the commercial software "Statistical Package for the Social Sciences" (IBM SPSS Statistics software for Windows, version 27.0), to provide statistical outcomes in visual formats (see Bala, 2016). SPSS helped to identify any missing data and efficiently manage the distribution of valid data.

All the questionnaires were administered electronically through a web-based system hosted by QualtricsXM (www.qualtrics.com) with access given to the researcher by the academic institution (Auckland University of Technology). All responses collected via this platform were entered into the SPSS program. This was the first step of the process once the data had been collected. The QualtricsXM survey tool allows the data to be accessed in a format consistent with the SPSS readable format. All the data exported to SPSS were coded in ordinal formats and were ready for execution of the next step.

In the second step, the constructs in the study were subjected to a series of factor and reliability analyses to evaluate their performance within the given data set. At this stage, data screening was implemented, a process that improves the data normality (Osborne, 2013), to reduce all possible errors which could affect the analysis of valid data. To ensure data quality, the study adopted various measures to avoid common method variance. At the time of survey design, the Nardi (2015) study adopted a mixed approach towards organising its items or variables in the questionnaire so it was not easy for respondents to correlate the causal relations among the variables (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Williams et al., 1989). To encourage candid responses to the questions, respondents were informed of their anonymity, and the confidentiality of their responses.

This study used Harman's one-factor test to determine the common method variance, as suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986). In this test, all the items related to the research were exported to an exploratory factor analysis. In this process, all the factors were extracted into one factor to determine the common method variance, with the condition set on the "no rotation" options of the available rotation options. The initial eigenvalues of the extracted factors were greater than 1 and explanatory power of the first factor extracted was less than 50%, indicating that there was no common method bias (see MacKenzie et al., 1993). If one single factor explains half the variances, then the existence of common method bias prevails (Aminu & Shariff, 2014). All cases where respondents chose the same response to most of the questions in the survey were identified during data screening and excluded these possible combinations to improve the normality of the data set (see Pallant, 2013).

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was employed in this study to examine the inter-item relationships between the variables to further define them into common underlying factors based on their characteristics (see Hair et al., 2006). The EFA approach helps to reduce factors with low internal reliability, determine its structure of measures, and discover of any other underlying structures (Tabachnick et al., 2007). Nunnally (1978) stated that the internal consistency of the main component with its related items is efficiently measured by Cronbach's alpha. Two major criteria used in this study to identify lesser contributing factors are Cronbach's alpha and initial eigenvalues. In the next step of the EFA process, all items were loaded with the condition set on varimax rotation. This step helped to reduce factors down to the main core factors to be utilised in the research based on their eigenvalues. Factors scoring greater than 1 in their eigenvalues were extracted as the main variables to be examined. As the eigenvalue of all factors was greater than 1, the research model exhibited an acceptable fit (see Osborne, 2014). The next step involved the dimension reality test for the extracted factors and its items with Cronbach's alpha, wherein α -score greater than 0.7 is considered as a premise for the acceptability of the model (see Kiliç, 2016). This study also conducted the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) to test the sampling adequacy wherein higher scores (close to 1) indicate that factor analysis may be useful for those data, with EFA providing a parsimonious set of factors (see Tabachnick et al., 2007).

A stricter assessment of the construct's uni-dimensionality was conducted through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). This study used the Analysis of Moments Structures (AMOS) statistical software package (IBM SPSS AMOS, version 27). The CFA was executed to test the measurement model and to assess the reliability and validity for the scale items. A two-step approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) was used. First, the measurement model was assessed for convergent and discriminant validity through CFA (see Table 3). Second, this measurement model was compared to other structural models for their model fitness (see Table 4). As suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), the composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) were calculated to assess the internal consistency. Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommended a minimum of 0.70 score for composite reliability and 0.50 for AVE indices for a model to be an acceptable fit in terms of reliability and validity. Convergent validity was tested using factor loadings, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) (see Hair et al., 2006), to show the extent to which observable indicators could converge to form a latent construct representative of the data. In this study, the discriminant validity was also calculated using the criteria suggested by Hair et al. (2010), which states that the square root of the AVE of each construct should be greater than the construct's highest correlation with any other construct in the model.

Pearson's correlation analysis was performed in this study to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. McMurray et al. (2014) stated that the strength of linear relationship between variables can be measured by Pearson's correlation. The Pearson's correlation coefficient ranges between -1 to +1, with higher values indicating more strength and negative values indicating the relationship between the variables to be negative (Schober et al., 2018).

This study applied regression analysis using Hayes's PROCESS macro v.35 to examine the hypotheses proposed (See Hayes, 2017). This program examined the role and effect of mediating (organisational commitment) and moderating (employment status) variables on the relationship shared between the independent (psychological, physical, emotional, and financial disengagement) and dependent variables (well-being). According to Baron and Kenny (1986),

mediators and moderators are conceptually, strategically, and statistically different, as moderators strengthen the relationship between independent and dependent variables, while mediators intervene. These variables influence and refine a causal relationship by delineating the basis of how a cause leads to an outcome (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Frazier et al., 2004; Wu & Zumbo, 2008). This statistical tool helped to examine the direct, indirect, and total effects between the variables in the present study. Employment status was used as a moderator, and categorised into two sets of employees: currently active and temporarily inactive. To understand the relationship and the difference between these groups, independent sample t-tests were conducted on the study's variables.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

A research protocol for researchers is suggested, by applying to a research ethics committee (REC) for consideration, comment, guidance, and approval (World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki, 2013). Any research involving human participants requires prior approval from a research ethics committee (REC) before the research commences (McLennan, 2019). Following these guidelines, an ethics application was submitted to the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTECH) and approved on 22nd March 2021 (see Appendix A). Relevant documents were submitted for the ethics application, and included a participant information sheet (PIS) and the online survey instrument.

The participant information sheet was provided at the start of the survey (see Appendix B1). This provided an overview of the study, the researcher's intention, and the respondent's contribution to the study. Contact details of the researcher, primary supervisor, secondary supervisor, and AUTECH representative were provided for respondents' reference for any queries arising from their participation. Respondents were assured of the voluntary nature of their participation, and that they could stop their contribution to the research at any time while completing the survey. Their voluntary consent was acknowledged at the start of the survey by their clicking the "next button" to move to the participant information sheet, which led to the main set of questions.

No personal information such as contact details, name, or email addresses were collected from respondents, which made it impossible for the researcher to track

any individual respondent. The respondents' anonymity was assured, and their responses were marked as confidential for academic purposes. No risks were involved for respondents in terms of their participation. This reduced any potential for discomfort, psychological upset, or embarrassment for respondents.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

A total of 208 flight attendants from the Middle East airline participated in the online survey. In total, 171 valid responses were collected for analysis after omitting incomplete responses, and extreme value combination responses.

A summary of the respondents' profiles is presented in Table 2). Of the 171 flight attendants, 43 were males, constituting about 25.1% of the total count, compared to the higher proportion of female flight attendants at 74.9% (n = 128). Most identified as single (59.2%), with 29% respondents identifying as married; 18 respondents were married (with children) and 1 flight attendant identified as separated in the marital status category. About 32% had just a high school qualification, 49.7% had an associate degree, and 30 held a bachelor's degree (17.5%). A total of 103 flight attendants (60.2%) were currently active in their service roles, whereas 68 (39.8%) were temporarily inactive in their roles but still employed by their organisation. There were 50.3% (n = 86) of respondents in a supervisory position and 49.7% (n = 85) in a non-supervisory position. Of total respondents, 12.3% had a single source of income, 43.3% had a double family income, and 44.4% had multiple income sources. A total of 70 worked in economy class, compared to 33.9% and 25.1% working in business and first-class categories, respectively. The majority of respondents had completed 20 to 100 months (80%) with their organisation. The flight attendants' average age ranged between 25 to 30 years (60% of total respondents).

4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis for the Disengagement Well-Being Model

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on all the variables in the study. An EFA helps reduce the number of variables that share an underlying common factor among them, to be categorised into a relevant factor list displaying its inter-relationship between the variables (Hair et al., 2006). A total of 25 items were loaded into the EFA to analyse the dimensionality of the set of variables and to test if the items accounted for one or multiple factors. Six factors were extracted in this process, identifying the six main constructs in the study. Individual items with factor loadings of less than .50 and the items that displayed scattered

loadings for multiple factors were omitted. All six factors extracted had an eigenvalue greater than 1. Eighteen items corresponding to the six factors were retained for this study. All the extracted items had a loading of greater than .50, which is the accepted requirement for a sample size of 170—200 respondents (see MacCallum et al., 1999). A varimax rotation was employed in the EFA and results presented in Table 3.

Table 2 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic Profile of Respondents (N=171)		
Attributes	Frequency (N)	%
Gender		
Male	43	25.1
Female	128	74.9
Marital Status		
Single	102	59.6
Married	50	29.2
Married (with children)	18	10.5
Seperated	1	0.6
Education		
High school Diploma	56	32.7
Associate Degree	85	49.7
Bachelor's Degree	30	17.5
Employment Status		
Currently Active	103	60.2
Temporarily Inactive	68	39.8
Job Position		
Supervisory	86	50.3
Non-supervisory	85	49.7
Family Income Type		
Single Income Families	21	12.3
Double Income Families	74	43.3
Multiple Income Families	76	44.4
Cabin Class of Service		
Economy	70	40.9
Business	58	33.9
First Class	43	25.1
Tenure (months)		
0-39	37	21.6
40-79	74	43.3
80-119	49	28.7
120-159	8	4.7
160-199	3	1.8
Age		
21-25	47	27.6
26-30	86	50.3
31-35	34	19.9
36-40	4	2.4

Table 3 *Exploratory Factor Analysis*

Exploratory Factor Analysis				
Dimension	Loading	Eigen value	% variance explained	Alpha
<i>Emotional Disengagement</i>				
EMOD1	0.91	8.55	34.20	0.96
EMOD2	0.89			
EMOD3	0.90			
EMOD4	0.90			
<i>Organisational Commitment</i>				
ORGCOM1	0.82	4.06	16.23	0.89
ORGCOM2	0.77			
ORGCOM3	0.75			
ORGCOM4	0.85			
<i>Psychological Disengagement</i>				
PSYD1	0.70	2.39	9.58	0.81
PSYD2	0.68			
PSYD3	0.78			
<i>Well-being</i>				
WB1	0.69	1.79	7.15	0.93
WB2	0.69			
WB3	0.62			
<i>Physical Disengagement</i>				
PHYD1	0.82	1.10	4.38	0.89
PHYD2	0.84			
<i>Financial Disengagement</i>				
FIND1	0.88	1.02	4.06	0.87
FIND2	0.82			
Total variance explained (%)			75.60	

The EFA displayed a clear link between extracted factors and their related items. The results interpreted two major dimensions in the model, which accounted for a collective variance extracted of 50.43%. Emotional disengagement explained 34.20% of the overall variance with an eigenvalue of 8.55, with organisational commitment at 16.23% (eigenvalue = 16.23) and well-being explaining 7.15% (eigenvalue = 1.79) of the total variance. A total of 75.60% of the variance was explained by the six extracted factors. All six factors were loaded into a reliability test to check for the internal consistency between the items. For a model to be acceptably fit, a minimum threshold of .70 for Cronbach's alpha was required, which was achieved for this model ($p < 0.81$). The results of EFA illustrated that the items were fit within the theoretical factor structures (see Table 3).

4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Disengagement Well-Being Model

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was employed to examine the underlying factors for the disengagement-well-being model. Before examining the hypotheses proposed in this study, it was necessary to analyse the confirmatory factors to test the measurement quality of the variables in the research framework (psychological disengagement, physical disengagement, emotional disengagement, financial disengagement, organisational commitment, and well-being). A total of eighteen variables were related to the six factors used for the study. Three variables for psychological disengagement, two variables for physical disengagement, four variables for emotional disengagement, two variables for financial disengagement, four variables for organisational commitment, and three variables for well-being were loaded into the CFA. The results of the CFA are presented in Table 4.

An extension of IBM SPSS AMOS (version 27) was used to conduct the CFA and assess convergent validity. The findings of model fitness indicated that the data fit the proposed model reasonably well (see Table 5). The six-factor model proposed displayed an acceptable fit: $\chi^2/df = 1.742$, RMR = 0.059, GFI = 0.883, AGFI = .0833, IFI = .0966, CFI = 0.966, RMSEA = 0.066. The CFI and RMSEA provide enough information to evaluate a model (Hair et al., 2006).

According to Garver and Mentzer (1999), a comparative fit index (CFI) test ($0.900 > 0.90$) indicates a good fit. The root mean squared approximation of error (RMSEA) $0.061 < 0.08$ is an incremental index that evaluates the fit of a model to a single factor model (null) (Hair et al., 2006). The CFI is considered an improved version of the NFI index (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick et al., 2007). It is recommended that χ^2/df are between 1 to 3, CFI and GFI are greater than 0.8, and RMR and RMSEA are smaller than 0.08, to indicate a good model fit (Hair et al., 1995). The results of the CFA also provided the evidence for convergent validity with all constructs scoring above the cut-off point of 0.50 (see Fornell & Larcker, 1981). A good discriminant validity was observed with all the AVEs in

the analysis, as the AVEs were larger than the squared pairwise correlations of all constructs. Discriminant validity determines whether the variables in the model are highly correlated among them or not. It compares the square root of the AVE of a particular variable with the correlation between that variable with other constructs. The value of the square root of AVE should be higher than the correlation. The discriminant validity also indicates that all variables have AVE value above 0.50, and the root value of AVE is greater than the correlation coefficient between variables (Henseler et al., 2015). The results imply that the latent variables predict their indicators better than the indicators of other latent variables. Given the fact that engagement and commitment are considered similar concepts by many researchers; and the present study adopting disengagement and organisational commitment (OC) constructs, it is important to verify that there is no overlap of concepts. The results show that each construct shows validity for discriminant validity which is -0.41 for the match of psychological disengagement and OC, -0.33 for the match of physical disengagement and OC, -0.01 for the match of financial disengagement and OC, and -0.42 for the match of emotional disengagement and OC. All the correlation figures are less than the square root of AVE of each construct (See Table 4). We then interpret the result that the model exhibits good discriminant validity.

Table 4 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

<i>Confirmatory Factor Analysis</i>					
Constructs & Indicators	Completely standardised loading	t-value	Cronbach's alpha	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
<i>Organisational Commitment</i>			0.89	0.89	0.68
OC1	0.938	1			
OC2	0.886	18.013			
OC3	0.615	9.31			
OC4	0.814	14.995			
<i>Well-being</i>			0.93	0.94	0.84
WB1	0.952	1			
WB2	0.966	27.603			
WB3	0.822	16.608			
<i>Psychological Disengagement</i>			0.81	0.82	0.61
PSY1	0.849	1			
PSY2	0.624	8.396			
PSY3	0.848	11.913			
<i>Physical Disengagement</i>			0.89	0.90	0.82
PHY1	0.816	1			
PHY2	0.985	11.412			
<i>Emotional Disengagement</i>			0.96	0.96	0.85
EMO1	0.932	1			
EMO2	0.946	23.974			
EMO3	0.917	21.55			
EMO4	0.893	19.787			
<i>Financial Disengagement</i>			0.87	0.88	0.78
FIN1	0.874	1			
FIN2	0.89	9.167			

Composite reliability for each variable was above the recommended value of 0.60 (see Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) and was as follows: psychological disengagement, 0.82, physical disengagement, 0.90, emotional disengagement, 0.96, financial disengagement, 0.88, well-being, 0.94, and organisational commitment, 0.89. The Cronbach's alpha score for each construct was above the recommended 0.70 (see Hair et al., 2006). This indicated that all measures were highly reliable and had good validity (see Table 4). Hence, results of the CFA confirmed that the disengagement-well-being model was reliable and could be implemented to test the hypotheses in the study.

4.4 Pearson's Correlation for the Disengagement Well-Being Model

Table 5 presents the summarised statistics of means, standard deviations, reliability, and correlations among the constructs. Financial disengagement had a higher mean performance (M=4.58, S.D.=0.70) than all three other disengagements: psychological (M=2.98, S.D.=0.87), physical (M=2.77, S.D.=0.97), and emotional (M=3.16, S.D.=1.08). Psychological disengagement ($r = -0.55, p < 0.01$), physical disengagement ($r = -0.43, p < 0.01$), and emotional disengagement ($r = -0.41, p < 0.01$) had a negative relationship with well-being, which was statistically significant. Therefore, H1a, H1b, and H1c were supported. Financial disengagement negatively influenced well-being but there was no statistical significance in their relationship, hence, H1d was not supported.

Table 5 *Fit Indices for Structural Models*

	X²/df	RMR	GFI	AGFI	IFI	CFI	RMSEA
6 Factor Model	1.742	0.059	0.883	0.833	0.966	0.966	0.066
4 Factor Model	3.456	0.083	0.793	0.725	0.879	0.878	0.12
3 Factor Model	6.245	0.212	0.617	0.503	0.736	0.734	0.176
2 Factor Model	7.979	0.227	0.548	0.423	0.643	0.64	0.203
1 Factor Model	12.009	0.21	0.444	0.296	0.432	0.428	0.254

Psychological disengagement ($r = -0.35, p < 0.01$) had a negative impact on organisational commitment. Physical disengagement ($r = -0.29, p < 0.01$) and emotional disengagement ($r = -0.36, p < 0.01$) also negatively impacted the organisational commitment of respondents. Therefore, H2a, H2b, and H2c were supported. Hypothesis H2d was not supported as there was no statistical significance of the negative impact of financial disengagement on the commitment level of the respondents. The well-being of respondents was positively related to their commitment level to their organisations ($r = 0.66, p < 0.01$). As a result, H3 was supported.

Current employment status was positively related to psychological disengagement ($r = 0.25, p < 0.01$), physical disengagement ($r = 0.22, p < 0.01$), and emotional disengagement ($r = 0.29, p < 0.01$). In other words, current employment status influenced the engagement level at the workplace and experiences of disengagement in psychological, physical, and emotional forms. The well-being

($r = -0.38, p < 0.01$) of respondents and the commitment level ($r = -0.37, p < 0.01$) towards their organisation were negatively influenced by their current employment status.

Table 6 Means Scores, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations

Means Scores, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations		Variable														
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Variable	Mean	S.D														
1 Psychological Disengagement	2.98	0.87	0.81													
2 Physical Disengagement	2.77	0.97	.61**	0.89												
3 Emotional Disengagement	3.16	1.08	.22*	.18*	0.96											
4 Financial Disengagement	4.58	0.70	0.02	0.08	.44**	0.87										
5 Organizational Commitment	3.31	1.06	-.35**	-.29**	-.36**	-0.01	0.89									
6 Well-being	3.58	1.17	-.55**	-.43**	-.41**	-0.01	.66**	0.93								
7 Employment Status ^a	1.40	0.49	.25**	.22**	.29**	-0.10	-.37**	-.38**	--							
8 Gender	1.75	0.44	-.19*	-.21**	0.10	-0.02	0.04	.18*	0.06	--						
9 Age	28.12	3.51	-0.08	-.16*	-.44**	-.32**	.41**	.33**	-.45**	-0.03	--					
10 Marital Status	1.53	0.73	-.19*	-.18*	-.18*	0.06	.32**	.30**	-.39**	0.07	.63**	--				
11 Education	1.85	0.69	.17*	0.00	0.01	-.21**	-.28**	-.31**	0.04	-0.13	0.12	-.17*	--			
12 Tenure	66.96	32.46	-0.14	-.18*	-.27**	-0.09	.31**	.34**	-.48**	0.02	.69**	.62**	-0.06	--		
13 Job Position	1.50	0.50	.20**	.26**	.32**	0.14	-.34**	-.34**	.55**	0.12	-.63**	-.53**	-0.14	-.68**	--	
14 Family Income Type	2.32	0.68	-0.12	0.01	0.12	.32**	-.18*	-0.01	.16*	0.08	-.33**	-.18*	-0.09	-.16*	.29**	--
15 Cabin Class of Service	1.84	0.80	-.24**	-.32**	-.21**	0.03	.32**	.33**	-.54**	-0.10	.51**	.54**	-0.01	.67**	-.71**	-0.08

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$; Bold: Internal Reliability; a. Employment Status: Currently active=1, Temporarily inactive=2

The current job position of respondents was positively related to their psychological ($r = 0.20, p < 0.01$), physical ($r = .026, p < 0.01$), and emotional ($r = 0.32, p < 0.01$) disengagement, all of which were statistically significant. However, financial disengagement had no statistical significance to job position, but it was positively related. Job position was categorised into supervisory and non-supervisory, and was negatively related to well-being ($r = -0.34, p < 0.01$) and organisational commitment ($r = -0.34, p < 0.01$). In other words, it can be assumed that irrespective of their job position, the flight attendants experienced disengagement in their work, which consequently affected their commitment level to the organisation and their well-being.

Another interesting result which emerged from the findings was that flight attendants' cabin class service category was negatively related to their current employment status ($r = -0.55, p < 0.01$), psychological disengagement ($r = -0.24, p < 0.01$), physical disengagement ($r = -0.32, p < 0.01$), and emotional disengagement ($r = -0.21, p < 0.01$). In other words, flight attendants experienced disengagement irrespective of their service category (i.e., economy, business, and first class). Cabin class service category shared a positive relationship with the well-being ($r = 0.33, p < 0.01$) and organisational commitment ($r = 0.32, p < 0.01$) of respondents. As they displayed positive relations with organisational commitment and well-being, it can be assumed that irrespective of their cabin class service category, all flight attendants were satisfied in their current cabin service category roles.

4.5 Hypotheses Testing for Mediation

This study tested whether organisational commitment (ORGCOM) mediated the relationship between psychological disengagement (PSYD) and well-being (WB) (see Table 7), physical disengagement (PHYD) and WB (see Table 8), emotional disengagement (EMOD) and WB (see Table 9), and financial disengagement (FIND) and WB (see Table 10).

As discussed in the Section 3.4 (Statistical Analyses), the predicted relationships were tested using Hayes' PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017) with 5000 bootstrap samples. Hypothesis H1a predicted that psychological disengagement would have a significant impact on the well-being of flight attendants. The results

found that psychological disengagement had a negative impact on well-being, which was statistically significant ($\beta = -0.50$ and 95% CI: -0.64 to -0.35). Hence, H1a was supported. This result suggests that flight attendants who experience psychological disengagement at work experience lower levels of well-being.

As predicted in H2a, results indicated that psychological disengagement had a negative impact on organisational commitment ($\beta = -0.43$ and 95% CI: -0.60 to -0.25) (see Table 7). Hence, H2a was supported. This result implies that flight attendants experience low commitment levels towards their organisation with increased psychological disengagement at work.

As proposed earlier in H4a, results found that the indirect effects of psychological disengagement on well-being via organisational commitment was negative and significant (indirect effect = -0.25 and 95% CI: -0.36 to -0.14). Therefore, H4a was supported. This result suggests that flight attendants who experienced psychological disengagement at work experience low levels of organisational commitment, which, in turn, results in low levels of well-being.

Table 7 *Mediation Analysis Model 1*

Mediation Analysis Model 1 - Psychological Disengagement						
Paths	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
PSYD → ORGCOM	-0.43**	0.09	-4.83	0.00	-0.60	-0.25
ORGCOM → WB	0.58**	0.06	9.52	0.00	0.46	0.70
PSYD → WB	-0.50**	0.07	-6.69	0.00	-0.64	-0.35
Total effect	-0.74**	0.09	-8.63	0.00	-0.91	-0.57
Bootstrapping	Effect	Boot SE		Boot LL	Boot UL	
Indirect effect	-0.25**	0.06		-0.36	-0.14	
Note: **p<0.01; Bootstrapping= 5000; LL= Lower Limit, UL= Upper Limit, CI= Confidence Interval, PSYD= Psychological Disengagement, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment, WB= Well-being						

As proposed in the hypothesis H1b, results found that physical disengagement had a negative impact on well-being, which was statistically significant ($\beta = -0.32$ and 95% CI: -0.45 to -0.17) (see Table 8). Hence, H1b was supported. This result suggests that flight attendants who experience physical disengagement at work also experience lower levels of well-being.

It was also predicted in H2b that physical disengagement has a negative impact on organisational commitment; this hypothesis was supported ($\beta = -0.32$ and 95% CI: -0.48 to -0.16). This result implies that flight attendants who experience low commitment levels towards their organisation, also experience increased physical disengagement at work.

As proposed earlier in H4b, results found that the indirect effects of physical disengagement on well-being via organisational commitment was negative and significant (indirect effect = -0.20 and 95% CI: -0.32 to -0.10). Therefore, H4b was supported. This result suggests that flight attendants who experience physical disengagement at work also experience low levels of organisational commitment, which, in turn, results in low levels of well-being.

Table 8 Mediation Analysis Model 2

Mediation Model 2 - Physical Disengagement						
Paths	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
PHYD → ORGCOM	-0.32**	0.08	-3.95	0.00	-0.48	-0.16
ORGCOM → WB	0.64**	0.06	10.07	0.00	0.51	0.76
PHYD → WB	-0.32**	0.07	-4.50	0.00	-0.45	-0.17
Total effect	-0.51**	0.08	-6.15	0.00	-0.68	-0.35
Bootstrapping	Effect	Boot SE		Boot LL	Boot UL	
Indirect effect	-0.20**	0.06		-0.32	-0.10	
Note: ** $p < 0.01$; Bootstrapping= 5000; LL= Lower Limit, UL= Upper Limit, CI= Confidence Interval, PHYD= Physical Disengagement, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment, WB= Well-being						

As proposed in the hypothesis H1c, results found that emotional disengagement had a negative impact on well-being, which was statistically significant ($\beta = -0.22$ and 95% CI: -0.35 to -0.09) (see Table 9). Hence, H1c was supported. This result suggests that flight attendants who experience emotional disengagement at work also experience lower levels of well-being.

As predicted earlier, results indicate that emotional disengagement had a negative impact on organisational commitment ($\beta = -0.35$ and 95% CI: -0.49 to -0.21). Hence, H2c was supported. This result implies that flight attendants who experience low commitment levels towards their organisation also experience increased emotional disengagement at work.

Table 9 Mediation Analysis Model 3

Mediation Model 3 - Emotional Disengagement						
Paths	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
EMOD → ORGCOM	-0.35**	0.07	-5.01	0.00	-0.49	-0.21
ORGCOM → WB	0.64**	0.07	9.62	0.00	0.51	0.77
EMOD → WB	-0.22**	0.07	-3.38	0.00	-0.35	-0.09
Total effect	-0.45**	0.08	-5.90	0.00	-0.59	-0.30
Bootstrapping	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LL	Boot UL	95% CI	
Indirect effect	-0.23**	0.05	-0.32	-0.13		
Note: ** $p < 0.01$; Bootstrapping= 5000; LL= Lower Limit, UL= Upper Limit, CI= Confidence Interval, EMOD= Emotional Disengagement, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment, WB= Well-being						

As proposed earlier in H4c, results found that the indirect effects of emotional disengagement on well-being via organisational commitment was negative and significant (indirect effect = -0.23 and 95% CI: -0.32 to -0.13). Therefore, H4c was supported. This result suggests that flight attendants who experience emotional disengagement at work also experience low levels of organisational commitment, which, in turn, results in low levels of well-being.

As proposed in the earlier hypotheses, H1d predicted that financial disengagement would have a significant impact on the well-being of flight attendants. Results found that financial disengagement did not have a negative impact on well-being and was statistically non-significant ($\beta = -0.00$ and 95% CI: -0.19 to 0.19) (see Table 10). Hence, H1d was not supported.

It was also predicted that financial disengagement has a negative impact on the organisational commitment of flight attendants. Whilst results indicated that financial disengagement had a negative impact on organisational commitment ($\beta = -0.01$ and 95% CI: -0.24 to 0.22), this was not statistically significant. Hence, H2d was not supported.

Table 10 Mediation Analysis Model 4

Mediation Model 4 - Financial Disengagement						
Paths	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
FIND → ORGCOM	-0.01	0.12	-0.07	0.95	-0.24	0.22
ORGCOM → WB	0.72**	0.06	11.24	0.00	0.59	0.85
FIND → WB	0.00	0.10	-0.03	0.97	-0.19	0.19
Total effect	-0.01	0.13	-0.07	0.95	-0.26	0.24
Bootstrapping	Effect	Boot SE		Boot LL	Boot UL	95% CI
Indirect effect	-0.01	0.07		-0.15	0.12	95% CI
Note: **p<0.01; Bootstrapping= 5000; LL= Lower Limit, UL= Upper Limit, CI= Confidence Interval, FIND= Financial Disengagement, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment, WB= Well-being						

Hypothesis H4d proposed that organisational commitment mediates the relationship between financial disengagement and well-being; results found that the indirect effects of financial disengagement on well-being via organisational commitment was negative and non-significant (indirect effect = -0.01 and 95% CI: -0.15 to 0.12). Therefore, H4d was not supported.

In the earlier hypotheses proposed in this study, H3 predicted that organisational commitment is positively related to well-being. Results suggest that organisational commitment was positively related to well-being in all four mediation models (see Tables 6A, 6B, 6C, and 6D): Model 1 – PSYD ($\beta = .58$ and 95% CI: 0.46 to 0.70), Model 2 – PHYD ($\beta = 0.64$ and 95% CI: 0.51 to 0.76), Model 3 – EMOD ($\beta = 0.64$ and 95% CI: 0.51 to 0.77), and Model 4 – FIND ($\beta = 0.72$ and 95% CI: 0.59 to 0.85). These results indicate that higher levels of organisational commitment among flight attendants lead to higher levels of well-being. Therefore, H3 was supported.

4.6 Exploring the Role of Employment Status of Flight Attendants

4.6.1 Comparing correlations between currently active flight attendants and temporarily inactive flight attendants

Table 10 presents the correlations and reliability comparisons between currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants. The internal consistency of organisational commitment was stronger for temporarily inactive ($r = 0.93$) flight attendants than for the currently active ($r = 0.82$). Temporarily inactive flight

attendants were more strongly committed to their organisation than were currently active, and the well-being of temporarily inactive ($r= 0.95$) flight attendants displayed stronger internal consistency than for those who were currently active ($r= 0.90$).

Currently active flight attendants were less satisfied over their well-being than were temporarily inactive ones, whilst temporarily inactive flight attendants displayed stronger internal consistency for psychological disengagement ($r= 0.81>0.8$), physical disengagement ($r= 0.9>0.89$), and emotional disengagement ($r= 0.96>0.95$) than currently active. However, currently active flight attendants' financial disengagement internal consistency was stronger than was temporarily inactive ($r= 0.9>0.84$). The negative relationship between psychological disengagement and well-being ($r= -0.53>0.51$, $p>0.01$), and physical disengagement and well-being ($r= -0.39>0.38$, $p>0.01$) for temporarily inactive flight attendants was found to be stronger than it was for currently active.

The correlations in Table 11 suggest that the negative relationship between emotional disengagement and well-being for temporarily inactive flight attendants was statistically significant ($r= -0.50$, $p>0.01$), compared to that for currently active, which was non-significant. Financial disengagement and well-being were negatively correlated and statistically significant for temporarily inactive flight attendants ($r= -0.26$, $p>0.05$). However, the relationship between financial disengagement and well-being for currently active flight attendants was positive and statistically significant ($r= 0.20$, $p>0.05$). The correlations between organisational commitment and well-being for temporarily inactive flight attendants was stronger than it was for currently active ($r= 0.77>0.42$, $p>0.01$). The well-being of temporarily inactive flight attendants was strongly influenced by their commitment level to the organisation compared to the well-being of those who were currently active.

Table 11 Reliability and Correlations Comparison Between Currently Active and Temporarily Inactive

	Currently Active (n=103)														Temporarily Inactive (n=68)																		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14					
PSYD	0.8																																
PHYD	.60 ^{**}	0.89													.56 ^{**}	0.9																	
EMOD	0.13	0.07	0.95												0.18	0.18	0.96																
FIND	0.11	0.15	.39 ^{**}	0.9											-0.02	0.04	.59 ^{**}	0.84															
ORGCOM	-0.19	-0.10	-0.16	0.07	0.82										-.40 ^{**}	-.39 ^{**}	-.41 ^{**}	-0.15	0.93														
WB	-.51 ^{**}	-.38 ^{**}	-0.19	.20 [†]	.42 ^{**}	0.9									-.53 ^{**}	-.39 ^{**}	-.50 ^{**}	-.26 [†]	.77 ^{**}	0.95													
Gender	-.29 ^{**}	-.28 ^{**}	.21 [†]	-0.05	-0.06	0.16	--								-0.09	-0.15	-0.08	0.02	0.23	.29 [†]	--												
Age	-0.01	0.0	-.20 [†]	-.24 [†]	.21 [†]	0.09	-0.11	--							0.10	-0.19	-.54 ^{**}	-.57 ^{**}	.38 ^{**}	.31 [†]	0.13	--											
Marital Status	-.25 ^{**}	-0.1	-0.04	0.10	0.16	.25 [†]	0.10	.48 ^{**}	--						0.16	-0.14	-0.11	-0.07	.26 [†]	0.10	0.09	.66 ^{**}	--										
Education	.25 [†]	0.0	-0.01	-.36 ^{**}	-0.13	-.36 ^{**}	-0.13	.25 [†]	-.22 [†]	--					0.05	-0.05	0.00	-0.06	-.46 ^{**}	-.27 [†]	-0.13	0.04	-0.08	--									
Emp Years	-0.12	0.0	0.06	0.10	0.11	.20 [†]	0.03	.51 ^{**}	.62 ^{**}	-0.10	--				0.16	-0.18	-.48 ^{**}	-.51 ^{**}	.23	0.20	0.11	.76 ^{**}	.35 ^{**}	0.06	--								
Job Position	0.06	0.2	0.09	0.16	-0.15	-0.10	0.18	-.48 ^{**}	-.44 ^{**}	-.20 [†]	-.53 ^{**}	--			0.11	0.16	.36 ^{**}	.37 ^{**}	-.23	-.29 [†]	-0.04	-.60 ^{**}	-.33 ^{**}	-0.18	-.66 ^{**}	--							
Family Income Type	-0.18	-0.1	0.05	.24 [†]	-0.15	.22 [†]	0.18	-.22 [†]	-0.02	-.27 ^{**}	-0.02	.25 [†]	--		-0.14	0.00	0.11	.45 ^{**}	-0.10	-0.12	-0.11	-.38 ^{**}	-.29 [†]	0.10	-0.23	0.23	--						
Cabin Class of Service	-0.16	-.21 [†]	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.17	-0.11	.27 [†]	.48 ^{**}	-0.07	.52 ^{**}	-.58 ^{**}	-0.03	--	-0.06	-.30 [†]	-.33 ^{**}	-.19	.25 [†]	0.17	-0.02	.54 ^{**}	.27 [†]	0.16	.62 ^{**}	-.63 ^{**}	0.09	--					

Note: ^{**}p<0.01, [†]p<0.05; PSYD= Psychological Disengagement, PHYD= Physical Disengagement, EMOD= Emotional Disengagement, FIND= Financial Disengagement, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment, WB= Well-being; Bold= Internal Reliability

4.6.2 Examining the role of employment status

This study examined whether employment status led to differences between currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants' levels of psychological disengagement, physical disengagement, emotional disengagement, financial disengagement, organisational commitment, and well-being. To explore the differences, independent sample t-tests were performed.

Table 12 presents the comparison of employment status between currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants on each variable level. Employment status was statistically significant with organisational commitment, well-being, psychological disengagement, physical disengagement, and emotional disengagement.

Table 12 Independent Samples T-Tests

Factor		N	M	S.D	Std. Error Mean	t	Significance
Organizational Commitment	Currently Active	103	3.63	0.90	0.09	4.95	0.00**
	Temporarily Inactive	68	2.83	1.11	0.14		
Well-being	Currently Active	103	3.94	0.96	0.09	5.04	0.00**
	Temporarily Inactive	68	3.04	1.25	0.15		
Psychological Disengagement	Currently Active	103	2.80	0.83	0.08	-3.33	0.00**
	Temporarily Inactive	68	3.24	0.85	0.10		
Physical Disengagement	Currently Active	103	2.60	0.94	0.09	-2.96	0.00*
	Temporarily Inactive	68	3.04	0.97	0.12		
Emotional Disengagement	Currently Active	103	2.90	0.96	0.09	-3.79	0.00**
	Temporarily Inactive	68	3.54	1.16	0.14		
Financial Disengagement	Currently Active	103	4.63	0.61	0.06	1.19	0.21
	Temporarily Inactive	68	4.49	0.82	0.10		

Note: **p<0.001, *p<0.005

The currently active (M= 3.63) flight attendants' organisational commitment level was greater than it was for those who were temporarily inactive (M= 2.83). Similarly, currently active (M= 3.94) flight attendants experienced a higher level of well-being than did those who were temporarily inactive (M= 3.04). The temporarily inactive flight attendants experienced a much higher level of psychological (M= 3.24>2.80), physical (M= 3.04>2.60), and emotional disengagement (M= 3.54>2.90) than did those who were currently active. As

currently active flight attendants displayed a higher level of financial disengagement than did those who were temporarily inactive, there was no statistical evidence to support the result that temporarily inactive flight attendants experienced decreased levels of financial disengagement.

4.6.3 Hypothesis testing for moderation and moderated mediation

4.6.3.1 Moderation and moderated mediation (Model 1)

The moderating effect of employment status on the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being, and between psychological disengagement and well-being, was assessed using Hayes' PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017). All main constructs and their interaction terms were assumed to predict the well-being of flight attendants. The overall model was found to be significant at $F(5,165) = 46.28, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.58$. Psychological disengagement, which was the independent variable in this model, was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = -0.64, t[165] = -2.91, p < 0.01$).

Table 13 Results of Moderation and Moderated Mediation analysis (Model 1)

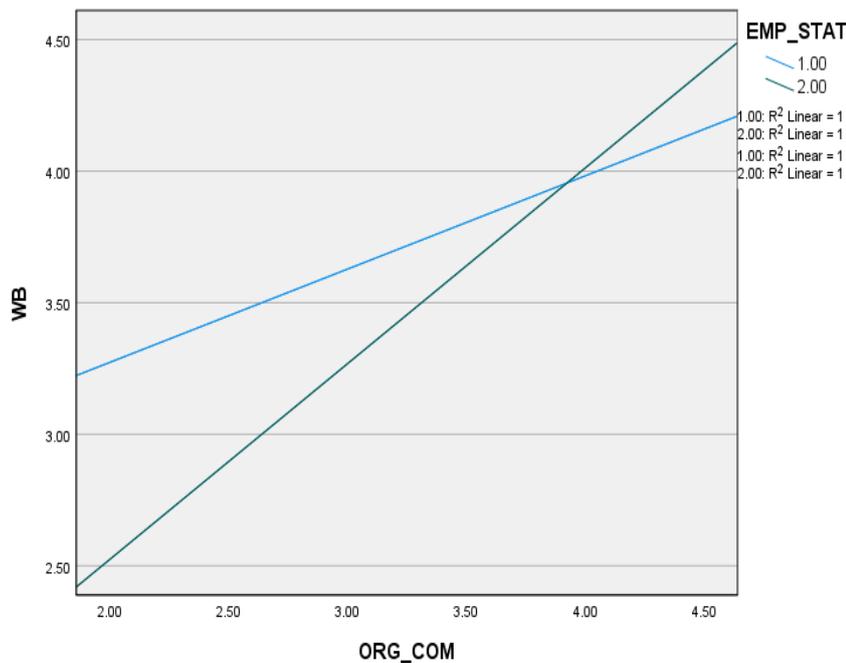
Model 1	Well-being (Y)						
Predictors	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
PSYD (X)	-0.64**	0.22	-2.91**	0.00	-1.07	-0.20	
EMPS (W)	-1.92**	0.71	-2.70**	0.01	-3.32	-0.51	
PSYD x EMPS (X x W)	0.13	0.15	0.86	0.39	-0.17	0.43	
ORGCOM (M)	-0.03	0.19	-0.18	0.86	-0.42	0.35	
ORGCOM x EMPS (M x W)	0.39**	0.13	3.12**	0.00	0.14	0.64	
F	46.28						
R ²	0.58						
ΔR^2	0.012						
Conditional Indirect Effects of Employment Status (Moderator)	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI			
Currently Active	-0.15	0.05	-0.26	-0.06			
Temporarily Inactive	-0.32	0.07	-0.46	-0.18			
Index of moderated mediation	-0.17	0.06	-0.30	-0.05			
Note: ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$; PSYD= Psychological Disengagement, EMPS= Employment Status, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment							

This result indicates that for every unit increase in the level of respondents' psychological disengagement, there was a decrease of -0.64 units in well-being. Employment status, which was the moderating variable, was found to be significant in this model ($\beta = -1.92$, $t [165] = -2.70$, $p < 0.01$) (see Table 13). Organisational commitment X Employment status (ORGCOM X EMPS), the interaction term in this model, was found to be significant ($\beta = 0.39$, $t [165] = 3.12$, $p < 0.01$). Hence, H5 was supported.

A simple slope analysis was performed to probe the nature of any significant interactions (Cohen et al., 2003). The interaction plot in Figure 21 shows that the slope for organisational commitment and well-being were steeply downward for employment status for the temporarily inactive flight attendants. This indicates that the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being weakened because of the respondents' stated current employment status. The highest level of well-being was observed for those with high levels of organisational commitment. In other words, temporarily inactive flight attendants experience greater well-being, with increased commitment to their organisation. Therefore, Model 1 (PSYD – independent variable) supported H5.

This study employed Model 15 of the PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017) to validate the findings of the moderated mediation relationship. The impact of employment status as a moderator on the mediating relationship between psychological disengagement and well-being via organisational commitment was tested. The conditional indirect effect was examined for currently active and temporarily inactive employees. The lower part of Table 13 presents the index of moderated mediation (see Hayes, 2015), which was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = -0.17$, Boot SE = 0.06, CI: -0.30 to -0.05).

Figure 21 *Simple Slope for Model 1*



Note: [Well-being (WB), Organisational commitment (ORG_COM), Employment Status (EMP_STAT): 1= Currently Active, 2= Temporarily Inactive]

Since the confidence intervals in this effect did not contain zero, it can be stated that the indirect effect of psychological disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment differs for flight attendants depending on their current employment status. Hence the moderated mediation was validated. These findings also show that a negative indirect effect is stronger for flight attendants who are temporarily inactive ($\beta = -0.32$, Boot SE = 0.07, CI: -0.46 to -0.18) than for those who are currently active ($\beta = -0.15$, Boot SE = 0.05, CI: -0.26 to -0.06). Hence, H6a was supported.

4.6.3.2 Moderation and moderated mediation (Model 2)

The moderating effect of employment status on the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being, and between physical disengagement and well-being, was assessed using Hayes' PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017). All main constructs and their interaction terms were assumed to predict the well-being of flight attendants. The overall model was found to be significant at $F(5, 165) = 37.61$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.53$. Physical disengagement, the independent variable in this model, was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = -0.56$, $t[165] = -2.76$, $p < 0.01$). This result indicates that for every unit increase in the level of physical disengagement, there was a decrease of -0.56 units in well-being. Employment status, the moderating variable, was found to be significant

in this model ($\beta = -2.22$, $t [165] = -3.33$], $p < 0.01$) (see Table 14). Organisational commitment X Employment status (ORGCOM X EMPS), which is the interaction term in this model, was found to be significant ($\beta = 0.41$, $t [165] = 3.09$, $p < 0.01$). Hence, H5 was supported.

A simple slope analysis was performed to probe the nature of any significant interactions (see Cohen et al., 2003). The interaction plot in Figure 22 shows that the slopes for organisational commitment and well-being were steeply downward regarding employment status for temporarily inactive flight attendants. This indicates that the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being weakened because of the stated current employment status. The highest level of well-being was observed for those with high levels of organisational commitment. In other words, temporarily inactive flight attendants experience greater well-being, with increased commitment to their organisation. Therefore, Model 2 (PHYD – independent variable) supported H5.

Table 14 Results of Moderation and Moderated Mediation Analysis (Model 2)

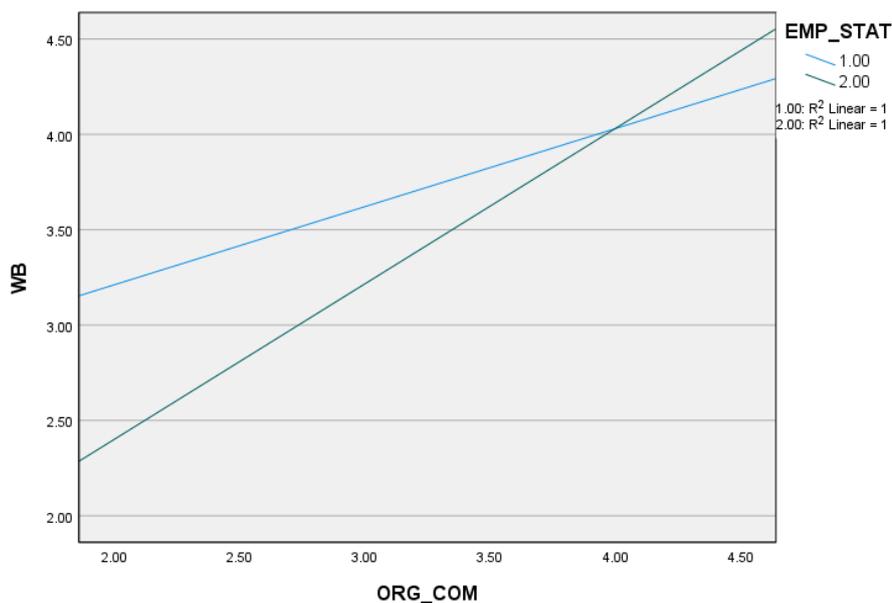
Model 2	Well-being (Y)					
Predictors	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
PHYD (X)	-0.56**	0.20	-2.76**	0.01	-0.97	-0.16
EMPS (W)	-2.22**	0.67	-3.33**	0.00	-3.54	-0.91
PHYD x EMPS (X x W)	0.22	0.14	1.54	0.13	-0.06	0.49
ORGCOM (M)	0.00	0.20	0.02	0.98	-0.40	0.41
ORGCOM x EMPS (M x W)	0.41**	0.13	3.09**	0.00	0.15	0.67
F	37.61					
R ²	0.53					
ΔR^2	0.011					
Conditional Indirect Effects of Employment Status (Moderator)	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI		
Currently Active	-0.13	0.05	-0.23	-0.05		
Temporarily Inactive	-0.26	0.07	-0.40	-0.13		
Index of moderated mediation	-0.13	0.05	-0.24	-0.04		

Note: ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$; PHYD= Physical Disengagement, EMPS= Employment Status, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment

Model 15 of the PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017) was employed to validate the findings of the moderated mediation relationship. The impact of employment

status as a moderator on the mediating relationship between physical disengagement and well-being via organisational commitment was tested. The conditional indirect effect was examined for currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants. The lower part of Table 14 presents the index of moderated mediation (see Hayes, 2015), which was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = -0.13$, Boot SE = 0.05, CI: -0.24 to -0.04).

Figure 22 Simple Slope for Model 2



Note: [Well-being (WB), Organisational commitment (ORG_COM), Employment Status (EMP_STAT): 1= Currently Active, 2= Temporarily Inactive]

Since the confidence intervals in this effect did not contain zero, it can be stated that the indirect effect of physical disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment differs for flight attendants, depending on their current employment status. Hence the moderated mediation was validated. These findings also show that a negative indirect effect is stronger for flight attendants who are temporarily inactive ($\beta = -0.26$, Boot SE = 0.07, CI: -0.40 to -0.13) than those who are currently active ($\beta = -0.13$, Boot SE = 0.05, CI: -0.23 to -0.05). Hence, H6b was supported.

4.6.3.3 Moderation and moderated mediation (Model 3)

The moderating effect of employment status on the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being, and between emotional

disengagement and well-being, was assessed using Hayes' PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017). All main constructs and their interaction terms were assumed to predict the well-being of flight attendants. The overall model was found to be significant at $F(5,165) = 33.74$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.51$. Emotional disengagement, the independent variable in this model, was found to be statistically non-significant ($\beta = -0.0021$, $t[165] = -0.01$, $p > 0.05$). Employment status, the moderating variable, was also found to be statistically non-significant in this model ($\beta = -1.02$, $t[165] = -1.45$, $p > 0.05$) (see Table 15). Organisational commitment X Employment status (ORGCOM X EMPS), which is the interaction term in this model, was found to be significant ($\beta = 0.34$, $t[165] = 2.47$, $p < 0.01$). Hence, H5 was supported.

A simple slope analysis was performed to probe the nature of any significant interactions (Cohen et al., 2003). The interaction plot in Figure 23 shows that the slopes for organisational commitment and well-being were steeply downward for employment status for the temporarily inactive flight attendants. This indicates that the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being weakened because of the stated current employment status. The highest levels of well-being were observed for those with high levels of organisational commitment. In other words, temporarily inactive flight attendants experience greater well-being with increased commitment to their organisations. Therefore, Model 3 (EMOD – independent variable) supported H5.

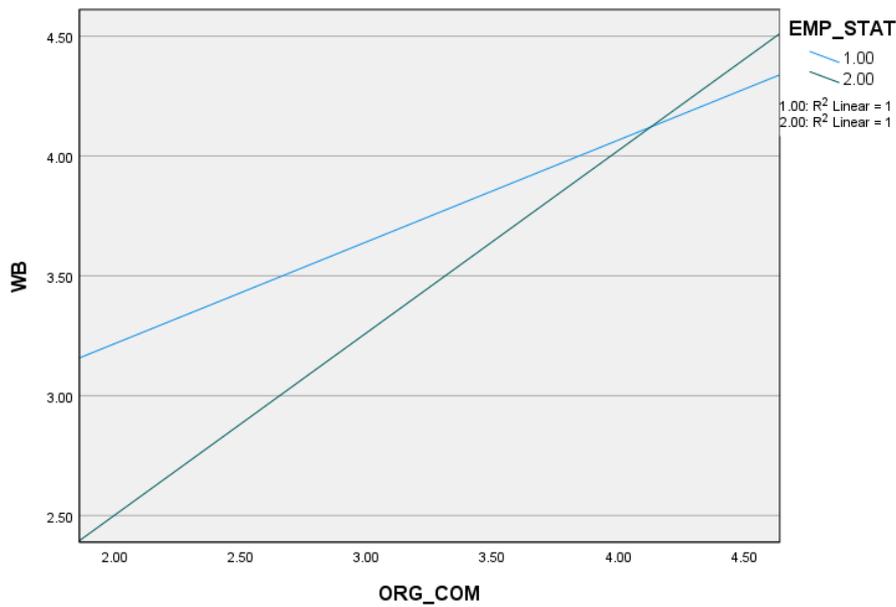
This study employed Model 15 of the PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017) to validate the findings of the moderated mediation relationship. The impact of employment status as a moderator on the mediating relationship between emotional disengagement and well-being via organisational commitment was tested. The conditional indirect effect was examined for currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants.

Table 15 Results of Moderation and Moderated Mediation Analysis (Model 3)

Model 3		Well-being (Y)					
Predictors	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
EMOD (X)	0.00	0.20	-0.01	0.99	-0.40	0.39	
EMPS (W)	-1.02	0.70	-1.45	0.15	-2.41	0.37	
EMOD x EMPS (X x W)	-0.12	0.13	-0.91	0.37	-0.37	0.14	
ORGCOM (M)	0.09	0.21	0.42	0.67	-0.33	0.51	
ORGCOM x EMPS (M x W)	0.34**	0.14	2.47**	0.01	0.07	0.61	
F	33.74						
R ²	0.51						
ΔR^2	0.0102						
Conditional Indirect Effects of Employment Status (Moderator)	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI			
Currently Active	-0.15	0.05	-0.25	-0.07			
Temporarily Inactive	-0.27	0.06	-0.39	-0.16			
Index of moderated mediation	-0.12	0.05	-0.22	-0.03			
Note: ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$; EMOD= Emotional Disengagement, EMPS= Employment Status, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment							

The lower part of Table 15 presents the index of moderated mediation (see Hayes, 2015), which was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = -0.12$, Boot SE = 0.05, CI: -0.22 to -0.03). Since the confidence intervals in this effect did not contain zero, it can be stated that the indirect effect of emotional disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment differs for flight attendants, depending on their current employment status. Hence the moderated mediation was validated. These findings also show that the negative indirect effect is stronger for flight attendants who are temporarily inactive ($\beta = -0.27$, Boot SE = 0.06, CI: -0.39 to -0.16) than for those who are currently active ($\beta = -0.15$, Boot SE = 0.05, CI: -0.25 to -0.07). Hence, H6c was supported.

Figure 23 Simple Slope for Model 3



Note: Well-being (WB), Organisational commitment (ORG_COM), Employment Status (EMP_STAT): 1= Currently Active, 2= Temporarily Inactive

4.6.3.4 Moderation and moderated mediation (Model 4)

The moderating effect of employment status on the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being, and between financial disengagement and well-being was assessed using Hayes' PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017). All main constructs and their interaction terms were assumed to predict the well-being of flight attendants. The overall model was found to be significant at $F(5,165) = 33.47, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.52$. Financial disengagement, the independent variable in this model, was found to be positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.78, t[165] = 2.58, p < 0.01$). This result indicates that for every unit decrease in the level of financial disengagement, there was an increase of 0.78 units in well-being. Employment status, the moderating variable, was found to be statistically non-significant in this model ($\beta = 0.59, t[165] = 0.61, p > 0.05$) (see Table 16). Organisational commitment X Employment status (ORGCOM X EMPS), which is the interaction term in this model, was found to be significant ($\beta = 0.40, t[165] = 3.09, p < 0.01$). Hence, H5 was supported.

A simple slope analysis was performed to probe the nature of any significant interactions (Cohen et al., 2003). The interaction plot in Figure 24 shows that the

slope for organisational commitment and well-being were steeply downward for employment status for the temporarily inactive flight attendants. This indicates that the relationship between the organisational commitment and well-being weakened because of their stated current employment status. The highest level of well-being was observed for those with high levels of organisational commitment. In other words, temporarily inactive flight attendants experience greater well-being with increased commitment to their organisation. Therefore, Model 4 (FIND – independent variable) supported H5.

This study employed Model 15 of the PROCESS macro (see Hayes, 2017) to validate the findings of the moderated mediation relationship. The impact of employment status as a moderator on the mediating relationship between financial disengagement and well-being via organisational commitment was tested. The conditional indirect effect was examined for currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants.

Table 16 Results of Moderation and Moderated Mediation Analysis (Model 4)

Model 4	Well-being (Y)					
Predictors	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
FIND (X)	0.78**	0.30	2.58**	0.01	0.18	1.36
EMPS (W)	0.59	0.96	0.61	0.54	-1.31	2.49
FIND x EMPS (X x W)	-0.50**	0.19	-2.70**	0.01	-0.86	-0.13
ORGCOM (M)	0.03	0.21	0.15	0.88	-0.38	0.44
ORGCOM x EMPS (M x W)	0.40**	0.13	3.09**	0.00	0.15	0.66
F	33.47					
R ²	0.50					
ΔR^2	0.01					
Conditional Indirect Effects of Employment Status (Moderator)	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LL 95% CI	Boot UL 95% CI		
Currently Active	0.00	0.04	-0.09	0.08		
Temporarily Inactive	-0.01	0.08	-0.18	0.15		
Index of moderated mediation	0.00	0.04	-0.10	0.08		

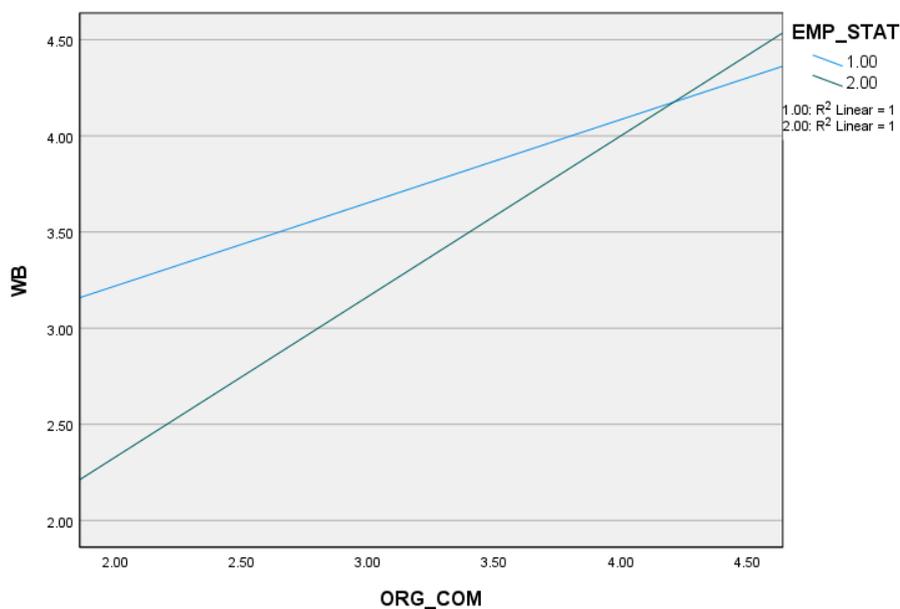
Note: **p<0.01, *p<0.05; FIND= Financial Disengagement, EMPS= Employment Status, ORGCOM= Organizational Commitment

The lower part of Table 16 presents the index of moderated mediation (Hayes, 2015), which was found to be statistically non-significant ($\beta = -0.0031$, Boot SE = 0.04, CI: -0.10 to 0.08). Since the confidence intervals in this effect contained

zero, it can be stated that there was no indirect effect of financial disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment. Hence the moderated mediation was not fulfilled by this model and H6d was not supported.

However, there was a direct effect of financial disengagement on well-being, depending on the stated current employment status ($\beta = -0.50$, $t [165] = -2.70$, $p < 0.01$). The results indicated that there was a negative effect of financial disengagement on temporarily inactive flight attendants, which was found to be statistically non-significant ($\beta = -0.23$, $t [165] = -1.81$, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI: -0.48 to 0.21).

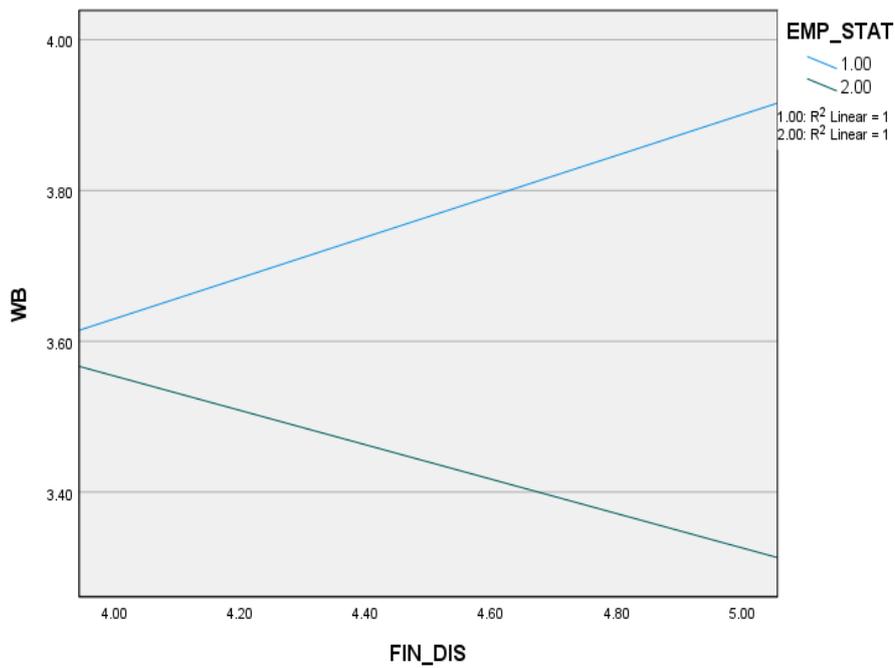
Figure 24 Simple Slope for Model 4



Note: Well-being (WB), Organisational commitment (ORG_COM), Employment Status (EMP_STAT): 1= Currently Active, 2= Temporarily Inactive

On the other hand, currently active flight attendants' positive association with financial disengagement, was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = 0.27$, $t [165] = 2.00$, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI: 0.03 to 0.54) (see Figure 25).

Figure 25 Simple Slope for Model 4 (Direct Effects)



Note: Well-being (WB), Financial Disengagement (FIN_DIS), Employment Status (EMP_STAT): 1= Currently Active, 2= Temporarily Inactive

This implies that flight attendants who are currently active are less likely to experience financial disengagement than those who are temporarily inactive. In other words, the well-being of temporarily inactive flight attendants is more likely to be affected by financial disengagement. As there was no statistical significance to support the negative effect of financial disengagement on temporarily inactive flight attendants, based on the positive findings, it was concluded that currently active flight attendants have stronger financial stability than do temporarily inactive attendants. As currently active attendants' jobs are at low risk compared to the jobs of those who are temporarily inactive, they experience decreased financial disengagement and greater well-being.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the key findings of the study, followed by a discussion about theoretical contributions and implications for practitioners. The next section then lists the limitations of the study, and provides recommendations for future researchers before ending with the conclusion.

5.2 Summary of Key Findings

This study employed an Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis to examine the underlying factors and best fit for the disengagement-well-being model. A total of six factors were extracted after applying the EFA to the study's constructs. The six factors in the research model were psychological disengagement, physical disengagement, emotional disengagement, financial disengagement, organisational commitment, and well-being. Emotional disengagement was loaded as one of the major factors influencing the disengagement-well-being model. In this study, emotional disengagement included two main attributes: anxiety and depression. The second major factor loaded was organisational commitment, which encompassed attributes such as willingness to commit a career to an organisation, and attachment to an organisation. This was followed by the well-being factor, which encompassed attributes such as genuine care and rightful consideration towards fair treatment of flight attendants.

The first research objective was to examine the relationships between psychological, physical, emotional, and financial disengagement, with organisational commitment and well-being. Psychological, physical, emotional, and financial disengagement were all negatively related to organisational commitment and well-being, and organisational commitment was positively related to well-being. Reliability tests on these constructs were conducted with Cronbach's alpha, which was achieved for this disengagement-well-being model, making it highly reliable. The CFA results indicated an acceptable fit for the proposed model. Therefore, the first research objective was fulfilled.

The second research objective was to examine the mediating role of organisational commitment in the disengagement-well-being model. A mediation analysis was conducted using the SPSS PROCESS macro v.35 to evaluate the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variables via organisational commitment, which was the mediator. Four different models were analysed examining the four independent variables (psychological, physical, emotional, and financial disengagement) on well-being through organisational commitment. Psychological, physical, and emotional disengagement models were mediated by organisational commitment. Financial disengagement exhibited no mediating effect on well-being via organisational commitment. Results indicated that disengagement predicted organisational commitment (see Thanacoody et al., 2014). The results of the mediation analyses suggest that the indirect effect of psychological and physical disengagement on well-being was mitigated by the organisational commitment of flight attendants. The indirect effect of emotional disengagement on well-being was not influenced by the intervention of organisational commitment.

Employment status was found to moderate the relationship between organisational commitment and well-being in all four models (with psychological, physical, emotional, and financial disengagement as independent variables). Moderated mediation was observed in the relationships between Model 1 (psychological disengagement-organisational commitment-well-being), Model 2 (physical disengagement-organisational commitment-well-being), and Model 3 (emotional disengagement-organisational commitment-well-being) at the values of the employment status of flight attendants. Model 4 (financial disengagement-organisational commitment-well-being) displayed no moderated mediation. However, employment status was found to moderate the direct relationship between financial disengagement and well-being. Therefore, the second objective was fulfilled.

The role of employment status for flight attendants was explored in the proposed relationships, and categorised as currently active flight attendants and temporarily inactive flight attendants. The findings indicate that a high level of psychological, physical, and emotional disengagement was experienced among the temporarily inactive flight attendants compared to the experiences of those

who were currently active. Commitment to the organisation was found to be greater for temporarily inactive flight attendants than for those who were currently active. This result indicates that the level of commitment is a strong influence on the sense of well-being for temporarily inactive flight attendants. In other words, any change in their commitment levels affects their well-being. The findings of this study also indicate that the direct effect of financial disengagement on well-being was positive for currently active flight attendants. However, it was observed to be a negative effect for temporarily inactive flight attendants, and was statistically non-significant. This result implies that currently active flight attendants experience better job security than do those who are temporarily inactive. In other words, currently active flight attendants are more financially stable than are temporarily inactive flight attendants. Being currently active in their job roles mitigates the chances of possible job losses, layoffs, or unemployment, compared to the conditions for temporarily inactive flight attendants, who are more likely to experience precarious employment because of the inactivity in their job roles. Therefore, the third and fourth research objectives were fulfilled.

5.3 Theoretical Implications

From the several contributions to offer from the findings of this study, there are three major theoretical contributions.

Firstly, the objective of this study was to empirically examine the effect of flight attendants' disengagement on their well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic. This study was based on Kahn's (1990) conceptualisation of disengagement. Disengagement has been conceptualised by many researchers as distancing oneself physically, emotionally, and cognitively from work (Demerouti et al., 2001; Kahn, 1990; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Kahn (1990) emphasised three psychological conditions related to employee engagement: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Meaningfulness relates to the emotional, physical, and cognitive energies that an employee experiences by investing time in work; safety relates to the employees' ability to exercise their skills without any fear of criticism; and availability relates to the confidence level of employees, by which they engage. This study was structured to explore the disengagement factor from the employees' perspective, in four forms: psychological, physical,

emotional, and financial. The current work environments and employment statuses of the flight attendants were likely to predict their levels of disengagement. The findings of this study are consistent with those of Abbas et al. (2014), Shuck et al. (2011), and Valentin (2014), who explored disengagement from the employees' perspective and concluded that individuals and the environments they work in, create engagement and disengagement. The findings of this study provide a new perspective on the concept of disengagement.

COVID-19 increased the number of burnout encounters for flight attendants in the airline industry, causing them to disengage from work. The current study and its findings indicate that flight attendants, irrespective of their employment status, experience disengagement in psychological, physical, emotional, and financial forms. Such disengagement may be an outcome of external factors such as the COVID-19 spread, government policies around travel restrictions, industry-related factors such as downsizing, layoffs, and terminations, and economic factors such as the overall economic crises suffered by many businesses, including airlines. These external causes of disengagement influenced the well-being of flight attendants. This is consistent with the findings of Brauchli et al. (2013), who stated that significant changes in external factors lead to a change in demands and resources, which consequently affect employees' well-being.

Secondly, this research explored disengagement at four different levels: psychological, physical, emotional, and financial. As the premise of the study was based on the absence of the meaningfulness aspect of disengagement among flight attendants, financial insecurity and instability were explored as a disengagement factor. As this disengagement factor was drawn from the absence of availability aspect conceptualised by Kahn (1990), it relates to the safety and security an employee seeks when joining an organisation. The introduction of such a factor from Kahn's conceptualisation is likely to be the first example of this in the airline literature, and can now be further explored by researchers in different contexts.

The findings are consistent with the work of Pinquart et al. (2009) which indicated that higher work demands faced by employees at work leads to increasing disengagement, resulting in poorer psychological well-being. In the context of this research, flight attendants categorised as currently active and temporarily

inactive, were found to experience high levels of disengagement. Those currently active in their job roles, were more prone to high work demands, and as a result, experienced disengagement and poorer well-being. Being confined to home spaces, the temporarily inactive flight attendants were also disengaged with their work, because of inactivity. However, they experienced greater well-being than those who were currently active.

Flight attendants in this study exhibited high levels of organisational commitment towards their organisation. Organisational commitment mediated the relationships between psychological, physical, and emotional disengagement and well-being. Even though they felt disengaged at work, the attendants were strongly committed to their employer, and as they felt commitment to their organisation, they were likely to perceive that they were receiving help and support at work in times of uncertainty such as COVID-19. If adequate support is received, flight attendants are likely to continue feeling enhanced commitment towards their organisations. This reduces disengagement outcomes such as fatigue, job dissatisfaction, relationship conflicts, stress, and anger. These results are consistent with those of MacDonald et al. (2003), who suggested that internal and external support reduced disengagement attributes. The findings of this study are also consistent with the work of Kim and Wang (2018), who indicated that perceived peer support had a significant impact on burnout, leading to exhaustion and consequently disengagement for service employees.

The findings of this research suggest that flight attendants display high levels of trust in their organisations through their high levels of organisational commitment. These results indicate that the research findings are in line with the work of Dirks (2000), Dirks and Ferrin (2002), and Dirks and Skarlicki (2004) suggesting that increased trust, directly or indirectly results in positive work attitudes and behaviours such as organisational commitment. The current research findings also align with those in a study by Broccardo et al. (2019) that found that a leader's or organisation's ability to motivate and inspire its employees is based on trust, and employees who confer trust in their organisation, exhibit higher commitment. Similarly, if flight attendants perceive a shortfall of trust and stability in their relationship with their employer, they are likely to respond with withdrawal and disengagement at work. These research findings are aligned with the results

of Parzefall & Hakanen (2010) who emphasised that the psychological contract fulfilment between the employee and employer is positively related to affective commitment.

Demerouti et al. (2004) stated that if individuals feel distressed when they encounter job demands at a given time, they are also likely to be distressed at a later point unless there are significant changes pertaining to the event which influences their emotional state. The current study accounted for the anxiety and depression factors experienced by flight attendants, by examining their disengagement as related to their emotional state and its influence on their commitment and well-being. In general, the results show that flight attendants have high levels of anxiety and depression. Emotional disengagement was negatively correlated with both organisational commitment and well-being. Flight attendants temporarily inactive in their service roles showed more signs of anxiety and depression than did those who were currently active, as they were confined to their homes or in quarantine, due to the travel restrictions. The findings of this study complement the findings of Nepogodiev et al. (2020) and Spinelli & Pellino (2020), who identified a multitude of psychological stressors causing unexpected anxiety among employees during the COVID-19 outbreak. As the data were collected in March and April 2021 during the COVID-19 pandemic, it can be assumed that the flight attendants experienced depression and anxiety. The findings of this study were aligned with the work of Ammar et al. (2020, 2021), who found that COVID-19 caused significant psychological disorders such as depression, anxiety, stress, and sleep problems, which minimised employees' movements and activities, and reduced interactions with others. Flight attendants as subjects in this research, were prone to fear, stress, anxiety, depression, sleep deprivation, and diminished communication with colleagues and family because of the pandemic restrictions, leading them to disengage emotionally at work.

The third major theoretical contribution this study offers is in filling the gap in the airline literature by introducing employment status as the moderating variable; as suggested by De Cuyper et al. (2008), there is limited empirical research on organisational commitment among temporary employees. As discussed in the literature review, employment status has been widely used as a demographic variable, but rarely as a moderator. This study introduced employment status into

the disengagement-well-being model to examine the direct and indirect effects of disengagement on well-being through organisational commitment. The employment status of flight attendants was categorised into currently active and temporarily inactive. Both categories were employed in the organisation of the flight attendants who completed the survey, with some currently active in their job roles, and others temporarily confined or isolating because of travel restrictions. Avery et al. (2012) stated that employment status differentiates employees quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of the time they spend at work. The current research findings indicate that temporarily inactive flight attendants have a higher level of psychological, physical, emotional, and financial disengagement and negatively affected their well-being. These results are consistent with the work of McKee-Ryan et al. (2005), who stated that employment status had an important influence on employees' psychological and physical well-being. The findings of this study also indicate that temporarily inactive flight attendants perceive the possibility of job loss or layoffs, leading them to disengage at work. A recent study by León-Zarceño et al. (2021) is also aligned with the findings of this study, that home confinement due to COVID-19 leads individuals to experience negative well-being and causes increased depressive symptoms. This study also complements previous research outcomes on confinement leading to high levels of stress and decreased mental health (e.g. Alsalhe et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2020; Jaenes et al., 2020; López-Bueno et al., 2020; Mon-López et al., 2020; Pieh et al., 2020; Rossi et al., 2020).

The nature of an economic crisis brings about uncertainty and instability for businesses, which influences employees through stress. This financial distress related to job instability triggers an extended state of stress, which leads to psychological distress, burnout, and disengagement (Caraballo-Arias et al., 2018; Giorgi et al., 2020; Sigursteinsdottir et al., 2020). In the context of this study, financial insecurity caused by financial distress was identified as a major contributor to psychological stress (see Hjelm et al., 2017). The findings indicate that irrespective of employment status, among flight attendants' organisational commitment and well-being are likely to be affected as an outcome of stress. These results align with the work of Whitman et al. (2014), who found that when individuals are unable to replace depleted resources, they disconnect, to avoid a complete loss of resources. These findings are also consistent with the COR

theory (see Hobfoll, 1989, 2001; Hobfoll & Freedy, 2017), that states that individuals are likely to employ coping mechanisms such as disengaging at work. to avoid further depletion of resources.

Some other interesting findings emerged from the current study, such as that financial disengagement was negative correlated with a temporarily inactive employment status, and positive related to a currently active status. Similarly, being temporarily inactive, was negatively related to organisational commitment. These findings are related to the findings of Sinclair and Cheung (2016), who explored a negative connection between financial insecurity and organisational commitment. However, for currently active flight attendants, there was a positive relationship between financial disengagement and organisational commitment. This finding is supported by Wang et al.'s (2015) research, which found that flight attendants facing financial uncertainty were likely to cope with its effects by employing efforts towards their work, while maintaining the performance level expected by the organisation, to claim themselves as valuable and useful to the organisation.

The findings also indicate that currently active flight attendants exhibited lower well-being compared to those who were temporarily inactive, which is consistent with Kim's (2008) research exploring poorer well-being as result of political, social or economic change. The findings of this study indicate that currently active flight attendants experience more financial disengagement than do temporarily inactive flight attendants, and Schoon's (2007) research suggested that not all individuals are impacted in the same manner due to social change. Hence, this study's findings support Schoon's (2007) results. Currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants exhibited high levels of organisational commitment irrespective of their employment status. These findings were aligned with the research conducted by Armstrong-Stassen (2004), who found that affective commitment was negatively related to strain, causing disengagement before an organisation underwent downsizing, which at a later stage, was also related to strain. In the context of this study, the findings of Armstrong-Stassen (2004) can be explained in two ways; one is that flight attendants that are highly committed have adequate resources to help them cope with change, but depletion in resources can lead to low satisfaction levels. The alternative explanation is that

flight attendants have a sense of identity, which helps them find meaning in their work, mitigating the effects of transition in the short term, but likely to challenge their identity in the longer term, as the organisation changes its procedures and policies.

This study's findings support those of previous researcher's work stating that depletion in resources has a significant impact on employees' turnover intent and affective commitment (e.g. Parry, 2008; Stanton et al., 2010). The findings also resonate with the suggestion by Van Veldhoven et al. (2017), that an "understanding of why, when and for whom job resources are either beneficial or harmful" becomes relevant to a study. It was particularly meaningful to explore the airline industry, specifically the flight attendants, who work for one of the most negatively affected industries in the COVID-19 pandemic.

A further significant contribution to the airline literature, as already mentioned, is the new role of the moderating variable of employment status, which has not previously been explored widely. The categorisation of currently active and temporarily inactive employment within the airline literature was also new; hence, further studies can explore the effectiveness of this new moderating variable in other contexts. This research highly contributes to the airline literature given the Covid-19 circumstances faced by the flight attendants. It further gives a new insight to the disengagement theory by the introduction of financial disengagement factor.

5.4 Practical Implications

Many airline companies are likely to attempt to rescue flight attendants from disengaging at work. The result of this study suggests various approaches which can be implemented to mitigate the effect of disengagement on flight attendants' well-being. This study particularly explored the relationships between psychological disengagement and well-being, physical disengagement and well-being, emotional disengagement and well-being, and financial disengagement and well-being, through organisational commitment. The study explored and tested the disengagement-well-being model for flight attendants. This provided practical implications for airline companies, the immediate supervisors assigned to flight attendants, and other service industries.

The airline industry is considered a sensitive service industry, connecting people across the globe through high-end service deliveries (Yeh, 2014). Service organisations must find different ways to efficiently manage their employees to ensure they display positive attitudes and ethical behaviours while delivering a high quality service (Chan & Wan, 2012). Disengagement experienced by flight attendants in the airline industry is relatively common, due to their long working hours, irregular work schedules, and the industry's sensitivity and vulnerability to travel restrictions. The COVID-19 pandemic caused detrimental consequences for the airline industry in terms of economic losses and sustainability, which made it impossible for the industry to recover rapidly. These economic losses to the aviation sector forced its employees to experience heightened levels of disengagement. Therefore, airline management need to make cautious and well-considered decisions to lessen the negative effects of disengagement on their employees, while implementing other business survival strategies.

Since disengagement is a crucial factor for flight attendants, affecting their productivity and service delivery, it is very important for airline companies to mitigate its effects at various levels, and encourage flight attendants to be actively involved in their roles, leading to diminished disengagement. This study explored different levels of disengagement that affected flight attendants' performance and productivity and reduced their commitment level towards their organisation. Hence, it is very important to understand this phenomenon from the flight attendants' perspective, and the way it should be measured. The extant literature identifies only one measuring instrument for disengagement, i.e., the Unidimensional Scale for Disengagement component of OLBI (Oldenburg burnout inventory)(Demerouti et al., 2001). Using Kahn's (1990) conceptualisation for disengagement, this study identified the relevant factors influencing levels of disengagement, and derived efficient scales for researching this. Alternative scales can be employed by researchers to explore the dimensions involved. For example, the well-being factor can be measured separately in its three categories of affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

The findings of this study suggest that commitment can mutually benefit both the employee and the employer. Since it is now known from this study that

disengagement adversely affects the well-being of flight attendants, and reduces their commitment to the organisation, it is very important for supervisors to identify stressors that trigger disengagement at work and find ways to reduce the existence of those stressors. The findings of this study clearly show that employees use disengagement as a coping mechanism to mitigate the depletion of resources. As a result, flight attendants' organisational commitment is affected, and turnover intent is increased. One of the possible reasons flight attendants employ coping mechanisms could be due to their relationship with their supervisor. Supervisor support plays a crucial role in mitigating the effects of disengagement. Hence, airline management can modify and redesign their structures to make it easier and more accessible for flight attendants to communicate with their supervisors efficiently and freely (Babin & Boles, 1996). The communication channel also needs to be frequently monitored by senior personnel to address issues pertaining to possible conflicts between managers, supervisors, and flight attendants. Sullivan (1993) suggested that when individuals feel that senior management such as supervisors, and managers, as well as family, friends, and colleagues are approachable and accessible for support, they are likely to experience lower levels of burnout and higher levels of commitment.

Airline supervisors assigned to flight attendants should encourage close relationships with their employees to understand the underlying issues they face, especially in times of uncertainty such as during the COVID-19 pandemic, which led to health and employment concerns. Flight attendants need to be assured of the presence of their organisation through supervisor support. Hence, it is essential to have an open communication system between the supervisors and flight attendants to address fears and concerns pertaining to their work and personal lives. Transparency in the flow of information will help mitigate disengagement and turnover intent, and allow employees a deeper relationship with the organisation, and better understandings of the goals and difficulties the organisation faces in times of uncertainty. Understanding and acknowledging the organisation's perspective will help employees plan their career path efficiently and refine the quality of their contribution to business growth.

Another important factor for airline management companies is the work environment. The work environment plays an important role for flight attendants in actively engaging at work and experiencing a level of happiness and contentment with their work. If airline management wants to keep its employees satisfied and actively engaged at work, the work environment needs to be improved. This is possible through redesigning training programmes to help flight attendants cope with stress and challenges at work as well as in their personal lives. Programmes that support positive thinking, goal management, career pathways, team goals, investments, and financial planning, could mitigate the negative effects of uncertainty caused by COVID-19 and individual and organisational factors, and turn these into positive aspects. A healthy working environment for flight attendants means a stable work climate. This involves high employee engagement training and strategies that help employees perceive reduced financial insecurity. These can prevent the loss of a superior and talented workforce. The major impact of financial disengagement experienced by flight attendants during the pandemic provides opportunities to investigate how, and to what extent, employee well-being and organisational functioning are impacted.

Timely engagement surveys employed by airline management can help them understand their employees better, and find means to improve their psychological, physical, emotional, and financial conditions. In these times of uncertainty caused by COVID-19 when every employee fears a job loss or perceives signs of unemployment, a genuine effort from an employer would be enough for employees to experience positive concern for their well-being. It is unlikely that airline companies can fully support their employees financially at such times, but through various human resources practices such as selective staffing for flights (keeping a control on flying hours), regular training with updated safety protocols and procedures, and re-training for flight attendants who have been inactive for a long time before they resume practical operations, and emotional and psychological support through counselling, can all be offered, which ultimately forms a basis of trust between the employers and their employees (Clarke & Hill, 2012). Providing enough resources in any form to flight attendants not only protects them against work strain and depletion of their mental health and physical resources but also mitigates the effects of burnout, and consequently improves their well-being (Gruman & Saks, 2011).

Lastly, it appears that issues arising from the COVID-19 pandemic will not be resolved quickly. Hence, short term measures adopted by airline managements such as unpaid leave, annual leave, and allowances, are likely to have no influence on the situations of flight attendants. The current situation calls for more rigorous planning and strategies such as the pre-selection of schedules, job rotation systems, additional paid leave, work hour adjustments, and rotations on long haul flights by implementing deadhead flights (a strategy that lets flight attendants provide service for departure but not on the return flight). Such strategies could be planned well in advance and monitored for over-bookings, as no availability for seats would provide no room for deadheading staff. This would also allow flight attendants to be retained and employed rather than downsizing the workforce or terminating employees, which are the most commonly implemented strategies. An understanding between superiors and non-management staff could be reached wherein higher executives take a pay reduction voluntarily to keep some of the lower management staff in employment. Airline companies can also communicate with their governments and seek financial aid to keep the airline industry viable, which in the long term will help rebuild the economy when travel resumes. This would also allow employees to perceive their organisation as accommodating and caring in helping them mitigate the negative effects of job insecurity, increase commitment, reduce disengagement, and enhance well-being.

5.5 Limitations and Future Research

This study has some limitations that lead to directions for future research. Firstly, validating the existing measures and the new measure for disengagement with the proposed theoretical model is suggested. Future researchers can use more revised scales depending on the constructs of individual research interests.

Secondly, in this study, Kahn's (1990) conceptualisation for disengagement and the absence of psychological meaningfulness was explored. The aspect of availability to justify the new construct of financial disengagement was also applied. Future researchers can examine and explore the three aspects of disengagement together in the proposed model.

Another limitation of this study was in the choice of outcome variable and mediator. Since disengagement as a dimension that is positively linked to turnover intention, future researchers can employ the turnover intent of flight attendants as an outcome variable. Variables such as job insecurity and job satisfaction of flight attendants can be used as future mediators in the proposed model. In other models, flight attendants' disengagement can be employed as a mediator in the relationship between satisfaction and turnover intent.

In this study, employment status of flight attendants was introduced as a moderator in the proposed model, while employment status was categorised into only two groups: currently active and temporarily inactive flight attendants. Future researchers can also examine flight attendants who were terminated, as well as those who resigned, to better understand the concept of disengagement and its outcome variables. As these categories of flight attendants have experienced actual disengagement and its consequences, it is to execute an in-depth investigation of the phenomenon of disengagement of flight attendants.

Organisational commitment was used as a mediator in the proposed model. The scale for organisational commitment encompassed items constituting the affective, normative, and continuance states of commitment. Future researchers can explore these aspects of commitment separately to examine their effects on the well-being of flight attendants. Similarly, the well-being aspect was generalised in this research and considered as overall well-being. Future researchers can investigate aspects of well-being related to work and aspects that related to personal lives. This will allow a better insight into the well-being factor of flight attendants.

This study employed a quantitative approach, which can produce reliable results with factual aspects that can be generalised to a wider population (see Nardi, 2015). Future researchers could employ a mixed-method approach using the proposed model to gain insights into the real issues flight attendants face on a regular basis, that leads to disengagement. Diary techniques could also be implemented to ensure an in-depth evaluation of the life of flight attendants. Future researchers could also explore other industries using the proposed model to compare the results to justify whether the disengagement factor varies across other sectors and how it influences organisational commitment elsewhere.

Furthermore, new research can also include factors that will improve the well-being of flight attendants and the work environment.

Another significant limitation of this study lies in the uniqueness of the data. The data were collected during the COVID-19 pandemic. Future researchers can use timely surveys to investigate disengagement both during and after the COVID-19 pandemic. This will allow researchers to analyse their findings more accurately and decide on the level of difficulty created due to uncertainty for employees.

As this study explored disengagement from the employees' perspective, future researchers could explore the disengagement factor from the flight attendant supervisor's perspective also. This would allow the researchers to view the responses of both flight attendants and supervisors and compare the effects of disengagement on well-being and organisational commitment.

Future researchers could also use gender as a moderating variable to examine the disengagement levels between male and female flight attendants. Using a larger sample size, future researchers can broadly increase the scope of the research. This will also help determine the reliability of results.

This study was conducted on flight attendants of different nationalities employed in a Middle Eastern airline. Future researchers can employ the proposed model on domestic airline flight attendants or flight attendants from Western countries. Employing such participants across the globe will help generalise the findings of the research by comparing them with the findings from different samples of flight attendants.

Lastly, the respondents for this study were recruited through the researcher's personal network, using a snowballing technique to provide a large sample size. The study was conducted at a single location and with a single airline company. This limits the generalisability of the research results. Future researchers can explore responses from multiple airlines in different locations at different times.

5.6 Conclusion

This study has established a strong base for understanding the disengagement experienced by flight attendants and how it influences their commitment level to

the organisation. The researcher focused on the disengagement factor affecting the well-being of flight attendants. This revealed the aspects of psychological meaningfulness such as psychological, physical, and emotional energies. This allows future researchers to have a strong foundation for future studies on disengagement. Airline management can focus on mitigating the effects of disengagement by identifying the stressors early on before these stressors trigger disengagement among flight attendants. The importance of employment status was also emphasised in the study, particularly how it can trigger disengagement among flight attendants and affect their commitment and well-being. The findings of this study will help airline companies keep their flight attendants and other employees committed to the organisation by demonstrating behaviours that assure flight attendants that their organisation cares about their well-being. As there may be many factors involved in influencing disengagement and commitment of flight attendants, this study will help future researchers explore these aspects with revised variables that influence the afore-mentioned constructs and their effects on well-being.

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Appendices

Appendix A: 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

22 March 2021

Chloe Kim
Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear Chloe

Re Ethics Application: **21/39 The effects of detachment on flight attendants' well-being and turnover intentions: The mediating role of job insecurity and the moderating role of gender**

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 22 March 2024.

Non-Standard Conditions of Approval

1. Update the survey question asking for a participant's age into five year (or more) age bands.
2. Inclusion of the AUT logo on the advertisement to be used for social media.

Non-standard conditions must be completed before commencing your study. Non-standard conditions do not need to be submitted to or reviewed by AUTEC before commencing your study.

Standard Conditions of Approval

1. The research is to be undertaken in accordance with the [Auckland University of Technology Code of Conduct for Research](#) and as approved by AUTEC in this application.
2. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using the EA2 form.
3. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using the EA3 form.
4. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form.
5. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
6. 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.
7. 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 and that all the dates on the documents are updated.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. You are responsible for obtaining management approval for access for your research from any institution or organisation at which your research is being conducted and you need to meet all ethical, legal, public health, and locality obligations or requirements for the jurisdictions in which the research is being undertaken.

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

For any enquiries please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz. The forms mentioned above are available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics>

(This is a computer-generated letter for which no signature is required)

The AUTEC Secretariat
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: ykp7316@autuni.ac.nz; BeomCheol (Peter) Kim

Appendix B: Tools

B1 Participant Information Sheet



Participant Information Sheet

2 March 2021

Project Title

The effects of detachment on flight attendants' well-being & turnover intention: The mediating role of job insecurity and the moderating role of gender.

An Invitation

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in this research that examines different aspects of flight attendants' employment. This research aims to better understand the overall well-being of flight attendants in the current scenario. We also examine the role job insecurity plays during this pandemic on your current employment as well as in your personal life. This research will be conducted by Myron Almeida, a student from Auckland University of Technology in Auckland, New Zealand currently pursuing a Masters' Degree in International Hospitality Management. This research topic is of great interest to the researcher which could benefit both the participant as well as the researcher. Your participation is voluntary. At any stage if you feel any discomfort or issues pertaining the survey, you can withdraw from the survey and your responses will not be registered.

What is the purpose of this research?

The purpose of this research is to understand the sense of detachment felt by flight attendants in their current employment and its effects on their well-being. In general, detachment is defined as a state of being distant or disconnected. People experience a 'sense of detachment' when they are apart or separated from their surroundings. In work context, detachment refers to as a 'sense of being away from work situation'. In other words, 'switching off from work related activities' or 'taking a break from thinking about work related issues.' The findings of this research may be used for academic publications and presentations.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You may have received an email or a text with a link to this survey from a colleague or a friend as you are a part of the aviation industry and currently employed as a flight attendant. This research aims to examine the different aspects of your employment during this current on-going pandemic.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

Your participation in this research is voluntary (it is your choice) and whether or not you choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. You can withdraw from the study at any point until your responses have been submitted, however once your anonymous responses have been submitted your data cannot be identified or withdrawn.

What will happen in this research?

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire asking you about different aspects of your work and your responses will depict your current work-related scenario and views.

What are the discomforts and risks?

You should not experience any discomfort or embarrassment by participating. You could withdraw from the study anytime if you feel so.

What are the benefits?

For the primary researcher, the potential benefits are getting a Masters' Degree by completing this research. Also, it provides an opportunity for the primary researcher to apply knowledge and gain a comprehensive understanding of the chosen topic. For the wider community such as the academic field, this research aims to add to the literature on the effects of different detachments felt by flight attendants and how it influences their well-being and turnover intention. In addition, this research will help us understand the mediating role of job insecurity in the current scenario. This will also help in analysing the role of gender on job insecurity, detachment, well-being, and turnover intention which has not been investigated in the current literature. This research could also help service organizations to understand the well-being of their employees, reduce turnover intention, provide rational job

security to their employees, update potential measures for business survival in unprecedented times such as economic crisis and future pandemics.

How will my privacy be protected?

This is an online survey, in which participant's responses are confidential and anonymous, participation in this study is entirely voluntary.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The only cost involved in this research as a form of participation is your valuable time. It will take you approximately 5 minutes to complete the survey.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

You are invited to consider and respond to this invitation within one month.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Chloe Kim, chloe.kim@aut.ac.nz

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEC, ethics@aut.ac.nz, (+649) 921 9999 ext 6038.

Researcher Contact Details:

Primary researcher: Myron Almeida, ykp7316@autuni.ac.nz

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Project supervisor: Chloe Kim, chloe.kim@aut.ac.nz

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on *type the date final ethics approval was granted*, AUTEC Reference number *type the reference number*.

B2 Survey Questions

Start of Block: 1

Dear Participant,

My name is Myron Almeida. I am pursuing my Master's Degree in International Hospitality Management from AUT university in Auckland, New Zealand. As part of my curriculum, I am undertaking research on well-being of flight attendants. This survey takes around 5 minutes to complete. By completing this survey, you are giving consent to be part of the study. The information sheet provided on the following page will give you more details.



Participant Information Sheet

2 March 2021

Project Title

The effects of detachment on flight attendants' well-being & turnover intention: The mediating role of job insecurity and the moderating role of gender.

An Invitation

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in this research that examines different aspects of flight attendants' employment. This research aims to better understand the overall well-being of flight attendants in the current scenario. We also examine the role job insecurity plays during this pandemic on your current employment as well as in your personal life. This research will be conducted by Myron Almeida, a student from Auckland University of Technology in Auckland, New Zealand currently pursuing a Masters' Degree in International Hospitality Management. This research topic is of great interest to the researcher which could benefit both the participant as well as the researcher. Your participation is voluntary. At any stage if you feel any discomfort or issues pertaining the survey, you can withdraw from the survey and your responses will not be registered.

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Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTECH, ethics@aut.ac.nz, (1 619) 921 9999 ext 6038.

Researcher Contact Details:
Primary researcher: Myron Almeida, ykp7316@autuni.ac.nz

Project Supervisor Contact Details:
Project supervisor: Chloe Kim, chloe.kim@aut.ac.nz

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on *type the date* final ethics approval was granted, AUTECH Reference number *type the reference number*.

Employment Status

- Currently Active (1)
- Temporarily Inactive (2)

I work brings me a sense of satisfaction.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I feel content with the way my organisation treats its employees.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I believe that my employer cares about my well-being.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither agree nor disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I do not feel excessively pressured at work to meet targets.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

Outside of work hours, I find myself positively thinking about work.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I am asked to do an excessive amount of work.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

My job is very hectic.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I do have conflicting issues to the demands that (others) make on the job.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

My job requires lots of physical effort.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I am often required to work for a longer period of time.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

After work, I do not physically distance myself from work.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

After work, I do not shake off the physical exertion from work.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

Over the last few weeks, how often have you been bothered by these problems?

1. Feeling nervous, anxious or on edge.

- Not at all (1)
- A few days (2)
- Several days (3)
- More than half the days (4)
- Nearly every day (5)

2. Not being able to stop or control worrying.

- Not at all (1)
- A few days (2)
- Several days (3)
- More than half the days (4)
- Nearly every day (5)

3. Little interest or pleasure in doing things.

- Not at all (1)
- A few days (2)
- Several days (3)
- More than half the days (4)
- Nearly every day (5)

4. Feeling down, depressed, or hopeless.

- Not at all (1)
- A few days (2)
- Several days (3)
- More than half the days (4)
- Nearly every day (5)

I am not satisfied with my present financial situation.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I am not satisfied with the amount of money that I am saving & investing for retirement.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I feel I am not being paid a fair amount for the work I do.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I do not feel satisfied with the chances for salary increases.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

I do not think that I could become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

There would be significant changes in my life if I decided to leave my organization now.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not consider it.

- Strongly disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither disagree nor agree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly agree (5)

Start of Block: Demographic Questions

Gender

- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Age in years (e.g. 25)

Marital Status

- Single (1)
- Married (2)
- Married (with children) (3)
- Single Parent (4)
- Separated (5)
- Widowed (6)

Education

- High school Diploma (1)
- Associate Degree (2)
- Bachelor's Degree (3)
- Graduate Degree (Master's & PhD) (4)

How long have you been employed in the current organization in months (e.g., 1 year = 12 months, Enter 12 / 3 years = 36 months, Enter 36)

Job Position

- Supervisory (1)
- Non-supervisory (2)

Family Income Type

- Single Income Family (1)
- Double Income Families (2)
- Multiple Income Families (3)

Cabin Class of Service

- Economy (1)
- Business (2)
- First Class (3)

End of Survey