

The direct and indirect influences of workplace social inclusion and work  
engagement on organisational citizenship behaviour

(Master Thesis)

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By Alisha Murdoch

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Principal Supervisor: Dr. Sarah Wright  
Associate Supervisor: Dr. Sanna Malinen

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To my family who always believed in me, thank you.

## Abstract

The value of healthy organisations, which acknowledge the merit of human capital, has long been shown to promote effective organisational functioning. Behaviours which promote effective organisational functioning are said to lie within an employee's social, physical and emotional resources. Such behaviours are depicted in this research through workplace social inclusion, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Consequently, this research investigates the influence of workplace social inclusion on OCB with analysis on the mediating effects of work engagement and the predictive effects of demographics. Hypotheses were tested through application of a simple mediation model in accordance with Hayes Process Analysis (Hayes, 2013), alongside Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the demographic factors. Using an online survey, 109 participants' self-reported their level of workplace social inclusion, work engagement and OCB through previously validated measures. The findings of this research were supportive of the simple mediation model. The strongest relationship was demonstrated between workplace social inclusion and work engagement. Further, once indirect relationships were considered, it was found that work engagement, a construct commonly associated with positive individual behaviour outcomes, mediated the relationship between workplace social inclusion and OCB. One of the unique contributions of this research lies in the assertion that while work engagement has been previously demonstrated as a construct closely associated with positive organisational and individual behaviours, the social context of its facilitation (through workplace social inclusion) has not been considered in prior literature to date. The findings of the present research are discussed in terms of their theoretical and practical value for organisations and individual behaviour.

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## CHAPTER 1

### 1. INTRODUCTION

In modern organisations harnessing employee performance is viewed as pertinent to organisational success. Understanding the factors that contribute to employee performance is thus valuable for managers and practitioners alike. Engaged employees are widely perceived as a key ingredient for a successful workforce (Erickson, 2005). When employees are engaged, they immerse themselves fully in their role by investing physically, cognitively and emotionally in given tasks (Kahn, 1990). Consequently, there has been a considerable amount of attention placed on the factors that contribute and result from its presence in organisations. Core to this research, are the personal resources such as working relationships and inclusion that facilitate work engagement within organisations (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2009). Specifically, workplace social inclusion, defined as the degree to which individuals feel part of the social structure of the organisation (Randel & Ranft, 2007), is a resource represented by individuals perceptions of social ties within the organisation (Pearce & Randel, 2004). This positive individual resource is considered beneficial at both the organisational and individual level (Mehra, Kilduff & Brass, 2001; Pearce & Randel, 2004). For example, workplace social inclusion has been linked to organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) where individuals who receive benefits from their organisation through inclusion seek to benefit the organisation through the performance of OCB (Shirazi & Sharifirad, 2013). With the basis of advantage for many organisations shifting to resources and capabilities based on human and social capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Pfeffer, 1994), it is increasingly important to understand factors that result from its presence in the workplace. Effectively harnessed, this resource is hypothesised to contribute greatly to positive individual behaviour as is displayed through OCB and work engagement. This thesis uniquely contributes to the understanding of positive organisational behaviour by examining the effects of workplace social inclusion on work engagement and OCB.

An introduction to the intended area of research is provided through the proposed conceptual framework. Following this, a literature review on relevant variables and factors are discussed for their contribution to this study. This project aims to build on the workplace social

inclusion literature by investigating the influence of work engagement on the relationship between workplace social inclusion and OCB.

### 1.1. Research Problem

Research on workplace social inclusion, work engagement and OCB is valuable to society, researchers and practitioners alike. Majority of prior research in these areas has focused attention on a broad-spectrum of benefits, for example, the literature on work engagement has demonstrated several organisational and individual level outcomes including performance (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005), wellbeing (Schaufeli, Taris & Van Rhenen, 2008), retention (Agarwal, Datta, Blake-Beard & Bhargava, 2012), and social relationships (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008), however failed to develop a thorough understanding of how such positive organisational behaviours are actioned and function in practice. Consequently, this research will contribute to our understanding of positive organisational behaviours such as workplace social inclusion, by measuring factors that may be relevant for understanding why and how it is occurring. To date, there has been no published research that incorporates both work engagement, as a positive motivational construct, and workplace social inclusion. By keeping these two related, but unique constructs separate, research has neglected how the psychology of individuals (i.e. acknowledging work engagement as a motivational concept) (Bakker & Leiter, 2010), interrelates with social relationships within organisations (Randel & Ranft, 2007).

### 1.2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between workplace social inclusion, work engagement and OCB consequently uncovering the importance of experiencing workplace social inclusion for individual level outcomes. Human Resource specialists can utilise the research by developing strategies to offer important alternatives to the use of rewards and other social methods to motivate behaviour (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999). This research intends to understand behaviours that foster positive organisational outcomes, such as OCB and engagement among employees. To date, the literature highlights a limited understanding on how workplace social inclusion implicates key behavioural outcomes such as OCB and further how this relationship takes place. The knowledge on

workplace social inclusion needs to be expanded to take into account the changing landscape of work and careers. As an example, research has indicated that loyalty and commitment to organisations are grounded more on social and relational than economic bases (McDonald & Makin, 2000). For these reasons, this research will contribute to the body of knowledge by understanding how behavioural variables (social inclusion and work engagement) affect (both directly and indirect) individual level outcomes. Research suggests work engagement represents an important resource for individuals and organisations alike (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009). For individuals, it represents opportunities for secure employment reflected through higher levels of productivity (Hakanen & Roodt, 2010). In addition, demonstrating higher levels of energy, dedication and efficiency is said to create opportunities for growth whilst supporting a rewarding and self-motivated career (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009). From an organisational perspective, engagement represents a rewarding opportunity for higher levels of productivity (Shuck & Wollard, 2010), and a more rewarding employment experience (Salanova et al., 2005). For example, when individual's feel vigorous, happy and involved in the workplace (i.e. the characteristics of work engagement), they may experience more positive perceptions of their working environment pertaining to a more rewarding work experience (Salanova et al., 2005) While previous research has demonstrated positive organisational behaviours such as engagement, participation and OCB can have positive effects on employee's satisfaction and productivity levels. However, the psychological rationale behind these behaviours has not fully been explored empirically (for an exception see Shirazi & Sharifirad, 2013). Consequently, the limited literature available on the concept of workplace social inclusion provides a unique opportunity to establish the value of its understanding and application to both the academic and practitioner worlds as a positive organisational behaviour.

## CHAPTER 2

### 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review provides an overview of the various perspectives offered on work engagement, workplace social inclusion and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). It begins with a definition of OCB followed by an examination of all relevant organisational citizenship literature. The second section of this literature review will explore the research on work engagement. A definition is provided alongside an overview of the changing nature of conceptualising work engagement. This chapter concludes with an overview of the literature on workplace social inclusion. Within this final section, workplace social inclusion is depicted from its conceptual development through to modern conceptualisations of its use and value in organisations. The social and psychological environment these variables share has been said to positively direct human resource strengths and psychological capabilities that can be quantified and effectively directed toward improved organisational performance (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Thus, collectively, these behaviours contribute to effective organisational functioning through their shared values as positive organisational behaviours.

#### 2.1. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

According to Organ (1988), OCB is defined as discretionary individual behaviour, not mandated or recognised by the formal rewards system (Sparrow, Chadrakumara & Perera, 2010). The concept of OCB promotes effective organisational functioning and has been linked to several key organisational and individual level outcomes such as performance, retention and process efficiency (Banhwa, Chipunza & Chamisa, 2014). OCB derives its practical value from the premise that it represents contributions that do not adhere to formal role obligations (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006). Since its inception, research on OCB has surged in interest and debate (Tsai & Wu, 2010). Across this body of work, two research streams have developed referred to as OCB-I and OCB-O. The first stream (OCB-I), is dedicated to establishing the relationship between OCB and individual level outcomes such as job satisfaction. The second stream (OCB-O) has focused on the relationship between OCB and organisational level outcomes such as organisational performance (Bergeron, 2007). The distinction between these two lies within the intended beneficiary of the behaviour (Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller & Johnson, 2009). For example, OCBs targeted at individuals (OCB-I)

vs. OCBs targeted at organisations (OCB-O) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). From this perspective, it is said that employee behaviour falls under one of two categories and that the two categories likely have alternative antecedents (Williams & Anderson, 1991). It can be said that behaviours reflecting altruism, helping and cooperation are enacted to benefit other people in some way (Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller & Johnson, 2009). In contrast, behaviours such as conscientiousness and civic virtue are aimed at benefiting the whole organisation (Ilies et al., 2009). More notably though, measures of OCB often reflect a combination of both facets as is illustrated through Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter's (1990) measure of OCB which acknowledges 5 dimensions (courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship, altruism and conscientiousness) utilised in this study.

### 2.1.1. Historical Overview

The notion of OCB can be traced back as far as Barnard (1938), who theorised that such behaviours are essential for individual role performance and organisational goal attainment. These consisted of the decision to join and remain in the organisation, performing on the job in a dependable manner, and the presence of innovation and spontaneity beyond prescribed role requirements (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006). Though, the literature highlights that it was the work of Katz and Kahn (1978) who shaped the foundation for research in OCB by identifying three types of effective behaviour for organisations successful functioning: (1) civic virtue suggests that employees should responsibly partake in the organisation's political life; (2) Sportsmanship is the second factor which suggests that employees should hold positive attitudes and resist from complaining; (3) Lastly, courtesy refers to mutual respect between employees at all times. Since its inception, a distinction was developed between two dimensions of employee behaviour: (1) general compliance for example, doing what is in your contractual agreement and, (2) altruism for example, going beyond expectations (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Organ (1998) later developed a five dimensional model of OCB which includes altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Organ's theoretical contributions suggested that OCB should be considered an important component of performance management due to its unique and innovative value. Organ's perspective was built upon the pioneering research of Katz and Kahn (1978) who framed OCB as being influential toward organisational outcomes. These factors have long been considered crucial to effective organisational functioning and

contribute to the surge of interest in the concept (Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993; Bester, Stander & Van Zyl, 2015).

Over the past two decades, the surge of interest in OCB has expanded from the field of organisational behaviour to several other related disciplines, including human resource management (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Murphy & Shiarella, 1997), marketing (e.g., Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), international management (e.g., Kim, Lee & Hwang, 2008), military psychology (e.g., Taşdan & Yılmaz, 2008), and leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1990). From this perspective, its value is defined in the literature as universal (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006). This increase in interest was illustrated by almost a ten-fold increase where only 13 papers were published on OCB during the six-year period from 1983 to 1988, to more than 122 publications during the comparable six-year period from 1993 to 1998. Notwithstanding the depth of OCBs value in different disciplines, arguably the most dominant contribution to research on OCB was performed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) who examined over 200 published articles during 1983 and 1989, consequently establishing an historical overview of antecedents and consequences of OCB within a management framework.

While the surge of research and theory has undoubtedly been gratifying to those interested in the value of OCB, it has also resulted in some unfortunate consequences. For example, Van Dyne, Cummings and Park (1995) observed that the majority of the empirical literature on OCB has focused narrowly on what Schwab (1980) refers to as substantive validity rather than construct validity. Consequently, the literature has established a plethora of research on the relationship between OCB and other constructs but in the process has failed to demonstrate a clear understanding of the nature of OCB itself. Adding to the above, the growth in research on OCB and similarly related constructs such as extra-role behaviour and contextual performance has resulted in overlap and confusion of the three related but separate constructs (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Borman and Motowidlo (1997) highlight while these constructs share commonalities (i.e. their recognition of extra discretionary effort), their differences (such as the fact that contextual performance can be rewarded, unlike OCB) should be acknowledged. These conceptual issues have been consistent since OCBs inception and in part, this has been attributed to the fact there is no such thing as ‘the theory of OCB’ (Koster & Sanders, 2006; Stoner, Perrewé & Munyon, 2011). Despite these critiques, the value of OCB has shown to be an important component of job performance because such

behaviours represent spontaneous and innovative contributions that are instrumental for effective organisational functioning (Hetty Van Emmerik & Jawahar, 2005).

### 2.1.2. The Value of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

According to Organ (1988), OCB is an important factor that can contribute to the survival of an organisation. As a result, it is crucial to understand the variables that influence and positively assist in creating this favourable behaviour. The willingness of employees to exert effort beyond formal role obligations has long been considered an essential component to effective organisational functioning and performance (Jahangir, Akbar & Haq, 2004). This notion can be dated back to Barnard (1938) who said that the willingness of individuals to contribute cooperative efforts to the organisation was an invaluable tool to effective organisational goal attainment. With the work of Katz and Kahn (1966), the argument was extended to hypothesise that the incentives that motivate such spontaneity differ from those that motivate individual task proficiency. As a result of these insights, several positive work behaviour constructs were developed promoting subsequent research in to OCB (Jahangir et al., 2004). Walz (1996) noted that OCB represents a set of desirable set of organisational behaviours, which pertain to a multitude of positive organisational individual and team level outcomes (Chen, Lam, Naumann & Schaubroeck, 2005). To date, the literature fails to provide a conceptual framework for how exactly this occurs.

Because OCB refers to contributions to organisational outcomes that are neither elicited by a contractual guarantee of compensation nor mandated by individual role requirements, challenges are posed to narrowly defined models driven by self-interest (Eskew, 1993). In addition, the discretionary component of OCB means that at times it may occur even to the detriment of more measureable task performance productivity (Davidson, Lin, & Buyens, 2013), making it challenging to account for it in organisations where such behaviours often establish normative role expectations (Becton, Giles & Schraeder, 2008). Despite such challenges, the value of OCB is frequently cited as a set of desirable organisational behaviours, which demonstrate multi-dimensional relationships with advantageous organisational outcomes (Jahangir et al., 2004; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Organ, 2006).

### 2.1.3. Measuring Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The logic behind OCBs value can better be understood from the way it has been measured and defined. Organ (1988) established OCB to have five dimensions – altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. Altruism is demonstrated by behaviour that is directly related to assisting individuals in close proximity (e.g. helping individuals who have been absent). Courtesy refers to assisting in a manner that prevents issues with others (e.g. considering the impact of individual actions on co-workers). The third dimension called civic virtue which refers to a constructive involvement in the systems and practices held within the organisation (e.g. attending meetings that are not mandatory). Sportsmanship describes individuals toleration of the inevitable inconveniences that arise in organisations (e.g. focusing on what is right rather than what is wrong). Lastly, conscientiousness describes individual behaviour that goes beyond general employee compliance to include above normative role expectations (e.g. obeying company rules and regulations even when no one is watching). Collectively, these factors comprise the essence of OCB in its varying forms.

## 2.2. Work Engagement

In more recent years work engagement has gained increasing attention in both the applied and academic fields (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011; Bakker et al., 2008). Several definitions of work engagement are prevalent in the literature to date. Conceptualisations range from proactive personality to role development (Macey & Schneider, 2008). In essence, work engagement involves a strong psychological connection to work tasks that entail a significant investment of one's physical, cognitive and emotional resources (Christian, Garaza & Slaughter, 2011). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) depict engaged employees as having an energetic and effective connection with their work as opposed to a momentary and specific state. The most accepted conceptualisation of work engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind. It is characterised by vigor, absorption and dedication (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002).

Of the dimensions of work engagement, vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, willingness to engage in high levels of effort in given tasks, and persistence in challenging work related situations (Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova &

Bakker, 2002). Consequently, an employee who experiences great vigor while at work will likely be highly motivated to accomplish given tasks and also display an uncanny ability to persist through challenging situations (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli, 2012). The second dimension known as absorption refers to a state of total concentration and immersion in given tasks. It is frequently depicted by time passing quickly (Schaufeli et al., 2002). When one is absorbed in work it is said one may have difficulty detaching oneself from the given task (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006). The third dimension of work engagement, known as dedication, is characterised by a strong psychological connection to one's work, combined with a sense of significance, inspiration, pride and challenge (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Under this definition, work engagement is fundamentally a motivational construct represented by the allocation of personal resources toward the requirements of a given job (Christian et al., 2011; Simpson, 2009).

### 2.2.1. Conceptualisations of Engagement

It is generally acknowledged that Kahn (1990) presented the first academic paper on employee engagement. Since then, most existing measures have been criticised for not fully reflecting Kahn's (1990) conceptualisation as the degree to which individuals invest their physical, cognitive and emotional energies into their role performance (Newman & Harrison, 2008). Kahn's work served as the introductory standard for employee engagement and disengagement which was conceptualised through a qualitative study using grounded theory (Kahn, 1990). Undoubtedly, employee engagement has attracted a great deal of academic attention in recent years, most notably within the psychology field, which Guest (2014) suggests consequently that its effectiveness in organisations is largely a success.

Following the work of Kahn (1990), Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) conducted a second approach theorising engagement as the positive antithesis to burnout. The assumption was made that anyone who was not experiencing burnout must be engaged. This notion pertains to the challenges posed by narrowly defined models of engagement, when in reality the scale has far more grey matter (Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010). Schaufeli et al. (2002) took a different approach when testing the Maslach et al. (2001) framework. Here, engagement is defined as a "positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (p. 74). Vigor refers to high levels of energy and a willingness to invest in tasks despite presenting challenges. Dedication is

characterised by strong involvement in one's work, accompanied by feelings of satisfaction, pride and inspiration. Lastly, absorption is depicted by a pleasant state of immersion in given tasks (Maslach et al., 2001). Further to their conceptualisation of engagement, Schaufeli et al. (2002) renamed the “state of engagement” (Kahn, 1990) to “work engagement”. For the purpose of this research, Schaufeli and colleagues (2002) definition is the chosen interpretation due to its consistent reliability and validity determined in the literature.

The third distinct contribution to the research on engagement was conceptualised by Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002). Their practitioner approach to employee engagement is one of the most widely cited pieces of literature on employee engagement to date (Shuck, 2010). Their research analysed the relationship between business unit level employee engagement-satisfaction and organisational outcomes (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Consequently, this research was a catalyst for the surge of interest in the concept of employee engagement due to its positive link between engagement and profit. While the significance of such an association is grand, some researchers question the quality of evidence that engagement pays off (Guest, 2014). For example, while this outcome may be convincing to managers in the practitioner context, it has not generally been subject to academic scrutiny and critical analysis (Guest, 2014). Despite this, the results of Harter et al.'s (2002) research opened the door for several other practitioner researchers such as the Corporate Leadership Council (2004) who, like several others, disseminated consulting literature on employee engagement aimed at consulting products (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). However, it is important to acknowledge that their practitioner orientated approach resulted in little consensus of conceptualisation or definition which consequently posed challenges to its validation (Macey & Schneider, 2008). This was illustrated by Macey and Schneider (2008) who suggested that the plethora of measures within the practitioner context generate little consensus over their effectiveness. Consequently, this makes it difficult to establish whether the difference in outcome is associated with the quality measure or rather the underlying theory on which the measure is grounded (Guest, 2014).

The fourth and final approach to employee engagement emerged from Saks (2006). Saks's contributions to employee engagement represent the first academic research to specifically conceptualise and test antecedents and consequences of employee engagement (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Prior research in engagement had been limited to the practitioner community and consequently failed to adequately address a multidimensional perspective on employee

engagement (Shuck, 2010). Saks's (2006) theory of employee engagement developed through a social exchange model was the first academic research to effectively differentiate job engagement from organisation engagement (Wilson, 2009). From this perspective, engagement was defined as "a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components . . . associated with individual role performance" (p. 602). This definition uniquely contributed to previous research conducted by suggesting that employee engagement was developed from cognitive (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001), behavioural and emotional components (Harter et al., 2002) and further extended current conceptualisations of the topic by developing a three-component model (Shuck, 2010). Results of the survey demonstrated that the psychological conditions initially identified by Kahn (1990; 1992) which lead to organisation and job engagement, alongside the implications, are different (Wilson, 2009). A positive relationship was identified between the antecedent variables of job characteristics, procedural justice and perceived organisational support (Shuck, 2010). This research was pivotal to the progression of knowledge in engagement as it was the first to establish that engagement could be experienced emotionally and cognitively and manifested behaviourally (Shuck, 2010).

### 2.2.2. Toward a Definition of Employee Engagement

Due to the connection work engagement has to psychological constructs; there has been a burgeoning interest in the positive psychology field (Christian et al., 2011). Broadly speaking, positive psychology refers to the scientific study of optimal human functioning aiming to foster an environment that enables individuals and organisations to prosper (Schaufeli, 2013). This connection has been said to take place through the mental wellness that work engagement creates as a positive organisational behaviour (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Evidently, work engagement fits into this novel perspective (Schaufeli, 2013). However, this, among other factors, has made defining engagement somewhat problematic (Macleod and Clarke, 2009). For example, Macey and Schneider (2008) suggest work engagement has become an umbrella term for whatever one wants it to be. This literature supports this perspective where several aspects of engagement are identified, including 'work engagement', 'employee engagement', 'job engagement', 'personal engagement' and just simply 'engagement', as has been demonstrated above, each adding traction to the argument that work engagement and organisational engagement seem to exist in two similar but

different constructs, that is practitioner and academia (Truss, Alfes, Delbridge, Shantz & Soane, 2013). For example, Macleod and Clarke (2009) found upwards of 50 different constructs of engagement. Consequently, there has been confusion as to whether engagement is conceptually or empirically different from other constructs. For example, Macey and Schneider (2008) highlight that “the relationships among potential antecedents and consequences of engagement...have not been rigorously conceptualized, much less studied” (p. 3–4) (e.g., Dalal, Brummel, Wee & Thomas, 2008; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Furthermore, some researchers noted consequently they are ambivalent about the value of engagement over other constructs (Christian et al., 2011). As demonstrated by Newman and Harrison (2008), from this perspective work engagement adds nothing beyond the higher order overall job attitude which can be understood as the behavioural provisional of time and energy in to ones work. The literature suggests that popularity of engagement in the practitioner community alongside the emergence of the concept in the academic community inevitably led to different interpretations on the concept (Shuck, 2010).

### 2.2.3. Critiquing the Measure of Work Engagement

Perhaps the reason that engagement gathers such a following lies in its dual promise of enhancing employee well-being whilst optimising organisational performance (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008). However, a distinctive feature prevalent in the literature is that work engagement and organisational engagement seem to exist in two similar but different constructs, those of industry practice and academic research (Guest, 2014). In an environment where evidence-based research is increasingly advocated for its contributions to theoretical developments in literature and practice (Rousseau, 2012), it is surprising as Guest (2014) notes, that a large body of literature has failed to empirically link academic research to organisational thinking and practice. This gap in research could in part be explainable given the large majority of research in engagement has been devoted to grounded theories of burnout and employee well-being (e.g., Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

The practitioner approach to employee engagement is concerned with the practical relevance of its application such as improved employee retention, higher productivity levels and quantifiable outcomes (Wefald & Downey, 2009). While this approach is valuable in its own right, it had the unfortunate consequence of causing an overlap with other constructs in the

academic community such as job satisfaction (Saks, 2006). Furthermore, little validation or reliability estimate data is available among practitioner measures (Vance, 2006). From an academic perspective, the approach has been focused on defining and validating the psychological construct with several definitions prevalent in the literature (Saks, 2006). Furthermore, the academic approach to employee engagement is said to be related to but distinct from other constructs in organisational behaviour such as OCB (Saks, 2006).

From an industry practitioner perspective, the potential for employee engagement to raise levels of corporate performance has been illustrated by policy makers and governments alike, and has led the UK, for example to the development of ‘Engage for Success’ ([www.engageforsuccess.org](http://www.engageforsuccess.org)) (Truss et al., 2013). The basic premise of the initiative was a voluntary movement led by representatives from government, practitioners, trade unions, alongside consultants and academics, aiming to provide employers with free tools and guidance on how to increase work engagement (Truss et al., 2013). The development of this initiative acknowledges the contribution that a highly engaged workforce permits, that is, engaged individuals will perform better than disengaged, and furthermore enjoy higher levels of well-being, thus ultimately helping to strengthen organisational performance (Macleod & Clarke, 2009)

#### 2.2.4. Measuring Work Engagement

The most popular theory and measure of work engagement in the literature is the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli, et al., 2002). From this perspective, work engagement is conceptualised as a positive, fulfilling state at work, that is defined by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Alarcon & Lyons, 2011). Vigour represents the level of energy exhibited such as persisting in challenging working situations (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Vigour in the workforce leads to an increase in dedication that the employee invests in their working environment (Alarcon & Lyons, 2011). Dedication represents the second facet of the model and is exemplified by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, pride and inspiration (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Lastly, absorption is characterised by intense concentration and focus in one's work. In short, engaged employees display high levels of energy and are enthusiastic about their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). This measure has been empirically and conceptually measured with developed consistent results over time (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

### 2.2.5. Human Resource Management and Work Engagement

While the psychology field has been researching engagement for the last 20 years, it is only recently that the human resource management (HRM) scholars turned their attention to the interest in engagement for its application to employee motivation and organisational performance (Truss et al., 2013). A growing body of literature in the HRM field supports the relationship between work engagement and key organisational outcomes, including those which are performance based (Harter et al., 2002; Laschinger & Finegan, 2005; Laschinger & Leiter, 2006; Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Some researchers have illustrated the popularity and contributions of work engagement by arguing that it is important to consider the effects of HRM policies and practice on employee-level outcome variables. These variables such as work engagement and OCB are said to be more proximal indicators and should be considered an intermediary outcome in the HRM-performance relationship (Guest, 1977). In addition, links have been established within the social realm of human resource management. For example, the literature highlights individuals who advocate the employability approach to human resources, value of social capital as a function that individuals can acquire and develop, contributing to individual performance outcomes (Randel & Ranft, 2007; Prusak & Cohen, 2001). As human resource professionals look for creative means to facilitate these new strategies into organizational practice, traditional approaches to HRM are fast becoming obsolete (Vance, 2006). This results in an increasing need to for human resource professionals to establish flexible training programs, create long-term strategic plans, all in an effort to generate an engaged and productive workforce.

### 2.2.6. Work Engagement and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The role of individual job attitudes and OCB is widely acknowledged in the literature to date (Organ & Ryan, 1995). More specifically, this relationship has been shown to take place between work engagement and OCB (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010). Engaged employees are said to denote positive organisational behaviours as is demonstrated by OCB (Runhaar, Konermann & Sanders, 2013). While the two concepts share interrelated factors, they are acknowledged as two unique constructs (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Work engagement is recognised as a motivational construct (Salanova et al., 2005), whereas OCBs are described as positive behaviours directed toward an individual or organisation (Williams

& Anderson, 1991). The underlying process linking these two factors has been defined in the literature through social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). From this perspective, reciprocal interactions exist where individuals seek to reciprocate benefits received from others (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Relating this to the relationship between work engagement and OCB, when individuals display beneficial behaviours towards their colleagues or their organisation, these behaviours are likely to be reciprocated by reward and beneficial behaviours from others (Runhaar et al., 2013). Consequently, individuals' levels of engagement are said to increase by such a process (Saks, 2006). This perspective is supported by Macey and Schneider (2008) who claimed that work engagement is associated with the presence of positive energy and that this energy, positively correlates to OCB (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Halbesleben, 2010).

#### 2.2.7. The Social Context of Work Engagement

The social context of work engagement emphasises the constructs' value within organisations, as it has value for the primary social connections individuals form (Bakker et al., 2011). Researchers have highlighted that collegial relationships have the potential to promote social contagion, in which individuals not only respond similarly to that of their colleagues but also influence one another's experience of work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2009; Bakker, Van Emmerik & Euwema, 2006). Additionally, colleagues represent a valuable resource to knowledge and support which pertains to the work engagement experience (Bakker et al., 2011). Although work engagement is a personal experience, it does not occur in isolation (Hakanen & Roodt, 2010). As Salanova, Schaufeli, Xanthopoulou and Bakker (2010) highlight, the social resources individuals acquire whilst at work are purposeful in achieving work goals as they go beyond an internal process to reflect the social, psychological and institutional dynamics that facilitate work engagement (Bakker et al., 2011). These conditions are conducive of constructs such as workplace social inclusion which lies within the realm of an individual's social capital (Randel & Ranft, 2004).

### 2.3. Workplace Social Inclusion as Social Capital

Social capital refers to the resources derived from social relationships (Payne, Moore, Griffis & Autry, 2011). Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) conceptualise social capital as a set of

resources embedded in the relationships among employees. From this perspective, social capital is regarded as a valuable asset that can secure benefits at both individual and organizational levels (Yang & Farn, 2010). Social capital forms the foundation of workplace social inclusion and for that reason, serves as the introduction to understanding workplace social inclusion. The depth of research on social capital as a concept is a reflection of its value in different contexts (Adler & Kwon, 2002). From an organisational perspective, this can be attributed to its enormous potential for better understanding multilevel management and organisational phenomena (Payne et al., 2011). For example, several theorists have highlighted its potential to reduce turnover intentions (Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993), promote team effectiveness (Rosenthal, 1997) and organisation dissolution rates (Pennings, Lee & Van Witteloostuijn, 1998). To date, researchers have limited their studies to single level analyses and have consequently failed to acknowledge that social capital can have differing antecedents, meanings and consequences at different organisational levels (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Because the effects and utility of social relations are evidently valuable to so many social science disciplines, a lack of alignment between studies is not surprising (Pearce & Randel, 2004). Despite this, there is a rich and growing empirical literature on the value of linking an individual's social capital with key organisational outcomes (Burt, 2009). Consequently, several theoretical perspectives have developed in the process such as workplace social inclusion (Pearce & Randel, 2004).

### 2.3.1. Workplace Social Inclusion

Based on social capital literature, Pearce and Randel (2004) proposed the concept of workplace social inclusion. The literature defines workplace social inclusion as the extent to which employees have informal social ties with co-workers and feel as though are integrated into the social relations of their organisation. Workplace social inclusion is illustrated through feelings of belonging and inclusion by others in the workplace (Randel & Ranft, 2007). This concept has been examined empirically by Pearce and Pearce (2004) who found a positive relationship between workplace social inclusion and performance levels of individuals, pertaining to higher organisational efficiency. To date, the majority of the research on workplace social inclusion has tended to be grounded in either (a) an organisational level of analysis focusing on structural aspects of employee relationships, or (b) an individual level analysis developed from a psychology or behaviour perspective (Randel & Ranft, 2007).

Because the value of social relationships is central to so many social science disciplines, conceptualisations differ greatly (Pearce & Randel, 2004). Mor-Barak and Cherin (1998) for example, defined workplace social inclusion as “the degree to which individuals feel part of critical organizational processes” (p. 48). While theorists have proposed various definitions for the construct (Ferdman, Avigdor, Braun, Konkin & Kuzmycz, 2010), social capital as a metaphor for the value of social relationships has become the widely accepted approach to conceptualise workplace social inclusion (Burt, 1999), and for that reason, forms the basis of approach adopted by this research. Though, it should be acknowledged that not all theorists agree on its value. Robison, Schmid and Siles (2002) proposed that unless social capital is used in a comparable manner, it has little value as an analytical construct.

### 2.3.2. Social Exchange

The first dominant theoretical paradigm applied to the study of relationships in organisations was developed by Blau (1964) which depicted relationships as a social exchange. Social exchange theory essentially views relationships as contractual, resource-based connections at work for the purpose of achieving power or advantage (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Under this perspective, relationships can be placed under two categories: economic and social (for example, see Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998). Economic exchange relationships are usually short term arrangements for personal gains. In contrast, social exchange relationships tend to be more long-term focused and are more likely to involve the exchange of symbolic or socio-emotional resources, such as acknowledgement (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). While the implications of social exchange relationships in the workplace have been well established, majority of the research conducted has been limited to procedural justice (e.g., Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), and consequently fails to address norms within high-quality working relationships or consequences of their occurrence (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000). Despite the limitations of Blau’s (1964) work to adequately explain the process of positive relationships at work, social exchange theory has provided the conceptual underpinning of research on social relationships, work attitudes and behaviours (Settoon, Bennett & Linden, 1996; Larson & Luthans, 2006).

### 2.3.3. The Value of Workplace Social Inclusion

The literature has highlighted increasing attention on relationships at work for the potential importance they hold within organisations (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). This perspective is driven by the notion that the basis of advantage for many organisations is shifting to resources and capabilities based on knowledge embedded in human and social capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Pfeffer, 1994). The premise of workplace social inclusion within a working environment is not a new concept, yet it is one that limited studies have reported on its role. For example, Christian et al (2011) made reference to its role under the broader term of social context by demonstrating that when individuals invest their energy into a working role, contextual performance, a defined antecedent of work engagement, increases in a manner which facilitates the social and psychological context of an organisation. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) conceptualise social capital as a network of relationships which represent a valuable resource for the development of social relationships. Furthermore, it is a resource that can facilitate certain actions and is located within a network of more or less durable social relations (Pearce & Randel, 2004). Workplace social inclusion incorporates the perceptual component of social capital. Consequently, the concept differs from social capital as it is a perceptual rather than an objective measurement of interpersonal social relationships (Yang & Farn, 2010). Randel and Ranft (2007) suggest therein lies the value workplace social inclusion adds to individual performance above and beyond social relations because it provides the individual with a level of comfort regarding the utilisation of social resources at their disposal, based on the individual's own perception of inclusion. Given that more in-depth co-worker relationships is associated with higher performance levels, (Pearce & Randel, 2004; Sparrowe, Linden, Wayne & Kraimer, 2004), workplace social inclusion provides benefits in both a career sense as well as a personal one.

Several theorists have concluded that the degree of inclusion in social relationships is a vital component in shaping employee job involvement attitudes (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965), and commitment to an organisation (Kanter, 1968). For a multitude of reasons scholars have called for more attention to be directed toward relationships at work (e.g., Gargiulo, 1993). Furthermore, the literature highlights a significant gap where no study has conceptualised the role that workplace social inclusion could have on work engagement levels and an individual's tendency to display OCB since Kahn (1990) made a brief reference to its likely

role under the broader term of social resources. The literature highlights that supervisor and colleague social support are invaluable job resources that reflect the extent to which individuals perceive that their work colleagues provide emotional concern, practical aid and informational support (Biggs, Brough & Barbour, 2014; Yildirim 2008).

Human capital is increasingly highlighted in the success of an organisation (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), and the quality of relationships among co-workers has great implications for the performance of an organisation (Ma, Qu & Wilson, 2013). Workplace social inclusion refers to the extent to which employees have informal social connections with co-workers and feel as though they are socially included in the organisation's social system (Randel & Ranft, 2007). Social identity theory (Hogg, 1996) highlights the importance of employees feeling a “sense of belonging” within their organisation. This sense of belonging is a crucial part of an organisation's social structure and pertains to employees’ compliance with the norms and values the organisation holds (Feldman, 1981; van Prooijen, van den Bos & Wilke, 2004). Additionally, research has indicated that such feelings increase the amount of time employees’ stay with an organisation (Sarup & Brooker, 1996). For example, Bolino (1999) suggested that relationship building in the workplace was an antecedent of OCB and consequently, reduce employees’ intention to leave through improved perceptions of inclusion.

#### 2.3.4. Social Contracts and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Katz and Kahn (1978) illustrated that smooth functioning of organisations is frequently dependent on OCB. Supervisors value such behaviours, in part because they allow for greater levels of effective time management, of which can be contributed to more substantive tasks (Bateman & Organ, 1983). There are two distinct conceptual bases for the notion that OCB contributes to greater levels of organisational and individual performance. The first is consistent with social exchange and extending the research of Blau (1964) and Adams (1965). From an individual perspective, these researchers suggest that given certain conditions, people seek to reciprocate behaviour of those who benefit them. As the person may lack the ability or opportunity to reciprocate with greater work output, citizenship behaviours are more likely to be within the individual’s ability and thus more likely to be a salient mode of reciprocation (Hopkins, 2002). From an organisational perspective, social

exchanges are thus founded on the socioemotional nature of the working relationship based on developed trust and feelings of obligation (Foa & Foa, 1980; Love & Forret, 2008).

Research on OCB and social relationships was derived in the 1980s and built upon early literature in social exchange (e.g., Blau, 1964; Organ, 1988, 1990, 1994). The basic premise of this connection is that transactional contracts specify precise expectations of the internal agreement between the employer and employee, such as, work hours and remuneration, and relational contracts represent the more social characteristics, such as an individual's autonomy of choice (Rousseau, 1993). In order to account for OCB in organisations, social contracts with strong relational characteristics must be present. From this, it is said that the extent of an employee's displayed OCB, is a reflection of the level of social characteristics in an employee's working environment in comparison to the more transactional components (Organ & Moorman, 1993). This notion highlights an important correlation between the two constructs that is, relational contacts evoke high levels of social inclusion which supports the OCB literature presented (e.g., Alfes, Shantz, Truss & Soane 2012; Ball, Trevino & Sims, 1994). The perception of organisations as social contracts recognises self-interests of individuals but does not explain the occurrence of discretionary contributions as is associated with OCB or, how that relationship is mediated by other variables. It therefore makes sense on the basis of prior literature and academic grounding, that the concept of work engagement provides a powerful construct for understanding and explaining the relationship between social inclusion and OCB as important organisational outcomes. Consequently, this relationship must be explored, measured and accounted for.

Shirazi and Sharifirad (2013) were the first empirical researchers to investigate the value inclusion (a subset from workplace social inclusion), on key organisational and individual level outcomes such as OCB. Inclusion differs to workplace social inclusion as it suggests inclusion occurs at five levels, that is, from the perspective of the individuals work group, supervisor, organisation, management and socially (Shirazi & Sharifirad, 2013). In contrast, workplace social inclusion reflects solely on the social context of individuals' perception of inclusion (Pearce & Randel, 2004). Despite their differences in depth, the two constructs are synonymous through their shared use of one aspect (i.e. social ties). As Podsakoff et al. (1990) highlighted the extent to which individuals identify with their organisation impacts the extent to which OCB is performed. Organ (1997) took this one step further by suggesting that in order for individuals to identify with their organisation, they must feel that they are treated

like a valued part of the organisation. Under this perspective, an inclusive environment is defined as one where individuals are treated like citizens from the outset (Shirazi and Sharifirad, 2013). Consequently, workplace social inclusion and OCB may constitute a social exchange relationship where individuals who experience workplace social inclusion seek to promote the organisation by engaging in OCB (Hayes, 2002).

### 2.3.5. Conceptualisations of Inclusion

A recent empirical paper written by Shirazi and Sharifirad (2013), examined inclusion under Barak's (2013) definition of inclusion defined as the "degree to which individuals feel a part of the critical organizational processes, such as access to information, connectedness to co-workers, and ability to participate in and influence the decision-making processes" (p. 7). From this perspective, inclusion was defined on five levels: within the workgroup, from the organisation, from a supervisory role, from higher management, and socially or informally (Shirazi & Sharifirad, 2013). Secondly, within this, inclusion is represented by organisational involvement in a broad-scale of activities that are both formal and informal parts of the organisation. Examples include information sharing, process development, social activities and having access to a myriad of opportunities available within the organisation (Fouad & Arredondo, 2007). The definition employed emphasises the depth of inclusion within organisations and is thus more of an objective approach to an organisational resource. In contrast, workplace social inclusion is defined as a perceptual component of an individual's social exchange resources. While this approach to inclusion differs from workplace social inclusion, in the present study, the value it holds in contributing to our understanding of workplace social inclusion is undeniable.

## 2.4. Conclusion

The literature search highlighted several research avenues previously conducted although, none related directly to the chosen topic described in current study. A large proportion of the literature examining determinants of OCB has concentrated on the employees' attitudes towards their role or its implications on increased performance. To date, the most frequently studied antecedents of work engagement are task-related and supportive from sources such as job control, leader and colleague support and coaching (Brough, Timms, Siu, Kalliath,

O'Driscoll, Sit & Lu, 2013; Hakaanen & Roodt, 2010). While research on workplace social inclusion has emphasised the construct value within organisations (Shirazi & Sharifirad, 2013), it has failed to establish relevant antecedents and consequences that facilitate its presence in organisations. The literature highlights the value of workplace social inclusion in organisations as a factor that positively contributes to an individual's willingness to go above and beyond in role performance (Cottrill, Lopez & Hoffman, 2014), though it remains unknown what facilitates this relationship. The social context of an individual's employment as demonstrated through workplace social inclusion is expected to provide a positive working environment that communicates care and concern for employee well-being, alongside a sense of acceptance within their department, which ultimately aims to enhance perceptions of positive individual behaviours such as work engagement and OCB.

## CHAPTER 3

### 3. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

This chapter will provide an introduction to the proposed hypothesis. In total, seven hypotheses are presented based on a thorough examination of the literature presented in Chapter 2, which supports the development of all hypotheses. Following analysis of hypothesis, a proposed conceptual framework has been developed which is supportive of the correlations depicted in the hypotheses.

The study of such internal organisational ties is as old as the field of organisational behaviour itself, but most commonly these are associated with groups or teams and are referred to as cohesiveness rather than workplace social inclusion (Pearce & Randel, 2004). Research on workplace social inclusion suggests that individuals have important internal connections represented through informal feelings of belonging to clusters that cross formal tasks, and as such, are more likely to display higher levels OCB. This notion is based on the premise that inclusion may constitute an exchange relationship in which individuals who receive benefits from their co-workers through inclusion seek to benefit the organisation through displayed levels of OCB (Shirazi & Sharifirad, 2013). Where high levels of workplace social inclusion exist, it is expected that individuals will go above and beyond their role requirements to provide assistance through extra discretionary effort as is displayed through OCB. In contrast, where low levels of social inclusion are present, individual behaviour is more likely to be offered on a quid pro quo process (Randel & Ranft, 2007). This notion is supported by Fisher (1998) who suggested that good citizenship behaviours facilitates positive social exchanges among co-workers, which create positive emotions for OCB. Thus, it is expected that employees who perceive their work relationships as high quality exchange relationships to which high levels of workplace social inclusion exist, will be more likely to engage in OCB.

*Hypothesis 1: Workplace social inclusion is positively correlated to organisational citizenship behaviour*

Kahn (1990) reported that engagement increased when the working environment included rewarding interactions with co-workers. Social characteristics motivate individuals by creating meaningful interactions (Gersick, Bartunek, & Dutton, 2000; Kahn, 1990),

resilience, and security (Ryan & Deci, 2001). While social support carries a different definition to workplace social inclusion, inferences can be made as to the connection between the two concepts as a result of the social characteristics both concepts hold. While the foundations of research in work engagement (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001) indicate psychological conditions that are necessary for work engagement, they do not account for why individuals respond to such conditions with varying degrees of work engagement (Saks, 2006). In alignment with Barak's (2000) research suggesting that inclusion-exclusion influences individual behaviour, Pearce and Randel (2004) showed that employees who feel excluded spend less time getting to know their colleagues and are less obligated to engage in extra-discretionary effort. Saks (2006) suggests that a more sound theoretical explanation can be found in the social exchange literature. From this perspective, it can be said that workplace social inclusion is represented through a socioemotional resource that directly implicates levels of work engagement displayed (Saks, 2006). Thus, it is expected that workplace social inclusion will be directly related to work engagement.

*Hypothesis 2: Workplace social inclusion is positively correlated to work engagement*

It is expected that females will act as a predictor variable increasing the strength of the relationship between workplace social inclusion and work engagement. This notion is research based evidence where studies have highlighted females were more engaged than male co-workers (see, Avery, McKay & Wilson, 2007). Additionally, some studies have suggested that gender has been shown to implicate motivations to maintain and develop social relationships on the job (Konrad, Ritchie, Lieb & Corrigall, 2000). This notion is supported through the literature on gendered social structures, defined as sets of norms that are appropriate behaviours such as communication between males and females (Konrad et al., 2000). These social norms are derived from membership of emotionally significant social groups such as predominantly female working groups (Brewer & Brown, 1998). Inclusion within these groups is said to dictate day-to-day social interactions between males and females (Winstead & Streets, 2013). In research explicitly concentrated on relationships at work, Winstead and Streets (2013) found that gender played a significant difference in the approach taken to develop and maintain social relationships at work. For example, females perceived working relationships for the socioemotional relevance where as men were significantly more likely to base their social connections for career advancement. In contrast, Randel and Ranft (2007), who utilised the workplace social inclusion construct, found no

gender difference in perceptions of collegial relationships at work. Consequently, the present study will investigate further through the following hypothesis.

*Hypothesis 3: Females are expected to have higher perceptions of workplace social inclusion, and thus higher levels of work engagement*

Research on the relationship between tenure and work engagement has been established in the literature to date with inconsistent findings thus far. For example, Coffman and Gonzalez-Molina (2002), established that individuals with more years of service with an organisation are more likely to report higher levels of engagement. In contrast, a second study established that higher levels of work engagement were demonstrated by individuals whose experience levels were less than 2 years, and these levels decreased significantly as experience level (tenure) increased beyond 10 years (Wahba, n.d.). This finding lends support to previous literature that employee perceptions of inclusion and engagement diminish as individual's tenure increases. This notion is based on the premise that because reciprocity norms (developed through perceptions of workplace social inclusion), are important among shortly tenured employees, the relationship between the workplace social inclusion and work engagement is stronger for employees with lower organisational tenure (Bal, De Cooman & Mol, 2013). While the literature on workplace social inclusion is limited, within the realm of social working relationships, this variable has been more established. For example, Wright and Cooper-Thomas (2009) found that length of tenure surfaced as a variable affecting the quality of relationships developed in the workplace. While quality of relationships in the workplace is a different construct and thus holds different connotations, (for example, workplace social inclusion is perceptive) (Pearce & Randel, 2004), similarities are demonstrated through their common association of belonging. As supported by the literature, it is hypothesised that individuals, who have been within their given role for a shorter time, would have higher self-reported measures of work engagement and workplace social inclusion, based on the notion that reciprocity norms are important among short-tenured employees. Consequently, the following hypothesis has been devised.

*Hypothesis 4: Less years of experience (tenure) is expected to increase individual's perceptions of workplace social inclusion, thus increasing levels of work engagement*

It can be said that few studies have established consistencies of the effects of full-time versus part-time employment for the potential influence they may hold within an organisational behaviour context. Consequently, there have been calls in the management literature to consider contextual factors such as employed hours, in the study of organisations and individuals (Kristensen, Bjorner, Christensen & Borg, 2004). Christian et al. (2011) established that physical demands and work conditions represent contextual features of a role which should be considered when accounting for work engagement. Such characteristics are represented by job hours and physical effort (Christian et al., 2011). In addition, these characteristics are likely to be negatively associated with work engagement because they are guided by external scripts rather than self-investment in work (Kahn, 1990). While previous studies have highlighted inconsistencies in comparing full-time employees to part-time, several studies have highlighted attitudinal and behavioural differences (Martin & Hafer, 1995). For example, full-time versus part-time hours have been found to predict job satisfaction (Miller & Terborg, 1979), extrinsic and intrinsic work outcome (Wakefield, Curry, Mueller & Price, 1987) and turnover intentions (Peters, Jackofsky & Salter, 1981). The most accepted theoretical explanation for these differences is derived from the theory of partial inclusion (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Under this theory, it is suggested that because individuals work is scheduled on a reduced basis when working part-time, it is reasonable to assume that individuals are thus only partially included in their organisations social system when compared to their full-time counterparts (Martin & Hafer, 1995). In addition, part-time employees are less likely to be familiar with the social norms present in their organisation, resulting in different perceptions of workplace social inclusion. Consequently, it is hypothesised that working hours will act as a predictor between the relationship of workplace social inclusion and work engagement.

*Hypothesis 5: Individuals working on a part-time basis are expected to have lower perceptions of workplace social inclusion, and thus lower levels of work engagement*

While researchers have consistently shown direct correlations between work engagement and OCB (Harter et al., 2002; Lloyd, 2008), no researcher has examined the possibility of work engagement to mediate the relationship between workplace social inclusion and OCB. Given the arguments established in the literature review in Chapter 2, this notion aligns closely to the social exchange process of work engagement. For example, Saks (2006) using a social exchange lens, provided evidence to suggest that employee engagement was a reciprocal

process based on developed social norms within organisations. The social context of reciprocity suggests that colleagues represent an important resource that pertains to the work engagement experience (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). While Saks (2006) conceptualised engagement at work as an act of reciprocity rather than a state of being, his work was the first to statistically link the affective component of an individual's decision making process which holds value in its own right (Shuck, 2010). The literature highlights that work engagement as a mediator has been demonstrated commonly through application of the Job-Demand Resource model (JD-R model). One study in particular, demonstrates the mediating effect of work engagement, tested at an individual level, suggesting a positive correlation exists between resources and outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In essence, the JD-R model accounts for two separate but related psychological concepts to explain job demands (i.e. strain and work pressure) and job resources (i.e. physical, psychological and social resources an individual has at their job). While these resources and outcomes are not identical to the content this research presents, they are similar in that both resources and outcomes are broadly demonstrated through workplace social inclusion and OCB respectively. Thus, it is expected that work engagement will mediate the relationship between workplace social inclusion and OCB.

*Hypothesis 6: Work engagement mediates the relationship between workplace social inclusion and organisational citizenship behaviour*

Research has consistently shown that engagement shares an important relationship with organisational and performance outcome variables such as discretionary effort and intention to turnover (Shuck, 2010; Saks, 2006). As previous studies have indicated, employees who reported higher levels of engagement were more likely to display higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviour (Harter et al., 2002; Lloyd, 2008; Saks, 2006). While conceptualisations of the relationship between work engagement and organizational citizenship behaviour are documented in the literature, majority of these studies lie within practitioner literature and consulting firms where it has basis in practice rather than theory or empirical research (Saks, 2006). This has resulted in a lack of understanding of the potential outcomes work engagement has at an individual level (Saks, 2006). Because work engagement is an individual-level construct there is theoretical reason to expect work engagement to be directly related to individuals' attitudes, behaviours and intentions. Supporting this perspective is the work of Saks (2006) who suggested the depiction of work

engagement as a positive, fulfilling work-related state (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) highlights its potential to result in positive work outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour. This, along with previous research findings, supports the relationship between work engagement and OCB (e.g., Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Wat & Shaffer, 2003). Therefore, this study assumes a positive relationship between work engagement and OCBs.

*Hypothesis 7: Work engagement is positively correlated to organisational citizenship behaviour*

### 3.1. Proposed Conceptual Framework

Given the hypothesis development presented above, there seems to be a fundamental need to understand the relationships and develop a conceptual base for the relationships between workplace social inclusion, work engagement and OCB. Accordingly, the proposed framework as shown in Figure 1, depicts the proposed relationships between variables. This conceptual model depicts the proposed study by suggesting that, work engagement has a direct relationship to OCB, while workplace social inclusion has both a direct relationship with OCB, as well as a mediated relationship with OCB, as mediated by work engagement. This conceptual or empirical model will be investigated in the present study.

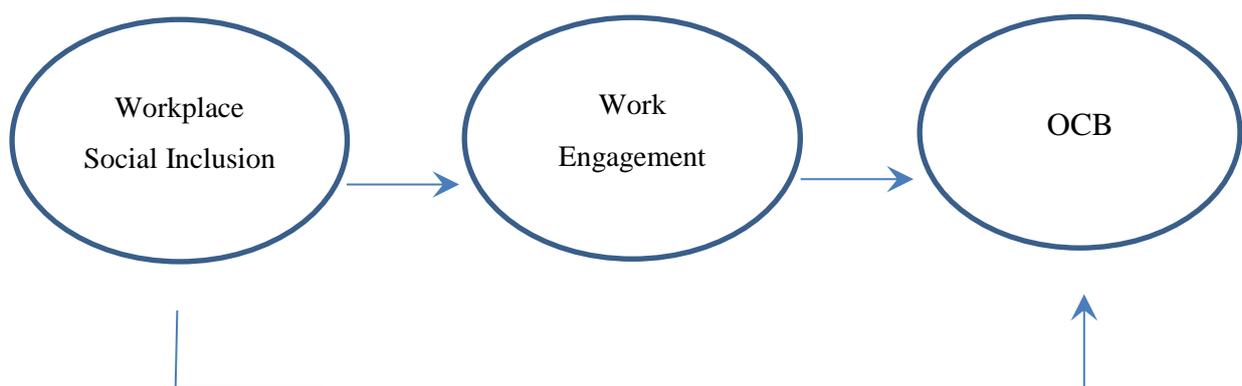


Figure 1.  
*Conceptual Framework*

In order to effectively examine the proposed conceptual framework, a simple mediation model will be developed and tested utilising a quantitative framework, as discussed in the

next Chapter. In brief, the relationship between workplace social inclusion and OCB will be examined for the extent to which the workplace social inclusion is related to OCB. In addition, it can be reasonably proposed based on the literature, that this relationship is far more complex with the mediation effect of work engagement. Within this relationship it is hypothesised that workplace social inclusion is directly related to work engagement, which in turn has implications for OCB levels.

### 3.2. Conclusion

The development of the above hypothesis was based on a thorough literature review. Several studies have highlighted the value of these variables to mediate and predict effects on individual behaviour variables depicted in the conceptual framework (e.g., Gersick et al., 2000; Christian et al., 2011; Daya, & April, 2014). The majority of these have been limited to the literature on work engagement as a result of the limited research available on workplace social inclusion. One exception is a research paper by Daya and April (2014) which demonstrated the strength of demographic variables such as age, gender, tenure and department, to influence the perception of inclusion in a South African organisation. While their definition of inclusion differed slightly, the context of analysis was very similar to the present study. Results suggest that further investigation into the role demographics play is necessary. With varied results across studies, theorists such as Shuck (2010) have called for research to be examined on distal antecedents and outcomes such as co-worker relationships and demographics for the potential influence they may have on the development of employee engagement. There are several potential benefits to this investigation. Firstly, by broadening the framework of how variables are emitted effects to include contextual factors (such as tenure, gender and working hours), a more complete picture of the dynamics between workplace social inclusion and work engagement is offered. Consequently, the depicted hypothesis aims to contribute to more complete models and empirical investigations of workplace social inclusion.

## CHAPTER 4

### 4. METHODOLOGY

#### 4.1. Introduction

This chapter explains the research methodology used to test the hypothesised relationships depicted in Chapter 3. It will begin by explaining the research design, followed by description of the participants, materials and procedure.

#### 4.2. Research Design

The design of this research is quantitative in nature and thus, is conventionally based on the positivist approach to explore scientific inquiry of the phenomena. Quantitative research is defined by Bryman and Bell (2015) of that entailing the collection of numerical data to test the view of relationship between theory and research. The data are quantitative in nature, and will be obtained through administering surveys. Edmondson and McManus (2007) argue that in order to conduct effective research, care should be taken for methodological fit. In addition, they suggest that the methods adopted for a research project need to be fitting over four key elements. These are, research questions or hypothesis development (i.e. the theoretical and practical relevance); prior work (i.e. the state of literature); research design (i.e. type of analysis planned), lastly, consideration for the contribution to literature are examined. Based on this perspective and as examined in Chapter 2 through a thorough literature review, the chosen quantitative study fits neatly in with similar quantitative studies (e.g. Zacher & Winter, 2011; Halbesleben, Zellars, Carlson, Perrewé, & Rotondo, 2010). While quantitative approaches have developed some criticisms of not representing a static perspective on phenomena (Bryman & Bell, 2007), it may also be argued that the collection of data from a single point in time enables an informed examination of the hypotheses and thus, an outcome that is representative. Subsequently, the cross-sectional quantitative research design adopted by this study contributes to knowledge creation that is valuable for managerial practice and individual well-being.

The use of mediation analysis, represented in conceptual diagram below (Figure 2), will be adopted to help answer how the variables are related and examinable. Specifically, the research adopts a cross-sectional research design employing survey-based primary data.

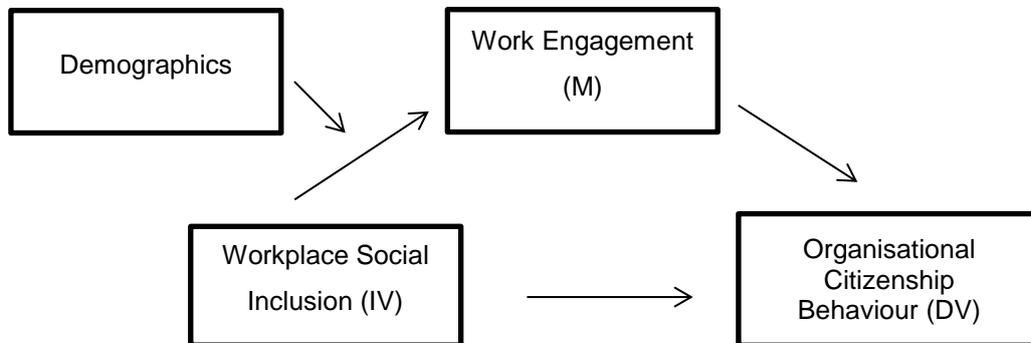


Figure 2.

*Mediation Model (Hayes, 2013)*

Figure 2 illustrates a direct relationship between social inclusion and OCB. Furthermore, it illustrates that this relationship is proposed to be mediated by work engagement. Essentially, this model seeks to provide an explanation for the relationship between these variables uncovering reasons as to how and what extent they occur and then, what organisational outcomes result (i.e. OCB). Demographics have been placed as predictive variables between workplace social inclusion and work engagement. As research demonstrated in Chapter 2, it is hypothesised that the strength of the relationship between work engagement and workplace social inclusion will be predictive on variables such as gender, tenure and contracted hours. The rationale for adopting Hayes Process Analysis (Hayes, 2013) is due to what the literature suggests is best practice in order to establish the underlying process of correlation between variables (Evers, van der Heijden, Kreijns & Vermeulen, 2015). This is best explained by Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, and Petty (2011) who suggests that perfect measurement is impossible, and that one cannot ever claim to have established complete mediation. However, mediation analysis allows for more accurate magnitude of effect on the given sample size, allowing for correlations to be made between variables.

### 4.3. Participants

Participant selection is a crucial step in establishing well-designed quantitative research (Koro, Ljungberg & Douglas, 2008). Consequently, the decision was made to select participants within the public healthcare sector, who express employee engagement, workplace social inclusion and OCB within their social and psychological resources. This was supported by Lowe (2012) who suggested that the culture of engagement and psychological resources as is demonstrated by workplace social inclusion, are critical in promoting systems that allow people to excel at their jobs. Additionally, such concepts have taken root in healthcare and are evolving (Lowe, 2012). These behaviours are fundamental to organisational efforts to retain employees in the healthcare sector (Fasoli, 2010). This decision is supported empirically through the literature. For example, Saks (2006) suggests that a strong psychological connection to work, as is displayed within the healthcare sector, are expressed physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances pertaining to higher levels job satisfaction, working relationships and discretionary effort. These behaviours are similar to employees who demonstrate workplace social inclusion, work engagement and OCB. In addition, research from Mauno, Kinnunen and Ruokolainen (2007) suggest that investigating work engagement among healthcare professionals is an effective starting point as healthcare work is generally characterised by a high level of work engagement which pertains to helping behaviours as is denoted by OCB (e.g., Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2007; Kuokkanen, Leino-Kilpi & Katajisto, 2003).

The use of a snowballing sampling technique will be utilised (Penrod, Preston, Cain, & Starks, 2003). It is acknowledged that the use of snowballing as a sampling technique is not completely random therefore can have limitations to its use, as with any technique. Despite this, it is an effective and efficient means for gathering participants to partake in the study through word-of-mouth in the selected organisation. Snowballing as a sampling technique has proven practical when used in hard-to-reach populations, and examples of its practical value are demonstrated within the health care. For example, Marshall (1998) suggests snowballing as a sampling technique is an effective means to ensure a broad spectrum of demographic and professional characteristics thus, enriching the data population.

Data was collected using an online survey from 109 participants that were recruited to take part via a senior organisational member. An overall summary of the demographic information can be viewed in Table 1. The participant responses were gathered through an anonymous online survey which individuals were emailed. The survey took approximately 3-5 minutes to complete. The ideal response rate was devised as 58 respondents. The reasoning behind this was to provide a certain degree of confidence given the effect of a participant sample size. Harris (1985) suggests the number of participants should exceed the number of predictors by at least 50. This approach is supported by Green (1991) who adopts a similar formula to calculate an appropriate size to participate. Green's method suggests  $N > 50 + 8m$  (with  $m$  being the number of independent variables). As such, 58 participants were required at an absolute minimum.

Employees were asked several demographic questions such as age, gender, tenure and contracted hours, to establish participant makeup of the sample gathered (see Table 1). In addition, this provided the necessary information to analyse the predictive ability of hypothesised variable on work engagement and social inclusion within different sectors of the large public enterprise. It is important to consider that employees of different working positions may hold different perceptions of workplace social inclusion and work engagement thus, affecting displayed levels of OCB. A description of the sample composition can be viewed in Table 1.

#### 4.4. Sample Composition

Analysis was undertaken to examine the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample, and to account for the potential of moderating variables as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. A frequency table of the demographic variables are represented in Table 1. 72% of respondents were male, while the remaining 28% were female. In terms of age distribution, majority of participants were between the ages of 45-54 (36%), and the second largest category to follow was the 22% held between the ages of 55-64. 83% of respondents had tertiary education ranging from a Bachelor's degree to doctoral qualifications. Over 55% of respondents indicated their level of experience within their given department as more than six years, while the second highest category of 17% was represented as less than two years' experience. Eighty percent of participants worked full-time with the remaining 20% recorded as working on a part-time basis. The number of people within respondent's respective departments was

rather skewed with 81% indicating more than 15 people. Interestingly, the second highest category was noted as between 5 and 10 people represented by 15% of the respondent population. Categorisation of clinical and non-clinical was relatively equal, represented by 64% and 46% respectively.

Table 1.

*Frequency Table of Demographic Variables*

<b>Category</b>	<b>Variable</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Gender	Male	79	71.8
	Female	31	28.2
Age	18 – 24	4	3.6
	25 – 34	18	16.4
	35 – 44	21	19.1
	45 – 54	39	35.5
	55 – 64	24	21.8
	65 - 74	4	3.6
Contracted Hours	Full Time	88	80
	Part Time	22	20
Education	High School Graduate	19	17.3
	Bachelor's Degree	30	27.3
	Double Degree	7	6.4
	Honour's Degree	6	5.5
	Other Postgraduate Qualification	31	28.2
	Master's Degree	15	13.6
	Ph.D.	2	1.8
Number of people within department	Less than 5	1	.9
	5 – 10	16	14.5
	11 – 15	4	3.6
	More than 15	89	80.9
Experience Level	Less than 2 years	19	17.3
	2 – 4 years	16	14.5
	4 – 6 years	14	12.7
	More than 6 years	61	55.5

Category	Variable	<i>f</i>	Percentage
Non-Clinical	Support Serves/Team Member	10	9.1
	Team Leader/Services Manager	24	21.8
	Operations Management	3	2.7
	Other	9	8.2
	Total Non-Clinical	46	41.8
	Missing (in clinical)	64	58.2
Clinical	Nursing	3	2.7
	Medical	30	27.3
	Allied Health and Support Services	29	26.4
	Other	2	1.8
	Total	64	58.2
	Missing (in non-clinical)	46	41.8

#### 4.5. Materials

A total of 47 items were grouped into seven subsets consisting of three validated scales including work engagement, organisational citizenship behaviour and workplace social inclusion. Alongside this, demographic questions such as age, gender and department were included (the scales used are included in Appendix 2). Participants were asked several demographic questions in order to account for the predictive effects of analysis.

#### 4.6. Independent Variable - Workplace Social Inclusion

The independent variable of workplace social inclusion was assessed and measured using a scale developed by Pearce and Randel (2004). The survey which measures workplace social inclusion consists of three items on a 5-point, Likert-scale (1=disagree, 5=agree) (see Appendix 2). An example item was: 'I feel included in most activities at work'. This measure has been found to have an acceptable internal consistency across studies (Pearce & Randel, 2004; Randel and Ranft, 2007). Cronbach's alpha for the current study was established at .86 supporting this notion.

#### 4.7. Mediating Variable - Work Engagement

The mediating variable of work engagement was measured through the nine-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The nine item measure breaks down with vigor, dedication and absorption each having 3 items. A sample item for vigor was: 'At my job, I feel strong and vigorous'. For absorption, a sample item was: 'I feel happy when I am working intensely'. Lastly, a sample item for dedication was: 'I am proud of the work that I do'. The UWES is scored on a seven-point frequency scale from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). High scores indicate high engagement (see Appendix 2). This 9 item scale has also shown to be consistent over time and across samples (Seppälä, Mauno, Feldt, Hakanen, Kinnunen, Tolvanen, and Schaufeli, 2009). In support of this, Cronbach's alpha for the current study was established at .94.

#### 4.8. Dependent Variables - Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The 24-item OCB scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) was utilised to assess five dimensions of OCB proposed by Organ (1988). These dimensions are altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue. The item ratings will be obtained from a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1= 'strongly disagree' to 7= 'strongly agree' (see Appendix 2). An example item was: "volunteers for things that are not required". The ratings will indicate the extent that each of the behaviours is a characteristic of the employee's behaviour. The present study established an acceptable Cronbach's alpha of .88.

#### 4.9. Control Variables - Demographics

Demographic questions of gender, working hours (i.e. full-time versus part-time), and tenure within given position will be included as control variables in the survey. These 3 variables are to be included as an attempt to establish condition of interaction between workplace social inclusion (independent variable) and work engagement (mediator).

## CHAPTER 5

### 5. RESULTS

#### 5.1. Data Screening

Participant data were screened for univariate and multivariate outliers to reduce the possibility of bias. Upon examining casewise diagnosis, which indicates which cases are extreme outliers, one extreme outlier in the dataset was identified resulting in its removal and consequent recording as missing. This was determined through visual observation and was the result of one participant clicking answer '1' for every question. In addition, a visual, scale-level inspection of data and Little's (1998) missing values analysis in SPSS were performed to assess whether the missing values identified were cause for concern. The analysis determined data to be missing completely at random (MCAR) and consequently, they were deleted list-wise in any subsequent analysis as recommended by Field (2013). Following this, data screening was performed on the variables being measured. The six items which required reverse coding for the measures of workplace social inclusion and OCB were performed such that high scores reflected a more positive response. Tests for linearity and homoscedasticity by using scatterplot were satisfactory.

#### 5.2. Exploratory Factor Analysis

To illustrate the independence of measures, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted using principal axis factoring on all three validated scales. The minimum amount of data for factor analysis was satisfied in accordance with Gorsuch (1983) and Kline (2014) who suggest a minimum of 100. The final sample size was 109, providing a ratio of over 36 participants per variable. First, factor analyses were carried out separately on each of the three variables to determine their factorability. The method for factor rotation was based on what the literature suggested was best practice (Field, 2013), and on the basis that psychological factors are likely to correlate. Consequently, direct oblimin factor rotation was adopted to allow correlations between factors. In addition, the delta, or correlation level was left at the default level of zero, as was recommended by Pedhazur and Schmelkin (2013).

Factor analysis on the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale was conducted first. It was observed that all nine of the items correlated at least .5 with one other item, suggesting reasonable factor reliability. In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factor reliability of the correlations matrix for work engagement. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .94, well above the commonly recommended value of .7 (Kaiser, 1974). In addition, the commonalities were all above .5, which further suggests that each item on the work engagement scale shared common variance with other items. It was noted that the first factor explained 71% of the variance (eigenvalue of 6.5), while subsequent factors contributed less than 6% of variance with eigenvalues <.5. Consequently a one factor solution was kept. Item internal consistency was examined using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (*a* value) which established a reliability of .95, well above the recommended minimum of .7 (DeVellis, 2012). Internal item consistency was conducted analysing the factor reliability of OCB and work engagement. Results established work engagement items to load independently on their own factor, while all OCB items loaded on their intended factors. Consequently, these constructs were established to be independent of one another.

The second variable analysed was organisational citizenship behaviour. Initial factor analysis established loadings on 7 factors (based on eigen values of >1) with several items cross loading on more than one factor above .3. It was established that three items were cause for further investigation. Item 5 ("I help orientate new people even though it is not required") did not load on any factor above .24. Next, item 10, ("you obey company rules and regulations even when nobody's watching") and item 16 ("you try and avoid creating problems for coworkers") were the only two items to load on one factor on their own. Consequently, analyses were repeated with the removal of the three items to check for an alternative structure that might eliminate only one item loading one factor. The factor structure that emerged was found to be more structurally sound establishing a 5 factor solution (see Appendix 3). Despite two items (item 9 "does not take extra breaks" and, item 19 "takes steps to try to prevent problems with other employees") cross-loading on additional factors at the .5 and .3 level respectively, Cronbach's alpha was .88, suggesting that the cross-loading items should not be deleted. Additional support was mounted from the original factor structure developed from Podsakoff et al. (1990), which suggested keeping the cross-loading items to ensure the constructs domain was adequately retained. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO = .84) and scree plot indicated the 5-factor solution was most appropriate, explaining

67% of the total item variance. The eigenvalues for the five factors were 7.3, 2.4, 1.5, 1.4 and 1.3. In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity was used to examine whether the items in the scale correlated well with each other, all of which were satisfactory. It should be noted that OCB was analysed at the construct level as opposed to the facet level. As illustrated above, OCB established a 5-factor solution with a component correlation matrix suggesting that each factor has the potential to produce outputs statistically different from measuring OCB as a construct (see Appendix 4). Independent analysis of OCB factors established that the five facets of OCB measured comparably to the overall construct measure of OCB. As LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002) argued, using OCB as a construct (rather than individual factors) is a better way to represent the construct as a whole. Consequently the OCB was measured at the construct level in future analysis (see Appendix 3).

Lastly, factor analysis were carried out on workplace social inclusion to establish variable reliability. It was observed that all three of the items correlated between .63 and .82 suggesting high factor reliability. Workplace social inclusion established an acceptable KMO value of .66. Results supported a one-dimensional factor structure and established a Cronbach alpha of .86, with the first factor accounting for 77% of the variance. In addition, because workplace social inclusion and work engagement share values as positive individual behaviours (Shirazi & Sharifirad, 2013; Christian et al., 2011), between factors analysis were conducted to establish the variables as separate constructs. Results supported a two factor solution with work engagement items loading completely on one factor and workplace social inclusion items loading on the other. However, the second item for workplace social inclusion ("I feel included in most activities at work") had a cross-loading of .3 with the work engagement factor. Because this loading is far less than the loading on the intended factor (.3 vs .7), the literature suggests the higher value is supportive of keeping the item (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Between factor analyses with OCB was also conducted. Results established a clean six factor solution (five factors for OCB and one for workplace social inclusion), highlighting the two variables as separate constructs. Given these results, the one factor solution was deemed to be suitable for workplace social inclusion.

### 5.3. Bivariate Analysis

Correlation coefficients between all three variables were examined for meaningfulness according to effect size standards (Cohen, 2013). According to Cohen's (2013) effect size standards, correlation coefficients  $< +/- .28$  are small effects; medium effects range from  $+/- .28 - .49$ ; and, large effects are represented as greater than  $+/- .49$ . It was established that work engagement was positively and significantly correlated with workplace social inclusion  $r = .53$  ( $p < .001$ ) and moderately correlated with OCB,  $r = .43$  ( $p < .001$ ). In addition, workplace social inclusion was moderately correlated to OCB,  $r = .25$  ( $p < .001$ ) and gender,  $r = .2$  ( $p < .005$ ). Table 2 summarises the number of cases (N), means, standard deviations (SD), scale range alongside Cronbach's alpha for each measurement scale and Pearson's correlation coefficient for the variable.

Table 2.

*Bivariate Correlations Matrix with Mean, Standard Deviations and Cronbach's Alpha*

	Cronbach's Alpha ( <i>a</i> )	Range	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Gender	-	-	-	-					
2. Experience	-	1-4	3.1	1.2	.13				
3. Contracted Hours	-	1-2	1.2	.40	-.16	.06			
4. Work Engagement	.95	0-6	4.8	1.5	.01	-.01	-.07		
5. Workplace Social Inclusion	.86	1-5	3.7	1.1	.19*	-.00	.02	.53**	
6. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	.89	1-7	5.3	.57	-.16	-.01	.15	.42**	.25**

N = 109 \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

Gender is coded as 1 = female, 2 = male.

Contracted hours is coded as 1 = Full-time, 2 = Part-time

Experience (Tenure) coded as 1 = less than 2 years, 2 = 2-4 years, 3 = 4-6 years, 4 = more than 6 years

#### 5.4. Hayes Process Model

According to Hayes (2013) the analysis of mediation is used when one's analytical goal is to describe and understand how IV transmits its effect on DV through a mediating agent. The conceptual model can be viewed below in Figure 3. In essence, workplace social inclusion (IV) is first hypothesised to be directly related to OCB (DV). This relationship suggests that a high score on workplace social inclusion is estimated to expose higher scores on OCB. Figure 3 then depicts the mediating effect of work engagement to change the relationship between workplace social inclusion and OCB.

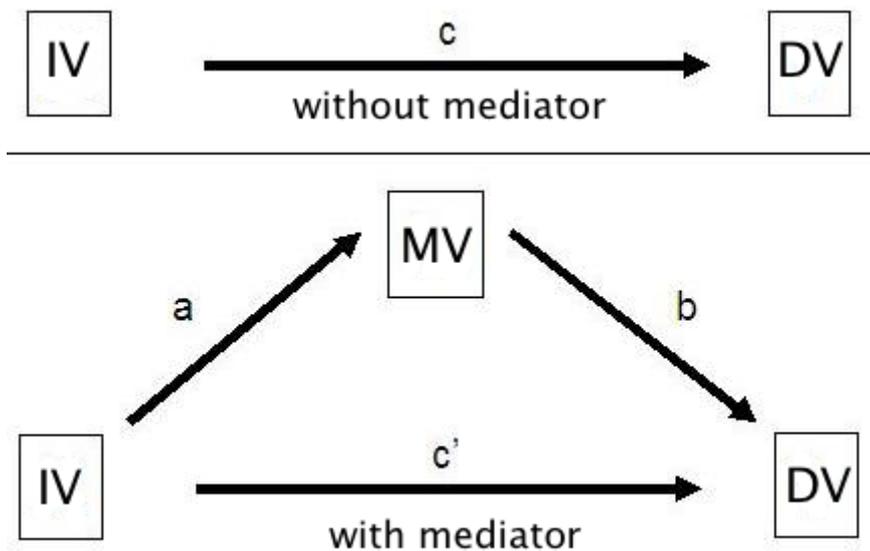


Figure 3.

*Conceptual Model Simple Mediation Note. From The Institute for Digital Research and Education (n.d.) Reprinted with permission.*

A simple mediation as Hayes (2013) suggests, refers to an intervening process that occurs between variables. Figure 3 shows how an IV can influence a DV through a mediating variable (MV). In addition, the model shows the effect of IV on MV and consequently MV's effect on DV which can result in a variation in the DV. Mediation models are becoming

increasingly valuable in social science disciplines to understand the process of causation between variables, and to demonstrate how a structural relationship exists (Carrillo & Chinowsky, 2013). Within this model, there are demonstrated pathways by which IV is proposed as influencing DV. One pathway is from IV to DV directly. This is known as the direct effect of IV on DV (Hayes, 2013). The other pathway is referred to as the indirect effect of IV on DV, because it travels through MV. This process demonstrates how MV influences the strength of relationship between IV and DV, which in turn influences DV (Carrillo & Chinowsky, 2013). The mediation process will be examined using Hayes Process Model (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Hayes, 2013) In addition, several demographic variables will be assessed through Hierarchical Regression Analysis. A breakdown of the demographic variables in question is provided in Chapter 3 - Hypothesis Development. In essence, the value of control variables arises from their ability to enhance understanding of the relationship between workplace social inclusion (IV) and work engagement (MV) (Walsh, Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2008).

## 5.5. Hypothesis Testing

Simple mediation analyses were conducted consistent with Preacher and Hayes (2004) which allow for one independent variable (IV) one dependent variable (DV), and more than one mediator variable (Process, Model 4). Hayes (2013) process analysis was determined to be a good fit for the data as the goal was to establish how workplace social inclusion indirectly implicates behaviour such as work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour. As Hayes (2013) suggests, researchers interested in examining questions about effects resort to process modelling to empirically estimate and test hypotheses regarding the two pathways of influence through which IV (workplace social inclusion) carries its effect to DV (OCB) as depicted in Figure 3. Inter-scale correlations were used to determine whether it was reasonable to conduct mediation analysis (see Table 2). Given the significance of correlations established between WSI - WE (.53), WE - OCB (.43) and marginally significant correlation between WSI - OCB (.25), bootstrap mediation analyses using the modelling tool PROCESS for SPSS was deemed to be a good fit (Hayes, 2013). The number of bootstrap samples ran in these tests were 1000 at a 95% bias-corrected confidence interval level as research recommends (Timmerman, Kiers & Smilde, 2007). The statistical test for this method of mediation analysis is whether the 95% confidence interval around the estimate of the indirect effects includes zero (Steadman & Knouse, 2014). If the indirect effect is not statistically

different from zero, the mediator is said to have no statistical effect on the relationship between IV and DV.

There are several potential pathways of significance in a simple mediation model. As Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest, full mediation is supported on the basis of four steps. (1) the total effect (or c pathway), depicted by the direct relationship between X and Y without controlling for the possibility of M, must be significant; (2) the IV must be significantly related to the mediator variable (path a); (3) next, the mediator should be significantly related to the outcome or DV (path b); and lastly (4) the direct pathway, depicted by the relationship between X and Y after accounting for the possible M variable, is lessened by the presence of mediation.  $ab$  refers to a total indirect effect, calculated as the a pathway \* b pathway. Figure 4 illustrates the results of the simple mediation analysis. While this notion is commonly accepted as a precondition to mediation effect, research from Hayes (2013) argues that not all these conditions need to be met in order to establish support for mediation analysis. For example, the precondition of workplace social inclusion to be related to OCB prior to establishing the mediating effect of work engagement does not need to occur. As Hayes (2013) highlights, mediation analysis in the 21<sup>st</sup> century no longer requires evidence of association between IV and DV as a precondition. Despite this, the model (Figure 4) highlights that all conditions were met supporting the mediation model.

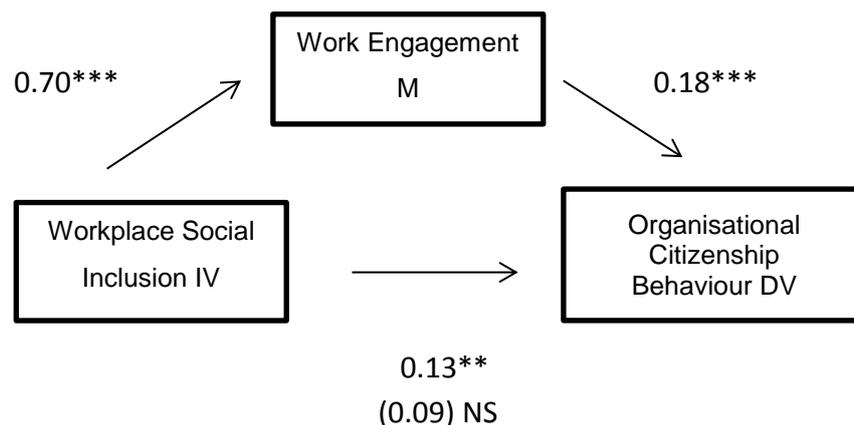


Figure 4.

*Results of the Simple Mediation Model*

Indirect effect (ab) = .7 x .18 = .13

\*p <.05, \*\*p <.01, \*\*\*p <.001, NS = Non-Significant

According to Baron and Kenny (1986) the purpose of mediation analysis is to establish zero-order relationships for steps 1 - 3 discussed above. If the IV is no longer significant after controlling for the mediating effect in step 3, then full mediation is supported. As can be seen in Appendix 5, Process Analysis of the independent factors of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy) established statistical significance as independent factors. However, the items were parcelled for factor analysis (to establish one construct for OCB) based on previously published psychometric analyses of OCB and other research suggesting its measure as a unitary construct (LePine et al., 2002). As can be seen in Figure 4, participants who indicated strong feelings of workplace social inclusion within their organisation also displayed high levels of OCB (path c:  $b = .13$ ,  $t(107) = 2.64$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Participants who indicated high levels of workplace social inclusion also highlighted higher levels of work engagement (path a:  $b = .70$ ,  $t(107) = 6.65$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Work engagement was shown to be an influencer of OCB as illustrated by the direct relationship between work engagement and OCB (path b:  $b = .18$ ,  $t(106) = 4.25$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals for the indirect effect of work engagement on workplace social inclusion and OCB ( $ab = .13$ ,  $p < .001$ ) was entirely above zero (0.0658 to 0.2030). Furthermore, the model established that workplace social inclusion did not affect OCB independently of work engagement (c' path:  $b = .005$ ,  $t(106) = .09$ ,  $p = .92$ ). As can be viewed in Table 3, the strength of path c that was significant before the addition of the mediator ( $r = 0.13$ ,  $p < .01$ ), dropped to non-significant levels for the indirect effect ( $r = 0.09$ ,  $p = .92$ ). This effect signifies that the mediation model was significant given that the relationship between IV and DV was reduced by mediation. Overall analysis showed that workplace social inclusion and work engagement accounted for a significant proportion of variance in participants personal account of OCB ( $R^2 = .19$ ).

Table 3.

*Mediation effect of Work Engagement between the Relationship of Workplace Social Inclusion and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*

<i>Path</i>	<i>Total Effect (c)</i>	<i>Direct Effect (c')</i>	<i>Indirect Effect (ab)</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>BC95% CI</i> Lower	<i>BC95% CI</i> Upper	<i>Sign/NS</i> (ab)
WE – WSI – OCB	0.13**	0.09	0.13	0.03	0.05	0.19	SIGN

Notes: WE = Work Engagement, WSI = Workplace Social Inclusion, OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

NS = Non-significant, SIGN = Significant, \*p <.05. \*\*p <.01, \*\*\*p <.001

Indirect effect (ab) = .7 x .18 = .13

## 5.6. Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Hierarchical regression analyses in SPSS were performed to analyse the demographic variables contribution to work engagement. Hierarchical regression analysis is an advanced form of linear regression, used to assess the unique variance contributed to by control variables (Aiken & West, 1991). Utilising work engagement as the outcome variable, the following steps were undertaken, Step 1: gender (codes as 1 = female, 2 = male), working hours (codes as 1 = full-time, 2 = part-time) and tenure (codes as 1 = less than 2 years, 2 = 2-4 years, 3 = 4-6 years, 4 = more than 6 years). Analysis of these demographic variables was supported through a thorough literature review as demonstrated in Chapter 2 and 3. For example, previous research has demonstrated that gender is a factor implicating how included individuals feel in organisations (Konrad et al., 2000). In addition, lower tenured employees was illustrated as a factor implicating individuals' perceptions of workplace social inclusion and work engagement, based on the premise that reciprocity norms are more significant for lower tenured employees (Bal et al., 2013). The three demographic factors, alongside the independent variable of workplace social inclusion were entered at Step 2. Table 4 displays the results for the outcome variable work engagement. As can be seen, the contribution of demographic variables was statistically non-significant in Step 1 ( $R^2 = .006$ ;  $p = .89$ ). However, after entering the independent variable of workplace social inclusion in Step 2, an additional 30% of variance in work engagement was explained at a statistically significant level ( $p < .000$ ). Although, of these four variables entered in Step 2, only workplace social inclusion was established to be significant. Thus, support for gender (H3), tenure (H4) and working hours (H5) was not found.

Table 4.

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Work Engagement*

Model	Work Engagement			
	Step 1 B	Step 1 $\beta$	Step 2 B	Step 2 $\beta$
<b>Variable</b>				
Gender	-.03	-.01	-.41	-.13
Working Hours	-.28	-.08	-.40	-.11
Tenure	.00	.00	.03	.02
Workplace Social Inclusion	-	-	.75***	.56***
<b><math>\Delta R^2</math></b>	.01		.00	
<b><math>\Delta F</math></b>	.19		.19	
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	.01		.30***	
<b>F</b>	.19		45	

Notes. B = unstandardized;  $\beta$  = standardised; Female = 1; Male = 2; Working hours 1 = full-time, 2 = part-time; Tenure 1 = less than 2 years, 2 = 2-4 years, 3 = 4-6 years, 4 = more than 6 years).

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

## CHAPTER 6

### 6. DISCUSSION

#### 6.1. Interpretation of Findings

The primary goal of this study was to examine the direct and indirect influences of workplace social inclusion as depicted by the simple mediation model. The intent of this chapter is to present the key findings and develop conclusions drawn from the results. Consequently, I will begin my discussion with the findings of the indirect, mediated relationship of work engagement on workplace social inclusion and OCB. Following this, discussions will be based on the direct relationship depicted between workplace social inclusion and OCB. Finally, discussion surrounding the depicted control variables will begin.

The present study established some important findings concerning workplace social inclusion. In the analysis of H1, a direct effect of workplace social inclusion on OCB was observed. These findings suggest that participants who indicated higher levels of workplace social inclusion also reported higher levels of OCB within their organisation. This finding lends support to previous research which highlighted the importance of workplace social inclusion within organisations for its contributions to increased cognitive performance (Baumeister, Twenge & Nuss, 2002) and extra discretionary effort (Shirazi & Sharifirad, 2013). In close alignment to research presented by Shirazi and Sharifirad (2013), workplace social inclusion was established to be a valuable factor influencing individual's tendency to engage in OCB. In essence, it can be said that workplace social inclusion acts to promote effective functioning through its relationship to positive organisational behaviour as it denoted by OCB. A thorough literature review presented in Chapter 2, suggested that in order to account for OCB in organisations, social contracts with strong relational characteristics must be present. The strong correlation between workplace social inclusion and OCB established statistical support for this notion. Furthermore, it demonstrated that the extent of an employee's displayed OCB is a reflection of the level of social characteristics in an employee's working environment in comparison to the more transactional components such as shared tasks (Organ & Moorman, 1993). This idea highlights an important correlation between the two variables that is, relational components of a working environment evoke high levels of OCB where individuals feel included and valued in their organisation (Alfes et

al., 2012; Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1994). As suggested by Hui, Lee and Wang (2015) employees' primary return from employment is reflected through tangible returns such as income, yet employees frequently desire much more than such transactional components. For example, supportive job resources reflected through perceptions of workplace social inclusion is recognised as an important intangible outcome for employees (Pearce & Randel, 2004).

The most statistically significant correlation was observed between workplace social inclusion and work engagement (H2). This significant finding highlights the level of inclusion an individual feels within the social structure of their organisation, directly implicates individuals self-reported levels of work engagement. This relationship lends support to the social context of work engagement as highlighted by Bakker et al (2011), that is, work engagement has value for the primary social connections individuals form at work. Previous research has highlighted that the experience of work engagement goes beyond an internal process to account for the social and psychological dynamics that facilitate it (Bakker et al, 2011). In addition, Bakker et al. (2011) established that the social context of work engagement emphasizes the concepts value in organisations, as it has relevance for the relationships employees develop and maintain in organisations. As Kahn (1990) reported over 20 years ago, individual levels of engagement are said to increase when the working environment has a climate conducive of rewarding interactions between co-workers. This environment is said to be characterised through that of workplace social inclusion (Randel & Ranft, 2007), where meaningful interactions are derived from perceptions of inclusion within the social structure of the organisation. Consequently, this research highlights workplace social inclusion as a condition supporting and facilitating the experience of work engagement.

It was hypothesised that females would have higher reported levels of workplace social inclusion and consequently report higher levels of work engagement (H3). However, this association failed to establish statistical significance, contrary to previous findings (Konrad et al., 2000). In previous research, gender has been established as a dominant variable implicating individual's tendency to engage in the social structure of the organisation (Konrad et al., 2000). Specifically, female social structures are said to dictate day-to-day social interactions which have implications for levels of workplace social inclusion and work engagement, as demonstrated through the reciprocal relationship these variables share. To

demonstrate this, when individuals display beneficial behaviours towards their colleagues or their organisation, these behaviours are likely to be reciprocated by reward and beneficial behaviours from others (Runhaar et al., 2013). Thus, work engagement within such gendered social structures are said to increase by such a process (Saks, 2006). The literature on gendered social structures highlights that communication between individuals is influenced by gender and the social structures that individuals are associated with (Brewer & Brown, 1998). As such, in a large enterprise, it was anticipated that workplace social inclusion within such social structure would affect levels of work engagement. Several explanations can be offered for the lack of predictive ability of females on workplace social inclusion and work engagement. In addition, Firstly, the low sample size gathered creates issues with analysis as results are difficult to generalise. In addition, the sample composition discussed in Chapter 4 established that 72% of respondents were male, while the remaining 28% were female. Consequently, it is difficult to establish significance with such low levels of data on females. While support for this finding was not established, this does not necessarily mean no effect exists, rather that the effect was not large enough to establish statistical significance in the given data set. Despite this, a non-significant finding for H3 has value in its own right. For example, with some studies highlighting conflicting support for the effect of gender on workplace social inclusion and work engagement, this finding lends support to the notion females do affect the relationship between workplace social inclusion and work engagement. This finding aligns closely with research from Randel and Ranft (2007), who utilised the workplace social inclusion construct and found no difference in perceptions of collegial relationships at work.

The literature on tenure to act as a predictor variable between workplace social inclusion and work engagement has not been established in the literature to date. However, tenure within the work engagement literature has been established with inconsistent findings (Coffman et al., 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2013). H4 was developed to assess tenure within the current study for its predictive ability between workplace social inclusion and work engagement. Most commonly, the associations between tenure and work engagement are said to be at their peak among shorter tenured employees (Bal et al., 2013). While the current study did not establish support for this notion, the lack of statistical significance for H4 can be attributed to the following reasons. One possible reason can be associated to the lack of variability in tenure data resulting in a lack of statistical difference in subsequent analyses. For example, over 55 percent of participants had more than 6 years' experience in their role. The second largest

category was held by individuals who had less than 2 years' experience representing 17 percent. In addition, analysis of small data sets within large ranges creates challenges in testing for complex patterns. This, alongside a small data set of 109 participants, may have contributed to a lack of statistical significance in results. While this result was unexpected, its contributions to research can still be acknowledged. For example, with calls in the management literature to consider contextual factors such as employed hours (Kristensen et al., 2004) on levels of workplace social inclusion and work engagement, this finding contributes by suggesting that tenure had no observable effect on this relationship.

Next, analysis was done on hours of employment, i.e. part-time versus full-time employees (H5). The theory on partial inclusion suggested that individuals working on a reduced time basis (i.e. part-time), are less included in the social structure of their organisation (Martin & Hafer 1995), and are consequently less likely to emit work engagement behaviours as evidenced by a strong positive association between workplace social inclusion and work engagement. While previous empirical and theoretical evidence supports the notion that conditions of employment would implicate levels of workplace social inclusion and work engagement (Martin & Hafer, 1995), H5 established non-significant results. One possible explanation for this finding is the lack of participant variability in contracted hours. For example, 80 percent of participants worked on a full-time basis, leaving only 22 participants to be analysed for their part-time association to workplace social inclusion. In addition, the limitation of a small sample size limited the ability to analyse and test characteristics at different levels. Consequently, more complex patterns in the data were unable to be established. These factors together significantly disadvantaged the results probability to establish significance.

In support of H6, work engagement conditioned (mediated) the relationship between participant's perceptions of workplace social inclusion and OCB. While research has demonstrated that engagement shares an important relationship with organisational and performance outcome variables (Wollard & Shuck, 2011; Saks, 2006), its role as a mediating variable between workplace social inclusion and OCB has not been examined in prior literature. This finding lends support to Bakker and Demerouti (2009), that is, positive affective states as is depicted through work engagement, have the capability to influence employees' momentary thought-action repertoires aiding the development of personal, social and psychological resources, as is illustrated by workplace social inclusion and OCB. These

social resources represent a valuable source of knowledge and support which pertains to the work engagement experience (Bakker et al., 2011). Although work engagement is a personal experience, it does not occur in isolation as illustrated by Hakanen and Roodt (2010). It can be said that the social resources individuals acquire whilst at work are purposeful in achieving given tasks (Salanova et al., 2010). These resources are demonstrated by the social, psychological and institutional dynamics that facilitate work engagement (Bakker et al., 2011), and are conducive of constructs such as workplace social inclusion and OCB. This mediated relationship highlights work engagements role as a motivational-affective state with the ability to facilitate the relationship between social resources (workplace social inclusion) and human behaviour (OCB). Consequently, the relationships depicted in the simple mediation model can be described as one of reciprocity which is valuable for the field of organisational behaviour.

Last but certainly not least, the finding that work engagement is positively correlated to OCB was statistically significant, contributing to our understanding of its value in an organisational setting. H7 highlights work engagement as an important individual behaviour that is directly related to the extent individuals engage in OCB. This finding contributes to the increasing empirical and conceptual support for linking work engagement to OCB, with several researchers confirming work engagement is positively related to OCBs. Work engagement involves the active use of emotional, cognitive and behavioural energies channelled toward achieving the organisation's goals and objectives (Macey & Schneider, 2008). As Garg, Kataria and Rastogi (2013) highlight, certainly then work engagement is a function of effective organisational performance and individuals who experience this affective state are more likely to do things that augment organisational effectiveness (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Such factors come in the form of OCBs which are widely considered both crucial and beneficial to organisations effective functioning (Wei, Han & Hsu, 2010). The energy and dedication inherent in work engagement provide the necessary motivation for full immersion in tasks. With the complexities of contemporary organisations working against specifying every detail of an employer's role expectations, positive internal states such as work engagement are crucial to fostering OCBs. Hence, the correlation between these two factors is incredibly valuable for understanding how individual behaviour implicates organisational outcomes. The findings of the present study fit with existing theorisation and literature.

## CHAPTER 7

### 7. CONCLUSION

#### 7.1. Findings

This research attempted to add to the empirical and theoretical understanding of workplace social inclusion and highlight the value of its presence in the workplace. Consequently, this research aimed to fill a gap in the social exchange literature by examining the relationship between workplace social inclusion, work engagement and OCB. The results provide empirical support to the conceptual framework developed and thus, represent a unique contribution to the field of positive psychology, management and organisational behaviour. The findings extend previous research on workplace social inclusion (Pearce & Randel, 2004) into an organisational domain and demonstrate the variable's value as a dynamic predictor variable for other positive individual behaviours such as work engagement and OCB.

While researchers (see Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith & Organ, 1983) have established correlations between OCB and several organisational and individual level outcomes such as employee satisfaction, age, tenure and personality, no study has conceptualised the potential for its relationship to social variables such as workplace social inclusion. Determining exactly how OCB is facilitated through the organisation's social system has been of increasing interest to scholars and managers alike (Mohammad, Habib, Alias, 2011).

These finding interpreted in Chapter 6 shed light on the nature of the relationship between perceptions of workplace social inclusion and individual behaviour such as work engagement and OCB, by demonstrating that where employees' perceptions of workplace social inclusion are high, citizenship behaviour and work engagement is enhanced. The outcomes established in this research add to the limited body of literature on workplace social inclusion for the value it holds at both an individual and organisational level outcome (Randel & Ranft, 2007). Moreover, this research illuminates work engagement as a mechanism which accounts for the relationship between workplace social inclusion and individual behaviour. Consequently, individuals who have high perceptions of workplace social inclusion in their organisation are more likely to be engaged in their jobs and therefore have a higher propensity to enact OCBs.

## 7.2. Practical and Theoretical Implications

This research had a number of practical implications. Firstly, given the increasing utilisation and need for collaboration of work groups to accomplish organisational and individual goals, the examination of workplace social inclusion offered a unique insight into the value of an organisations social structure for work engagement and OCBs. The literature review in Chapter 2 highlighted that organisations need to be aware that, in addition to a consistent set of Human Resource Management (HRM) policies and practices, the wider organisational climate is critical in establishing an organisation that is conducive of positive individual behaviour, contributing to the overall goals of the organisation. This research established that how included individuals feel within their organisation directly implicates self-reported levels of work engagement, and in addition, how probable individuals were to enact OCBs.

## 7.3. Limitations and Future Research

As is the case for all research, the present study has limitations. The use of a cross-sectional survey merely provided a representation of employees' perceptions, thoughts and feelings at one point in time. Consequently, it is difficult to determine the direction of effects because these subjective perceptions cannot be isolated nor can their effect on results be interpreted. In addition, the small sample size limits the type of statistical analyses that could have been adopted. While research suggested the most effective analysis for the type of data gathered was best applied through Hayes Process Analysis (2013), it would have been interesting to establish more complex analyses had the sample size been larger. While the relationship between workplace social inclusion and work engagement was established as significant, it is important to note the potential alternative conditions under which this could occur. Firstly, it should be acknowledged that despite the significant correlation between workplace social inclusion and work engagement, there is no way to establish exactly how this relationship takes form. Because the data is qualitative in nature and relied on self-report perceptions of the variables in question, high perceptions of workplace social inclusion and work engagement may occur in isolation of one another. That is, individuals who feel socially included may also feel high levels of engagement, but this does not necessarily prove one to be a predictor of the other. There is a possibility that the two concepts interrelated features may result in similarities of self-report measures. As a result, the current analysis procedure

does not account for complete variance amongst variables and therefore limits the extent of research applications.

A further limitation arises from the use of self-report measures. Self-report measures are subjective and can consequently be influenced by several contextual factors, such as a bad day at work or a disagreement with a colleague. Despite the scales validated reliability, such factors should be acknowledged for their potential to influence results. In addition, the nature of this study gathered the data at one point in time rather than over prolonged periods (i.e. longitudinal). This then creates challenges in the generalizability of results.

For this research to have greater impact it should be acknowledged that a larger sample size from a broader range of participants (i.e. more comparable data from both full-time and part-time arenas), in order to draw a greater understanding of the nature and consequences of workplace social inclusion in organisations. As acknowledged in Chapter 4 and 5, OCB established significance levels for four out five independent factors. While OCB was presented at the construct level in accordance with the research aims and prior literature, it would have been interesting to undertake research at a facet level, thus understanding the constructs dimensionality with the proposed variables of this study. Consequently, future research should be directed toward conceptualising OCB at a facet level, establishing how the unique aspects of OCBs makeup is accounted for with individual behaviours such as workplace social inclusion and work engagement.

#### 7.4. Conclusion

Irrespective of the study's shortcomings, the findings offer valuable insight to the nature and consequences of workplace social inclusion and offer proactive suggestions for future research to be conducted. This research aimed to contribute to the understanding of workplace social inclusion, by conceptualising how it functions in organisations thus, uncovering its value as a positive individual behaviour. The current study painted workplace social inclusion as a vast and relatively ill-defined area requiring research to (1) generate consensus on its definition, (2) develop sound mechanisms for its measurement, and (3) understand its contributions to important individual and organisational outcomes such as work engagement and OCB. A comprehensive literature review highlighted in Chapter 2,

identified several opportunities in the research to further advance, which essentially aimed to inform the chosen hypothesis development in Chapter 3. Few studies have incorporated social sources such as workplace social inclusion to predict work engagement and OCB (Hakanen & Roodt, 2010), providing a unique opportunity to develop understanding of its value in organisations. While employees who have positive perceptions of their organisation demonstrate higher levels of work engagement, the extent to which they feel included within the social context of their organisation ultimately influences the extent to which they engage in OCBs. It is therefore not sufficient to merely engage people in their work; employees also need to develop and maintain feelings of inclusion within their organisation to maximise the benefits of engagement (Alfes et al., 2012). This present study discussed findings in terms of their contribution to theory and the field of HRM, aiming to provide valuable insight in to the role of workplace social inclusion, work engagement and OCB in organisations.

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## 9. Appendixes

### 9.1. Appendix 1 – Mediation Analysis

```
*****
Model = 4
  Y = NEWOCB
  X = MEANWSI
  M = MEANWE
```

```
Sample size
      109
```

```
*****
Outcome: MEANWE
```

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.5413	.2930	1.4454	44.3493	1.0000	107.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.2268	.4045	7.9763	.0000	2.4248	4.0287
MEANWSI	.7049	.1059	6.6595	.0000	.4951	.9148

```
*****
Outcome: NEWOCB
```

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4452	.1982	.2771	13.1029	2.0000	106.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.1748	.2237	18.6668	.0000	3.7314	4.6183
MEANWE	.1801	.0423	4.2546	.0000	.0962	.2640
MEANWSI	.0050	.0551	.0905	.9281	-.1043	.1143

```
***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****
Outcome: NEWOCB
```

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2476	.0613	.3213	6.9872	1.0000	107.0000	.0094

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.7559	.1907	24.9339	.0000	4.3778	5.1340
MEANWSI	.1319	.0499	2.6433	.0094	.0330	.2309

```
***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS *****
```

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.1319	.0499	2.6433	.0094	.0330	.2309

Direct effect of X on Y

	Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
	.0050	.0551	.0905	.9281	-.1043	.1143
Indirect effect of X on Y						
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
MEANWE	.1269	.0345	.0658	.2039		
Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y						
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
MEANWE	.2180	.0574	.1097	.3416		
Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y						
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
MEANWE	.2382	.0605	.1275	.3705		
Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y						
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
MEANWE	.9622	3.1900	.3799	3.9460		
Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y						
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
MEANWE	25.4500	640.7342	19.5042	20200.8372		
R-squared mediation effect size (R-sq_med)						
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
MEANWE	.0612	.0462	-.0155	.1643		
Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared						
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
MEANWE	.2114	.0526	.1085	.3222		
Normal theory tests for indirect effect						
	Effect	se	Z	p		
	.1269	.0357	3.5570	.0004		

## 9.2. Appendix 2 – Measurement Scales

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Measurement: Source: Podsakoff et al., (1990)

Responses are obtained using a 7-point Likert Scale where 1= *Strongly Disagree* and 7= *Strongly Agree*. Items labelled (R) are reversed scored.

<b>Altruism Items:</b>	
1. Help others who have heavy workloads	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Helps others who have been absent	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Willingly helps others who have work-related problems	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. Helps orient new people even though it's not required	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
<b>Consciousness Items:</b>	
1. are one of the most consciousness employees	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. attendance at work is above the norm	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4 Does not take extra breaks	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
<b>Sportsmanship Items:</b>	
1. is the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing ®	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters ®	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" ®	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Always focuses on what's wrong, rather than the positive side ®	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. Always find fault with what the organisation is doing ®	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
<b>Courtesy Items:</b>	
1. Tries to avoid creating problems for co-workers	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Considers the impact of his/her actions on co-workers	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Does not abuse the rights of others	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other employees	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. is mindful of how his/her behaviour affects other people's jobs	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
<b>Civic Virtue Items:</b>	
1. Keeps abreast of changes in the organisation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Attends functions that are not required, but help the company image	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Reads and keeps up with organisation announcements, memos, etc.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Work Engagement Measurement: Work and Well-Being Survey (UWES) Source: Schaufeli and Bakker (2003). Note: VI = Vigor scale; DE = Dedication scale; AB = Absorption scale. (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale) Responses are obtained using a 6-point Likert Scale where 1= *Never* and 6= *Always*

Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Everyday
1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy (a) (VI1)						
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (a) (VI2)						
3. I am enthusiastic about my job (a) (DE2)						
4. My job inspires me (a) (DE3)						
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (a) (VI3)						
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely (a) (AB3)						
7. I am proud of the work that I do (a) (DE4)						
8. I am immersed in my work (a) (AB4)						
9. I get carried away when I am working (a) (AB5)						

Workplace social inclusion measurement: Source: Pearce and Randel (2004). Responses are obtained using a 5-point Likert Scale where 1= *Disagree* and 5= *Agree*. Items labelled (R) are reversed scored.

Item	Scale
1. I feel like an accepted part of a team.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I feel included in most activities at work.	1 2 3 4 5
3. Sometimes I feel like an outsider (R)	1 2 3 4 5

### 9.3. Appendix 3 – Factor Analysis for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Factor loadings after the removed items 5, 10, 16

**Pattern Matrix**

	Component				
	1 (5)	2 (3)	3 (1)	4 (4)	5 (2)
A1			.940		
A2			.794		
A3			.899		
A4			.440		
Con1					.582
Con2					.797
Con3					.836
Con4	-.527				.347
Sp1		.689			
Sp2		.906			
Sp3		.829			
Sp4		.612			
Sp5		.661			
Co2				.701	
Co3		.334		.720	
Co4				.809	
Co5				.832	
Ci1	.553				
Ci2	.595				
Ci3	.777				
Ci4	.653				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 15 iterations.

## 9.4. Appendix 4 – Correlation Matrix for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

### Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1				
2	.163	1			
3	.266	.141	1		
4	.225	.297	.319	1	
5	.138	.227	.277	.328	1

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

## 9.5. Appendix 5 - Process Analysis OCB Independent Factors

### 9.5.1. Appendix 6 – Courtesy

\*\*\*\*\*

Model = 4  
 Y = newCOUR  
 X = MEANWSI  
 M = MEANWE

Sample size  
 107

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: MEANWE

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.5403	.2920	1.4554	43.2976	1.0000	105.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.1859	.4167	7.6455	.0000	2.3597	4.0122
MEANWSI	.7131	.1084	6.5801	.0000	.4982	.9279

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: newCOUR

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1859	.0345	.4217	1.8604	2.0000	104.0000	.1608

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.5677	.2799	19.8954	.0000	5.0128	6.1227
MEANWE	.0699	.0525	1.3314	.1860	-.0342	.1741

MEANWSI .0315 .0693 .4551 .6500 -.1059 .1690

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: newCOUR

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
p	.1345	.0181	.4248	1.9340	1.0000	105.0000
	.1673					

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.7906	.2251	25.7219	.0000	5.3442	6.2369
MEANWSI	.0814	.0585	1.3907	.1673	-.0347	.1975

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS \*\*\*\*\*

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.0814	.0585	1.3907	.1673	-.0347	.1975

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.0315	.0693	.4551	.6500	-.1059	.1690

Indirect effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.0499	.0511	-.0543	.1499

Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.0762	.0791	-.0866	.2335

Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.0824	.0838	-.0966	.2505

Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.6125	38.9211	-2.2697	29.3931

Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	1.5808	20.6342	.1434	193.2476

R-squared mediation effect size (R-sq\_med)

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.0162	.0252	-.0171	.0901

Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.0700	.0566	.0017	.1904

Normal theory tests for indirect effect

Effect	se	Z	p
.0499	.0386	1.2907	.1968

## 9.5.2. Appendix 7 – Altruism

Model = 4  
 Y = newALT  
 X = MEANWSI  
 M = MEANWE

Sample size  
 109

\*\*\*\*\*  
 Outcome: MEANWE

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.5413	.2930	1.4454	44.3493	1.0000	107.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.2268	.4045	7.9763	.0000	2.4248	4.0287
MEANWSI	.7049	.1059	6.6595	.0000	.4951	.9148

\*\*\*\*\*  
 Outcome: newALT

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.2923	.0854	.5064	4.9513	2.0000	106.0000	.0088

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.8819	.3024	16.1462	.0000	4.2825	5.4814
MEANWE	.1379	.0572	2.4107	.0176	.0245	.2514
MEANWSI	.0295	.0745	.3957	.6931	-.1182	.1772

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*  
 Outcome: newALT

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1879	.0353	.5291	3.9150	1.0000	107.0000	.0504

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.3270	.2448	21.7638	.0000	4.8418	5.8122
MEANWSI	.1267	.0640	1.9786	.0504	-.0002	.2537

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS \*\*\*\*\*

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.1267	.0640	1.9786	.0504	-.0002	.2537

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.0295	.0745	.3957	.6931	-.1182	.1772

Indirect effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI

```

MEANWE      .0972      .0458      .0124      .1890

Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y
      Effect      Boot SE      BootLLCI      BootULCI
MEANWE      .1319      .0614      .0125      .2445

Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y
      Effect      Boot SE      BootLLCI      BootULCI
MEANWE      .1442      .0646      .0163      .2679

Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y
      Effect      Boot SE      BootLLCI      BootULCI
MEANWE      .7673      6.8790      -.3069      7.3400

Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y
      Effect      Boot SE      BootLLCI      BootULCI
MEANWE      3.2980      42.3448      .8678      563.8835

R-squared mediation effect size (R-sq_med)
      Effect      Boot SE      BootLLCI      BootULCI
MEANWE      .0339      .0332      -.0174      .1159

Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared
      Effect      Boot SE      BootLLCI      BootULCI
MEANWE      .1241      .0552      .0137      .2229

Normal theory tests for indirect effect
      Effect      se      Z      p
      .0972      .0433      2.2445      .0248

```

\*\*\*\*\* ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS \*\*\*\*\*

### 9.5.3. Appendix 8 – Conscientiousness

```

Model = 4
      Y = newCONS
      X = MEANWSI
      M = MEANWE

```

```

Sample size
      109

```

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: MEANWE

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.5413	.2930	1.4454	44.3493	1.0000	107.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.2268	.4045	7.9763	.0000	2.4248	4.0287
MEANWSI	.7049	.1059	6.6595	.0000	.4951	.9148

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: newCONS

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2739	.0750	.5412	4.2980	2.0000	106.0000	.0160

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.9236	.3126	15.7515	.0000	4.3038	5.5433
MEANWE	.1458	.0592	2.4655	.0153	.0286	.2631
MEANWSI	.0000	.0770	-.0005	.9996	-.1528	.1527

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*  
 Outcome: newCONS

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
p	.1482	.0220	.5669	2.4034	1.0000	107.0000
	.1240					

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.3941	.2533	21.2922	.0000	4.8919	5.8964
MEANWSI	.1028	.0663	1.5503	.1240	-.0286	.2342

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS \*\*\*\*\*

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.1028	.0663	1.5503	.1240	-.0286	.2342

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.0000	.0770	-.0005	.9996	-.1528	.1527

Indirect effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.1028	.0460	.0166	.1975

Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.1357	.0601	.0241	.2637

Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.1483	.0647	.0252	.2836

Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	1.0004	18.9047	-1.1171	13.2875

Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	-2571.1654	3968.5707	-125469.17	-125469.17

R-squared mediation effect size (R-sq\_med)

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.0220	.0283	-.0226	.0930

Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.1271	.0539	.0210	.2348

Normal theory tests for indirect effect

Effect	se	Z	p
.1028	.0449	2.2895	.0220

### 9.5.4. Appendix 9- Sportsmanship

\*\*\*\*\*

Model = 4  
 Y = Sportsmanship  
 X = MEANWSI  
 M = MEANWE

Sample size  
 109

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: MEANWE

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.5413	.2930	1.4454	44.3493	1.0000	107.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.2268	.4045	7.9763	.0000	2.4248	4.0287
MEANWSI	.7049	.1059	6.6595	.0000	.4951	.9148

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: Sport

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
.2640	.0697	.6448	3.9711	2.0000	106.0000
p	.0217				

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.0960	.3412	9.0742	.0000	2.4195	3.7724
MEANWE	.1449	.0646	2.2442	.0269	.0169	.2729
MEANWSI	.0184	.0841	.2185	.8275	-.1483	.1851

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: Sport

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
.1597	.0255	.6691	2.8001	1.0000	107.0000
p	.0972				

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.5635	.2752	12.9472	.0000	3.0179	4.1092
MEANWSI	.1205	.0720	1.6734	.0972	-.0223	.2633

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS \*\*\*\*\*

Total effect of X on Y						
Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
.1205	.0720	1.6734	.0972	-.0223	.2633	
Direct effect of X on Y						
Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
.0184	.0841	.2185	.8275	-.1483	.1851	
Indirect effect of X on Y						
MEANWE	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
	.1021	.0444	.0234	.2060		
Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y						
MEANWE	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
	.1238	.0543	.0231	.2373		
Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y						
MEANWE	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
	.1354	.0597	.0276	.2605		
Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y						
MEANWE	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
	.8476	57.6009	-.8688	6.6680		
Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y						
MEANWE	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
	5.5610	47.6615	1.4196	956.3890		
R-squared mediation effect size (R-sq_med)						
MEANWE	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
	.0251	.0290	-.0106	.1084		
Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared						
MEANWE	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
	.1159	.0491	.0235	.2226		
Normal theory tests for indirect effect						
Effect	se	Z	p			
.1021	.0485	2.1055	.0352			

### 9.5.5. Appendix 10 – Civic Virtue

```

*****
Model = 4
  Y = Civic
  X = MEANWSI
  M = MEANWE

Sample size
  107

*****
Outcome: MEANWE

Model Summary
  R      R-sq      MSE      F      df1      df2      p

```

.5403 .2920 1.4554 43.2976 1.0000 105.0000 .0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.1859	.4167	7.6455	.0000	2.3597	4.0122
MEANWSI	.7131	.1084	6.5801	.0000	.4982	.9279

\*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: Civic

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4334	.1878	1.1982	12.0253	2.0000	104.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.7540	.4717	5.8379	.0000	1.8185	3.6894
MEANWE	.3860	.0885	4.3596	.0000	.2104	.5616
MEANWSI	-.0544	.1169	-.4658	.6423	-.2862	.1773

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL \*\*\*\*\*

Outcome: Civic

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1985	.0394	1.4037	4.3059	1.0000	105.0000	.0404

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.9838	.4092	9.7350	.0000	3.1724	4.7952
MEANWSI	.2208	.1064	2.0751	.0404	.0098	.4319

\*\*\*\*\* TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS \*\*\*\*\*

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.2208	.1064	2.0751	.0404	.0098	.4319

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.0544	.1169	-.4658	.6423	-.2862	.1773

Indirect effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE .2753	.0796	.1474	.4741

Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE .2288	.0649	.1254	.3876

Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE .2474	.0667	.1429	.4126

Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE 1.2465	90.0986	.3977	8.9001

Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE -5.0572	285.9951	-2329.1776	-1.5309

R-squared mediation effect size (R-sq\_med)

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.0377	.0478	-.0468	.1409

Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
MEANWE	.2190	.0551	.1216	.3295

Normal theory tests for indirect effect

Effect	se	Z	p
.2753	.0763	3.6055	.0003