A SYSTEMATIC APPROACH TO RESOURCEFUL WORK ENGAGEMENT AMONG MILLENNIALS: HARNESSING PERSONAL RESOURCES

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ABSTRACT

Work engagement is becoming an important concept in modern business and society, particularly among the millennial generation, that will dominate the global working population. This study seeks to delve deeper into the work engagement of millennial lecturers in Indonesian higher education, including both predictors and consequences. This study employs a mixed-methods approach through a sequential exploratory design. First, it conducts an extensive literature review to formulate research hypotheses, which were then assessed quantitatively using Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling. Occupational self-efficacy and perceived organizational support manifest as personal and job resources, respectively, and dominate the work engagement literature. Specifically, the study demonstrates that occupational self-efficacy can moderate the effect of perceived organizational support on work engagement. Furthermore, work engagement acts as an important mediator in the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational engagement. From the viewpoints of social exchange theory and self-determination theory, the findings of this study shed light on the underlying mechanism of the effect of perceived organizational support on millennial lecturers’ organizational engagement. This study is one of only a few that focus on both work engagement and organizational engagement within an integrative conceptual framework.

Keywords: higher education, job resources, millennials, personal resources, work engagement

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1. INTRODUCTION

According to Meola (2016), the millennial generation will comprise 75 percent of the global workforce by 2025, creating a social phenomenon unprecedented in the current Society 5.0 era. The millennial generation has immense potential because of their ability to adapt rapidly to developments in a dynamic industrial environment. However, millennials are known as the “job-hopper” generation because they have a work engagement rate lower than other generations (Bhattacharya & Gandhi, 2020; Gallup, 2020). Along with the spread of globalization and the use of information technology (IT), the dominance of the millennial workforce, with its positive and negative stereotypes, presents a variety of challenges to organizations (Kim, 2018).

Due to their high IT literacy, the diverse characteristics of the millennials should empower them to contribute to the growth of innovation in organizations. However, many organizations face challenges because of the millennials’ lower commitment and engagement than prior generations (Hammond et al., 2019; Ozcelik, 2015). As the millennial generation increasingly dominates the workforce, the turnover rate grows higher than before (Cattermole, 2018; Jha et al., 2019). The biggest challenge for organizational leaders today is to respond by creating and retaining the work engagement of the millennial workforce within their organizations (Bhattacharya & Gandhi, 2020; Sahni, 2021).

Work engagement is essential since it reflects organizational efficiency and long-term viability (Albrecht et al., 2021; Baran, 2017; Eldor, 2018, 2020). Numerous studies have shown that work engagement relates to positive work outcomes. For example, work engagement is an antecedent of performance (Breevaart et al., 2016; Kim, 2017), more contextual creativity (Bakker et al., 2020; Chaudhary & Akhouri, 2019), high employee performance, and more innovative behavior (Cheng et al., 2020; Kwon & Kim, 2020). Employees with higher engagement levels experience success in their work and they can invest more energy, which contributes to better performance.

Work engagement is more crucial than ever since it involves sentiments other than job satisfaction, namely genuine dedication, pride, and dignity (Sattar et al., 2015). With automation and structural transformation dominating the new digital era, modern organizations require a workforce with high resilience and work engagement to make business processes relevant to today’s industrial demands (Malik & Garg, 2020). According to consulting company AON Hewitt, engagement has declined around the world to 62 percent from 68 percent in 2022, with the Asia-Pacific region experiencing the greatest drop. Furthermore, according to the Gallup Survey Report (Gallup, 2020), 87 percent of employees worldwide have poor work engagement, while only 13 percent are strongly engaged in their work. Organizations may expect higher turnover, more absenteeism, and poorer customer satisfaction as work engagement declines, all of which will contribute significantly to negative financial performance (Kincentric, 2023).

According to several studies, engagement is a multifaceted notion connected not just to work dimensions but also to organizational ones (Anthony-McMann et al., 2017; Bailey et al., 2017; Saks, 2019). When these individuals work in organizations, they must perform at least two primary roles: those associated with their employment and as members of the group. As a result, two types of engagement evolved, namely work engagement and organizational engagement, which were the most noteworthy findings in the studies by Saks (2006, 2019) since he succeeded in distinguishing between the two engagement constructs. The findings of this study have been examined and refined.
in a variety of settings and contexts (Albrecht et al., 2018; Malinen & Harju, 2017; Parent & Lovelace, 2018). However, comprehensive studies combining work engagement and organizational engagement in one research model have been relatively scarce until now.

To date, researchers and academics have focused more on work engagement as the dominant construct, while HR practitioners and professionals have been more interested in organizational engagement. Several key studies in the field of engagement have demonstrated that there are differences between these two constructs (Rai & Chawla, 2021; Saks, 2006, 2019). Numerous studies related to work outcomes have identified the impact of work engagement (in the individual realm) at the organizational level, such as organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intentions. Thus, studies on organizational engagement are still very limited. In addition, there is no firm agreement among researchers regarding the essence and construction of the concept of organizational engagement. Many studies have further investigated work engagement, but few have focused specifically on the millennial generation. The limitations of previous research provide an opportunity for this study to delve deeper into organizational engagement and the millennial generation.

This study elaborates on previous research on job resources and personal resources that might affect the millennial generation's work engagement. The mapping of empirical research that focuses on how resources enhance work engagement reveals that personal resource ownership can strengthen the impact of job resources on work engagement. According to the conservation of resources theory, individuals must invest resources to limit the loss of existing resources, conserve existing resources, or obtain other resources (Zhou et al., 2018). A key theoretical premise is that resource substitution explains how individuals invest resources to mitigate potential losses (Bettini et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2018).

To date, research on work engagement has centered on employees’ job resources rather than personal resources. Few studies have addressed how personal resources promote work engagement. Therefore, there is a need for additional research on the influence of personal resources on work engagement. Thus, the purpose of this study is to conduct a thorough evaluation of the literature on how resources affect work engagement and the consequences of organizational engagement. This study contributes to the literature by asserting that the different perspectives of individuals are personal resources that constitute a dualistic factor that is not only inherent in individuals but can also be stimulated and developed proactively in the workplace. Specifically, this study provides empirical evidence regarding the essential role of personal resources in shaping the millennial generation's work engagement, which has a positive impact on organizations through the escalation of organizational engagement.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Job Resources and Personal Resources

Job resources are working conditions that provide employees with work-related resources (Cheng & Chen, 2017). The term "job resources" is derived from the Job Demand-Resources model, which emphasizes the link between job resources and employee well-being, including work engagement (Lee et al., 2020; Searle & Lee, 2015). According to Patience et al. (2020), job resources can be
categorized into four levels: (a) organizational level (e.g. salary and career opportunities); (b) interpersonal and social relationships level (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support); (c) work organized within the organization level (e.g. participation in decision-making and role clarity); and (d) task level (e.g. autonomy, performance feedback, and skill variety). Among the different levels of job resources, those at the task level in particular are closely related to the theory of job characteristics. This link emphasizes the motivational and well-being potential underlying task-level resources through the relationship between job characteristics, psychological states, and personal and work outcomes (Ge, 2020; Han et al., 2021; Karatepe et al., 2018).

Personal resources are positive self-evaluations that are associated with various aspects of positive outcomes, including job involvement (Albrecht & Marty, 2020). These self-evaluations relate to resilience and refer to individuals’ sense of ability to control and affect their environment successfully (Chen & Fellenz, 2020). Moreover, personal resources are as aspects of positive psychological characteristics (Chen et al., 2021). In the context of job performance, personal resources are positive characteristics of individuals that allow them to manage their abilities in performing work-related roles (Carter et al., 2018; De Clercq et al., 2018).

2.2. Work Engagement and Organizational Engagement

Kahn (1990) first introduced the concept of personal engagement and defined it as an individual employee's attachment to their job position in the company; it means the harnessing of organizational members for their work duties. Individuals engaged in professional positions devote and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally. Work engagement is a concept that can motivate and enable individuals to be more energetic, dedicated, and productive at work, which, in turn, can lead to improved results related to organizational performance (Ladyshewsky & Taplin, 2018; Wang et al., 2017). Scholars have used many different terms to conceptualize engagement. For example, work engagement (Korsakienė et al., 2019), personal engagement (Wang et al., 2017), job engagement (Kumarasamy et al., 2022), and employee engagement (Eldor & Vigoda-Gadot, 2017; Nikolova et al., 2019; Turner, 2020). Until now, there has been a lack of consensus among scholars and researchers on what is the most appropriate term to define the essence of engagement.

The term employee engagement is often used interchangeably with work engagement which is defined as a multi-domain state of organizational members (i.e., cognitive, emotional, and behavioral) and is directed toward expected organizational performance-related outcomes. Kim & Kim (2020) identified three main themes: (a) the main scope of engagement tends to focus on work roles, activities, tasks, and behaviors; (b) the definition of engagement seems to focus on individual psychological states such as commitment, satisfaction, enthusiasm, fulfillment, and motivation; and (c) the core components of engagement relate to organizational consequences (e.g. performance).

The study of engagement then evolved, emphasizing not merely the psychological state of individuals toward their jobs but also their roles as members of an organization. The term "organizational engagement" emerged at the organizational level and was the most significant innovation in Saks’ research (2006), which was reaffirmed in 2019. Organizational engagement is characterized as an intellectual and emotional dedication to an organization (Saks, 2019). Organizational engagement is a dynamic and changeable psychological state that connects
employees with their organizations, manifests itself in the performance of employee roles that are expressed physically, cognitively, and emotionally, and is influenced by organizational-level internal communications (Rana, 2019). Furthermore, organizational engagement is an employee’s specific attitude with five characteristics, namely: working effectively for the organization; identification and strengthening (physical, emotional, and intellectual attachment to the organization); professional spirit; and independence in non-standard situations that accords with the organization’s objectives (Buła & Teczke, 2016).

2.3. **Hypotheses Formulation**

Job resources have a positive effect on work engagement, which ultimately leads to improved organizational outcomes through the job-resource demand model (JD-R) of work engagement (Albrecht et al., 2021; Kwon & Kim, 2020). If employees get the necessary job resources in an organization, they will become more involved and engaged over time (Hakanen & Peeters, 2015). Engaged employees show higher levels of energy and often involve themselves deeply in their field of work. Employees can work more constructively because of this engagement, which, in turn, can lead to increased organizational effectiveness and a stronger foundation (Carasco-Saul et al., 2015). Ultimately, this leads to an increase in the organization’s long-term sustainability. Employees feel supportive job resources help them reduce job demands and improve their psychological well-being (Kotze, 2018). Work engagement and psychological well-being are both generated and sustained when employees believe their employer values their work and is concerned about their well-being (Johnson et al., 2018). Among the numerous studies that have investigated job resources that influence work engagement, perceived organizational support is the strongest predictive factor (Imran et al., 2020; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Ott et al., 2019).

Research has shown that personal resources are important predictors of work engagement (Saks, 2022). Compared to other variables such as job resources, personal resources are more closely related to work engagement and can be used to explain and predict variance in employees’ work engagement scores (Shahpouri et al., 2016). Previous research has demonstrated that personal resources like self-efficacy (Liu & Huang, 2019; Lyons & Bandura, 2019), organizational self-esteem (AlKahtani et al., 2021), and optimism (Malinowski & Lim, 2015) can influence job engagement. Furthermore, previous studies have found resiliency to be a significant personal resource that can affect work engagement among nurses (Malik & Garg, 2020; Ojo et al., 2021). Therefore, this study frames its first hypothesis as follows:

**H1**: Occupational self-efficacy moderates the effect of perceived organizational support on work engagement.

This study proposes work engagement as a precursor to organizational engagement. This is based on the view that organizations need to achieve work engagement first to realize the benefits of being attached to the organization’s goals (Guest, 2014). Barrick et al. (2013) strengthened this view by emphasizing that meaningful work (as a job resource) is an antecedent of collective organizational engagement. Therefore, the authors assume that, to achieve organizational engagement, individual goals should be aligned with organizational goals. The more support the organization provides to individuals in carrying out their work, the more they will feel that their work is meaningful, resulting in work engagement that will eventually lead to engagement with the organization. Therefore, this study frames its second hypothesis as follows:
**H2:** Work engagement mediates the effect of perceived organizational support on organizational engagement.

**Figure 1: Research Model**

**3. METHODOLOGY**

**3.1. Data Collection Methods**

To achieve the research goal and objectives, a mixed-methods analysis was used. This study integrates qualitative and quantitative approaches to investigate, compile, analyze, and interpret its findings through an exploratory sequential mixed-methods design. In this design, the quantitative phase precedes the qualitative phase (Sabharwal et al., 2020). The authors begin by investigating the topic before determining the study’s variables. First, there is an exploration of academic understanding of the work engagement construct. This approach is necessary because there is no unanimous consensus about this topic.

The first phase of the research employs a systematic literature review technique to identify the most dominant job and personal resources influencing work engagement. The authors specifically searched reputable journals, Scopus-indexed journals, the Web of Science, Google Scholar, and other relevant databases. Owing to quality concerns, the authors discarded non-refereed publications, including theses, reports, book chapters, conceptual and review papers, or journal articles published by unknown publishers. Finally, 54 publications were included in this review. Figure 1 illustrates the selection process.
The literature review determined the job resources and personal resources that dominate the research on work engagement. Perceived organizational support is a job resource that is generally associated with work engagement, while occupational self-efficacy is a personal resource.

In the second stage, a quantitative approach is carried out through inferential statistical testing. The authors designed a reflective measure on a 5-point Likert scale, considering the variables derived from the qualitative phase. The purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between two types of resources and two constructs of engagement. The Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) analytic tool was then employed to test the research hypothesis.

3.2. Sample and Population

This research was conducted at a higher education institution in Bali, Indonesia. With the disruption caused by digitalization, these higher education institutions have to be able to transform the education system, curriculum, and work practices to produce graduates with the abilities required to adapt to current industrial changes (Khan et al., 2022). The millennial generation's dominance in many sectors, along with indicators of low work engagement, implies that higher education must be able to create a system that can inspire and foster engagement with millennial lecturers. To gain a competitive advantage in the shadow of the growing popularity of higher education across Bali, millennial lecturers must be more innovative, committed, and engaged with their work and organization.

The population in this study comprises all millennial lecturers who work at 31 private higher education institutions in Bali. In this study, millennial lecturers are defined as (1) those born between 1980 and 1999, (2) permanent lecturers, and (3) those who have worked for at least two years. These criteria were determined based on relevance to the research topic to generate valid
and accurate results. Based on these criteria, this study’s population comprises 362 millennial lecturers. The Slovin’s approach determines a minimum sample size of 190 respondents. Using proportionate sampling ensures that the sample represents each university proportionally.

3.3. Measurements

This study has adopted the Job Engagement Scale (Rich et al., 2010) consisting of 18 statement items as the research instrument to assess work engagement. Saks (2006) developed the six-item Organizational Engagement Scale to assess organizational engagement. The authors also used the Perceived Organizational Support Scale (Eisenberger et al., 2016) and the Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (Schyns & von Collani, 2002).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Qualitative Approach

The study sample consisted of 54 peer-reviewed international journal articles published between 2008 and 2021. The results of this systematic study show that the proportion of research that discusses job and personal resources is quite balanced, both specifically for each resource and the integration between the two (Figure 3).

**Figure 3: Bibliometric Data Visualization**

![Bibliometric Data Visualization](image)

**Source:** Vosviewer (2021)

Figure 3 is a visualization of the bibliometric data using VOSviewer software. The results show that research on the impact of personal resources on work engagement is relatively new and sparse; its position is in a cluster distant from the central point with a yellow correlation line. This implies
that academic attention to it only began in 2017. Self-efficacy, which is located far from the center, is one of the personal resources that has received scant attention. As a consequence, there will be major opportunities in the future to delve deeper into the relationship between self-efficacy and work engagement.

The authors used thematic analysis to undertake a more in-depth review of the articles selected from reputable journals. Thematic analysis is a qualitative data analysis process that entails going over a set of data and searching for patterns of meaning and certain themes. Of the 54 articles that met the criteria and were deemed worthy of detailed review, 38 articles specifically discussed work resources or personal resources, while the remaining 16 combined both types of resources. Table 1 summarizes the results of the thematic analysis in further detail.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources researched in studies/articles</th>
<th>Number of studies/articles</th>
<th>Author/researcher, year of publication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Resources</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor support (n=15); Autonomy (n=10); co-worker support (n=9); growth opportunities (n=8); perceived organizational support (n=7); feedback (n=5); social support (n=3); organizational justice (n=3); task variation (n=2); skill utilization (n=2); decision-making authority (n=2)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Hakanen et al. (2008); Karatepe &amp; Aga (2009); Hassan &amp; Jubari (2010); Shantz et al. (2013); Inoue et al. (2013); Mathumbu &amp; Dodd (2013); Sarti (2014); Jose &amp; Mampooily (2015); Suan &amp; Nasuridin (2016); Vander Elst et al. (2017); Albrecht, &amp; Su (2017); Hawkes et al. (2017); Albrecht et al. (2018); Imran et al. (2018); Weigl et al. (2018); Lee et al. (2019); Karatepe (2019); Radic et al. (2020); Patience et al. (2020); Albrecht &amp; Marty (2021)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal Resources</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy (n=17); optimism (n=5); self-esteem (n=4); resilience (n=4); psychological capital (n=3); proactive personality (n=3); emotional trait (n=2), big 5 personality (n=2)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Kim &amp; Hyun (2009); Dickers et al. (2010); Akhtar et al. (2012); Karatepe et al. (2012); Chaudary et al. (2012); Bakker et al. (2012); Laguna et al. (2013); Kašpárková et al. (2013); Chen (2016); Chan et al. (2016); Toyama &amp; Mauno (2017); Harunavamwe et al. (2018); Guaranci et al. (2018); Orgambidez et al. (2019); Han et al. (2020); Orgambidez et al. (2020); Rai et al. (2021); Ojo et al. (2021)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Combination of Job-Personal Resources</strong></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Quinones et al. (2008); Xanthopoulou et al. (2009); Liao et al. (2013); Caesens &amp; Stinglhamber (2014); Airila et al. (2014); Malik &amp; Garg (2015); Searle &amp; Lee (2015); Park et al. (2015); Liu et al. (2017); Kotze (2017); Karatepe &amp; Olugbade (2018); Upadayya et al. (2018); Cao &amp; Chen (2019); Ott et al. (2019); Majumdar &amp; Kumar (2020); Barbier et al. (2020).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Author (2022)*

### 4.2. Quantitative Approach
This study employed a variance-based or component-based method using Partial Least Square (SmartPLS) version 3.3.3 to test the hypotheses and generate a feasible model. Table 2 shows the results of the indirect effect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: The Results of Indirect Effect</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sample</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived Organizational Support (OSE) -&gt; Occupational Self Efficacy (OSE) -&gt; Work Engagement (WE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Organizational Support (POS) -&gt; Work Engagement (WE) -&gt; Organizational Engagement (OE)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source*: SmartPLS (2023)

The p-values and t-statistics from Table 2 for each variable are as follows.

The p-value of perceived organizational support’s effect on work engagement moderated by occupational self-efficacy is 0.000, less than 0.05, where the beta is 0.259 and the t-statistic is 6.668. Because the t-statistic outperforms the t-table (6.668 > 1.96), one can conclude that perceived organizational support can be mitigated by occupational self-efficacy. Because the coefficients b2 and b3 are significant, it can be stated that the moderating effect of occupational self-efficacy is quasi-moderation.

The p-value of perceived organizational support’s effect on organizational engagement mediated by work engagement is 0.003, less than 0.05, where the beta is 0.083 and the t-statistic is 3.036. Because the t-statistic outperforms the t-table (3.036 > 1.96), one can conclude that the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational engagement can be mediated by work engagement. The mediation effect in this study is complementary mediation since both direct and indirect influences are significant and point in the same direction.

### 4.3. Discussion

#### 4.3.1. The Moderating Effect of Occupational Self-Efficacy

Work engagement is based on the concept of personal engagement which states that three psychological conditions, one of which is psychological availability, must be met for people to feel engaged in their jobs. Psychological availability refers to the roles and resources available to enable people to be fully present (cognitively, affectively, and physically) in their work roles. The resources under consideration can be both physical (tangible) and mental (intangible). Individuals are unlikely to be willing to fully invest in their work if they lack the necessary resources. The availability of these resources allows individuals to strengthen their engagement in their work roles, both internally and externally. Therefore, the most prevalent theory on work engagement is the conservation of resources theory, which primarily emphasizes the significance of resources.
In the context of task management, there are two types of resources: job resources and personal resources. One of the key ideas in the conservation of resources theory is the possibility of these two types of resources replacing one another, which is referred to as resource substitution. They can affect work engagement, both partially and simultaneously, because one type of resource can compensate for the absence of another (Ott et al., 2019). According to the conservation of resources theory (de Clercq et al., 2018), self-efficacy indicates essential resources that stimulate employees’ engagement in performance-improvement activities because relevant resources are acquired. According to this theory, one rationale for self-efficacy that may lead to higher work performance is that these personal resources make people less anxious about their jobs (Clauss et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2021).

This study’s findings suggest that occupational self-efficacy can mitigate the influence of perceived organizational support on millennial lecturers’ work engagement, thus **hypothesis 1 is accepted**. Self-efficacy discusses how individuals regard themselves as competent or incapable of satisfying job expectations in a variety of settings. Millennial lecturers with high self-efficacy believe they can change negative circumstances and, as a corollary, are more likely to set high-performance objectives for themselves (Liu & Huang, 2019; Lyons & Bandura, 2019). They are also prepared to commit extensive time and energy to accomplish tasks and prefer to employ problem-focused solution-seeking mechanisms (Chan et al., 2017). Conversely, millennial lecturers with low self-efficacy may not set any goals for themselves; they tend to prefer exploitative or exploratory task demands and are more likely to worry about their shortcomings and think of their failures in response to frustration (Clauss et al., 2021).

Lecturers with high occupational self-efficacy are confident in their abilities to carry out their responsibilities. Consequently, they will be able to overcome any challenges that may emerge while carrying out those responsibilities. This belief manifests itself as an intrinsic part of individuals or as enhanced cognitive abilities at work. The presence of occupational self-efficacy has the potential to mitigate the deterioration in work engagement among millennial lecturers who are not provided with adequate job resources. From the perspective of resource conservation theory, worrying about the loss of resources (for example, organizational support) will induce a cyclical effect of procurement, resulting in the gradual acquisition of other resources (such as occupational self-efficacy). Millennial lecturers place a strong emphasis on learning and development opportunities; as a possible consequence, they will actively enhance their qualifications through various professional plans.

**4.3.2 The Mediating Effect of Work Engagement**

Work engagement was revealed to be capable of mediating the effect of perceived organizational support on the organizational engagement of millennial lecturers, thus **hypothesis 2 is accepted**. Millennial lecturers in private higher education institutions must first acquire work engagement to get the benefits of being part of the organization (Guest, 2015). This viewpoint has been confirmed by Barrick et al. (2015) who emphasize meaningful work (as a job resource) as a prerequisite for collective organizational engagement. Therefore, one can infer that, to achieve organizational engagement, individual goals should be aligned with organizational goals. The stronger the company's support for the work of millennial lecturers, the more significant they will feel, which tends to result in work engagement that inevitably leads to organizational engagement.
Social exchange theory and self-determination theory can shed light on the relationship between work engagement and organizational engagement. While achieving challenging tasks, individuals must exhibit proficiency, independence, and a sense of relatedness (Birasnav et al., 2019). These three components are the core of self-determination theory, specifically cognitive evaluation theory, which explains the role of intrinsic motivation in achieving goals if these three basic requirements are met (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Work engagement is a practical application of fulfilling these three requirements. Individuals are naturally compelled to reciprocate in the form of organizational engagement (Soininen et al., 2023).

Work engagement as a mediator between job resources (such as perceived organizational support) and job outcomes has been studied in the setting of for-profit enterprises or paid work (Lai et al., 2020). Saks (2006) demonstrated that work engagement moderates the impact of antecedents (including organizational support) on organizational commitment and turnover intention. Furthermore, work engagement can moderate the impact of perceived organizational support on organizational citizenship behavior (Ashfaq, 2021; Rahman & Karim, 2022). Also, work engagement moderates the influence of perceived organizational support on the intention to quit (Kim & Hyun, 2017; Sandhya & Sulphey, 2020).

Work engagement can completely mediate the influence of job characteristics on organizational engagement, according to the notable findings of (Rai & Maheshwari, 2020). According to the reciprocity norm, if individuals receive something favorable in the form of organizational support, they will feel obligated to reciprocate. Positively-perceived organizational support will gradually make lecturers willing to fully dedicate themselves physically, emotionally, and cognitively to their organization, meaning that organizational engagement will be fulfilled via work engagement. In this social exchange process, lecturers will likely exert more effort than needed in exchange for the organization's support, both in terms of work engagement and organizational engagement (Kundu & Lata, 2017).

5. CONCLUSION

This study portrays engagement as a multidimensional, dynamic term that accentuates the dualism of individual roles in work and an organization. The phenomena of low work and organizational engagement among millennials present new challenges for modern organizational leaders seeking a competitive advantage in the current industrial era. Firstly, the tendency of prior studies to focus on the construct of work engagement seen in terms of resource availability created opportunities for this study. This study emphasizes the ownership of personal resources, which manifests itself in the form of occupational self-efficacy to increase work engagement of millennial lecturers.

The literature on organizational support suggests that perceived organizational support may not have the same motivational effect under different circumstances. High personal resources can compensate for the perceived lack of organizational support as a job resource. When individuals feel confident and energized, they are likely to be engaged in their work even when they feel little support from the organization. Thus, the existence of personal resources in the form of occupational self-efficacy greatly determines the degree of engagement of millennial lecturers in their work.
Low job resources can be mitigated by having personal resources that are inherent or can be stimulated at work.

Prior research on the relationship between work and organizational engagement is limited. The former has received extensive academic attention, whereas the latter is still relatively scarce. According to this study’s findings, organizational engagement is a positive outcome of work engagement. Work engagement serves as a bridge between perceived organizational support and organizational engagement. This correlation may be explained using social exchange theory, with a focus on the principle of reciprocity. When millennial lecturers experience positive organizational support, they will feel compelled to reciprocate by boosting their level of engagement with both work and the organization. Therefore, private higher educational institutions can enhance the quality of these exchanges by providing lecturers with the organizational support they need, encompassing not only financial support but also psychological support in the form of concern for the lecturers’ well-being and positive appreciation for their endeavors.

This study has several limitations. First, while it has successfully identified potential variables that can influence the construction of work engagement, the context of cultural differences between generations should be carefully considered. It is difficult to pinpoint the exact reasons for the differences or similarities between millennials and other generations without conducting comprehensive research or reviewing all extant research on work engagement to make comparisons. As a result, future research could consider conducting thorough examinations of a variety of generations that exist in the workforce to make evidence-based comparisons. More research is also required to determine why generational differences occur.

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