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Work Engagement Antecedents and Consequences Across Generations in the United Arab Emirates

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WORK ENGAGEMENT ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES ACROSS GENERATIONS IN THE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES

Nahla Abdulla Al Haj Hassan M. Fadhlani

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctorate of Business Administration

Under the Supervision of Dr. Abdul Karim Khan

April 2017

Declaration of Original Work

I, Nahla Abdulla Al Haj Hassan M. Fadhlani, the undersigned, a graduate student at the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU), and the author of this dissertation entitled *"Work Engagement Antecedents and Consequences Across Generations in the United Arab Emirates"*, hereby, solemnly declare that this dissertation is my own original research work that has been done an prepared by me under the supervision of Dr. Abdul Karim Khan, in the College of Business and Economics at UAEU. This work has not previously been presented or published, or formed the basis for the award of any academic degree, diploma or a similar title at this or any other university. Any materials borrowed from other sources (whether published or unpublished) and relied upon or included in my dissertation have been properly cited and acknowledged in accordance with appropriate academic conventions. I further declare that there is no potential conflict of interest with respect to the research, data collection, authorship, presentation and/or publication of this dissertation.

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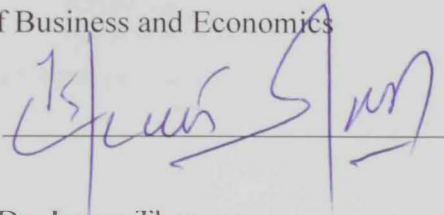
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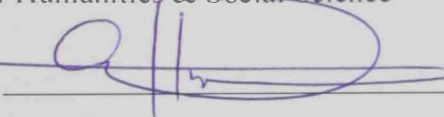
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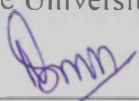
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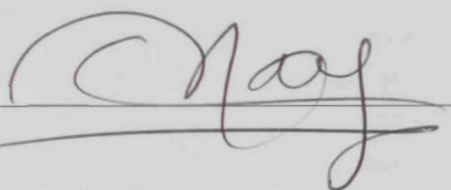
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Abstract

Drawing upon generational differences and work engagement literatures, this research examines the antecedents and consequences of work engagement in the context of the UAE, and the moderating effect of generational membership.

Statistics predicted that in the year 2015, 45% of the UAE labor market was comprised by individuals born between 1980 and 1999, known as the Y Generation. However, little is known about generational differences in the UAE, in particular among members of the Y Generation with respect to work engagement. Whereas organizations need suitable human resources practices and tools to ensure the consistency and growth of the three generations that are operating together for the first time in the current UAE labor market. This research accordingly identifies and examines organizational antecedents and associated consequences of work engagement in relation to both the current state of employment in the UAE and its broader culture, and the current literature on generational differences. As it also examines the moderating effect of generational membership on the hypothesized relationship of identified antecedents and consequences of work engagement.

A review of the literature identifies four key organizational antecedents, namely, job characteristics (performance feedback and job autonomy), rewards, corporate social responsibility and work/life balance. These have been found to be of great importance in the context of generations. Furthermore, the literature identifies three consequences of work engagement in the context of organizations and generations, namely, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave. These factors have been evaluated with regard to generational membership and associated differences in the UAE.

The results of the current study indicate that all the identified antecedents and consequences are positively correlated with work engagement in the context of the UAE's culture, except for work/life balance (as well as the negative expected relationship with the intention to leave). Moreover, the current study illustrates that generational membership moderated only two of the identified relationships associated with organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and intention to leave, the relationship being stronger for Baby Boomers than for the X and Y Generations.

To summarize, this study contributes to the literature on work engagement and generational differences in several relevant and substantive ways. First, it examines the impact of the selected organizational antecedents on work engagement and certain consequences in the context of the UAE's culture. Second, it examines the moderating effect of generational membership on the selected antecedents and consequences. Finally, it examines work engagement in the UAE workforce from both demographic and socioeconomic perspectives. In light of this, a list of recommended tools for enhancing work engagement is illustrated. The current study thereby promises a better

understanding of work engagement and generational differences in the context of the UAE, upon which it recommends that further attention should be paid to individual differences and organizational culture rather than tailoring HR policies and practices for the purpose of accommodating generational differences.

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Title and Abstract (in Arabic)

عوامل الإرتباط الوظيفي والنتائج المترتبة على مدى الأجيال في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة

الملخص

اعتماداً على الاختلافات الجيلية و الإرتباط الوظيفي، يتناول هذا البحث سوابق الإرتباط بالعمل والنتائج المنبثقة عنه في سياق دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة والإنتماء الجيلي .

حيث أشارت الاحصائيات أنه بحلول عام 2015 ، ضم سوق العمل في دولة الإمارات 45% من الأفراد الذين ولدوا بين عامي 1980 و 1999 ، و الذين يشار لهم باسم جيل "الألفية". قليلة هي المعلومات المتوفرة عن الإختلافات بين الأجيال في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة، وعلى وجه الخصوص تلك المتعلقة بالارتباط الوظيفي بالنسبة لجيل الألفية . بينما تحتاج المنظمات لممارسات الموارد البشرية المناسبة والأدوات التي تكفل اتساق ونمو الأجيال الثلاثة التي تعمل معا لأول مرة في سوق العمل الحالي في الدولة. وفقاً لذلك يحدد هذا البحث و يدرس السوابق المؤسسية للإرتباط الوظيفي والنتائج المرتبطة بها بما يتوافق مع كل من سوق العمل الإماراتي والثقافة السائدة ، وكذلك مع الأدبيات المتاحة ذات الصلة بالاختلافات الجيلية . حيث أنه يدرس أثر الأنتماء الجيلي على العلاقة المفترضة من السوابق و العواقب المتصلة بالارتباط الوظيفي.

بعد مراجعة البحوث و المعلومات المتوفرة في سياق الاختلافات الجيلية تم تحديد أربعة سوابق / أسس مؤسسية رئيسية بارزة ، وهي: خصائص الوظيفة: (التغذية الراجعة عن الأداء و الاستقلالية الوظيفية)، والمكافآت، والمسؤولية الاجتماعية المؤسسية، والتوازن بين الحياة و العمل. كما تم تحديد أربعة عواقب/نتائج للاندماج الوظيفي في إطار المؤسسات، وهي: الولاء المؤسسي، سلوك المواطنة المؤسسية، والنية لمغادرة المنظمة، و التي سيتم تقييمها فيما يتعلق بالانتماء الجيلي و الاختلافات الجيلية المنبثقة منها.

بناءً على ذلك أشارت نتائج الدراسة الحالية أن جميع السوابق المؤسسية و العواقب التي تم تحديدها ترتبط طردياً مع الارتباط بالعمل في سياق دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة ، باستثناء التوازن بين العمل و الحياة (بالإضافة إلى نية مغادرة المنظمة و التي من المتوقع ان تتناسب عكسياً مع الارتباط الوظيفي) .علاوة على ذلك ، أوضحت الدراسة الحالية أن عامل الانتماء الجيلي أدار إثنين فقط من العلاقات المحددة و هي تلك المتعلقة بالسلوك المواطنة المؤسسية ونية

للمغادرة، مع كون الصلة أقوى لمواليد ما قبل العام 1965 (طفرة المواليد) بالمقارنة مع الأجيال المتتالية (جيل الألفية و الذي يسبقة).

الارتباط الوظيفي والاختلافات بين الأجيال بعدة الارتباط بالعمل و النتائج المنبثقة منها في سياق ثقافة دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة. ثانياً، فإنها تفحص أثر الأنتماء الجيلي وأخيراً، فإنها تفحص الارتباط بالعمل في القوى العاملة في الدولة من كلا المنظورين : الديموغرافي والاجتماعي الاقتصادي. حيث أنه في في ضوء تلك النتائج تمت التوصية بالأدوات التي من شأنها تعزيز الارتباط الوظيفي.

و عليه فإن هذه الدراسة الحالية تمنح فرصة لفهم الاختلافات بين الأجيال في سياق الارتباط الوظيفي، و توصي بمزيد من الاهتمام للفروقات الفردية والثقافة المؤسسة بدلا من تبني و تعديل السياسات و الممارسات القائمة في الموارد البشرية لغرض الاختلافات الجيلية

مفاهيم البحث الرئيسية: الأختلافات الجيلية، الإرتباط الوظيفي ، جيل الألفية، السوابق المؤسسية للإربتاط الوظيفي ، النتائج المؤسسة للارتباط الوظيفي ، سوق العمل الإماراتي، ثقاقة مجتمع دولة الإمارات، ممارسات الموراد البشرية.

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My thanks go to Dr. Abdul Karim Khan whose support and guidance enabled me to further enhance my research skills and develop the required knowledge in the related filed.

I would like to thank my committee for their guidance, support, and assistance throughout my preparation of this dissertation. I am especially grateful to Prof. Mohammed Madi and Dr. Rihab Khalifa for their support throughout the doctorate journey.

Special thanks go to my parents, for the endless support, cousins and friends who helped me throughout this journey.

Dedication

To my beloved parents, who always believed in me, sometimes more than I personally do, my extended family, my coach, and friends grateful for your support throughout my doctorate journey, thank you for helping me to bring my big dream to reality.

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List of Abbreviations

AB	Absorption
ASV	Average Shared Squared Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMB	Common Method Bias
CMIN	Normed-Chi square
COR	Conservation of Resources Theory
CPI	Consumer Price Index
CR	Composite Reliability
CSR	Cooperate Social Responsibility
DCM	Demand- Control Model
DE	Dedication
DOPU	Drop Off and Pick Up
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ERI	Effort-Reward Imbalance
FWA	Flexible Work Arrangements
GCC	Gulf Cooperate Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross Domestic Product
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
GM	Generational Membership
HD	Higher Diploma

HRM	Human Resources Management
ITL	Intention To Leave
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
JA	Job Autonomy
JCT	Job Characteristics Theory
JDR	Job Demands-Resource model
LISEAL	Linear Structural Relations
MBI	Maslach Burnout Inventory
MBO	Management By Objectives
MSC	Master of Science
MSV	Maximum Shared Squared Variance
MTF	Monitoring The Future
OC	Organizational Commitment
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
PDP	Performance Development Plan
PF	Performance Feedback
PHD	Doctor of Philosophy
POB	Positive Organizational Behavior
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SEWA	Sharjah Electricity and Water Authority
SHRM	The Society for Human Resources Management
SIOP	Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology

SR   Structural Regression

TLI   Tucker-Lewis Index

TDM   Tailored Design Method

UWES   Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

VI   Vigor

VIF   Variance Inflation Factor

WE   Work Engagement

WLB   Work Life Balance

Chapter 1: Research Background and Overview

1.1 Introduction

Walt Disney once said: "You can dream, create, design and build the most wonderful place in the world, but it requires people to make the dream a reality". Organizations nowadays face new challenges in their efforts to remain competitive in the rapidly growing business environment. Some of these challenges are meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse workforce, the introduction of new technology, and the globalization of business (Burke & Cooper, 2004). At the same time, organizational leaders are increasingly concluding that the unique competitive advantage lies in increasing their productivity, which resides in their human resources, since all other elements, such as technology, capital or products, can be either copied or acquired (Burke & Cooper, 2004; Lawler & Mohrman, 2003; Pfeffer, 1994, 1998). In fact the relationship between the variables of work engagement and performance related outcomes suggest that enhancing engagement can create competitive advantage for organizations around the world (Shuck, Reio Jr, & Rocco, 2011).

Recent efforts in the field have begun to emphasize the concepts of positive organizational behavior and positive emotions (Cameron & Dutton, 2003; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). This indicates a movement away from negative concepts, such as job dissatisfaction, burnout and intention to leave, towards more progressive transformative concepts such as optimism, trust and work engagement (Koyuncu, Burke, & Fiksenbaum, 2006). Among the above, work engagement has received increasing attention: the major efforts in the field are associated with the work of Kahn (1990, 1992) and Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) reflecting on the importance of work engagement and its associated positive implications in the context of organizations.

Human Resources Management (HRM) professionals are concurrently being called on more often to provide strategies for facilitating, supporting and developing employee engagement in the workplace (Macey & Schneider, 2008b). Accordingly, practitioners are routinely asked to help develop programs and interventions to evolve a more engaged workforce (Ayers, Miller-Dyce, & Carlone, 2008).

Work engagement represents a positive work-focused psychological state, which is affected by both organizational and individual antecedents. The individual antecedents in the context of the current study are examined by generational differences, or "Demographic Metabolism" (Ryder, 1965). The term describes similarities within generational cohorts indicating that a generation faces and lives under certain social forces and experiences certain historical and social events, to which it uniquely reacts, creating social change (Ryder, 1965). The experience shared among generations contributes to the development of unique characteristics (e.g. values, attitudes, personality traits), which differentiate one generation from another. Accordingly these unique characteristics also impact on the social forces and drive societal change. Twenge and Campbell (2008) state that individuals/generations are impacted by peers, parents, popular culture and major events, which bring the importance of analyzing work engagement and generational differences into the context of culture. Kupperschmidt (2000) believes that a cohort (or a generational group) as a result of various shared social or life events, which then become identifiable or common experiences, develops a personality that influences an employee's feelings toward authority and organizations: what they desire from the work they do, and how they plan to satisfy these desires. Park and Gursoy (2012) suggest that, in an organizational context, generational characteristics may lead to the generational perception of several organizational features and associated work values.

Whereas, Lim (2013) illustrates that the sustainability of localization practices in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) depends on the ability of organizations to understand the recruitment and retention issues specific to young nationals.

After reviewing the literature on generational differences and work engagement, it was possible to select four organizational antecedents, which seemed to have different implications in the context of generational differences. These antecedents were job characteristics (performance feedback and job autonomy), rewards, corporate social responsibility, and work/life balance. The three generations surveyed seemed to have different preferences among these antecedents, as the verdicts of both practitioners and academics confirm.

Meanwhile, three major consequences of work engagement have been identified, namely, intention to leave, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment. They were chosen because of their implications for HRM and organizational management, as well as the UAE labor market, conditions, associated challenges and the vision for 2021. Where the available literature provides supporting evidence of the perceptions and attitudes of different generations towards the above aspects.

The present research aims first at evaluating the organizational antecedents of work engagement and their consequences in the context of the UAE's culture. Next, it examines the moderating effect of generational membership on these antecedents and consequences. It contributes to the literature on work engagement and generational differences in several ways. First, it evaluates the impact of selected organizational antecedents on work engagement and the related consequences in relation to the UAE culture. Second, it evaluates this impact in relation to generational membership and

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the associated differences. Third, it assesses work engagement in the UAE workforce from both demographic and socioeconomic perspectives. Finally, it illustrates in light of the above a list of recommended tools for enhancing work engagement, with further focus on the Y Generation (referring to the individuals born between the year 1980 and 1999). Whereas the current workplace environment holds three major generations: Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964), the X Generation (born between 1965 and 1979) and the Y Generation.

1.2 Motivation for the research

The research topic itself is of great interest to me, since I started my career by recruiting of young UAE nationals in 2001 as an employment officer in National Human Resources and Development Authority (TANMIA). I continued from there to the Higher Colleges of Technology and then to the Dubai Islamic Bank, ending in the Emirates Integrated Telecommunication Company (du, stands for the second telecommunication provider in UAE) my work has always been to recruit and train young Emiratis. Along the journey of more than a decade and through working closely with two different generations (the X and Y Generations, born respectively between and 1965– 1979 and between 1980 and 1999), mostly taking the first step of their career, I have realized that job seekers' requirements have changed over time. Further emphasis was given to the nature of the training they demanded, the environmental facilities they considered, the development opportunities they sought and the career advancement they anticipated. Although our demands change as we move on and develop, since our career journey is affected by age, maturity and experience or family demands, I was mainly interested in the changing demands of Emirati job seekers in the first stages of their career, which may largely be due to the membership of a

specific generation and the associated differences from other generations.

In my frequent attempts to match the needs and wants of the young Emiratis with organizational objectives and targets, after careful analysis of their demands and motives regarding their work environment, I redesigned the Graduate Trainee programs in my last organization. In doing so, I introduced a number of changes that involved personal development plans, having a career coach on board, a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and activities which involved devoting 20 hours to community support in the 18 month program of the graduate trainees.

The results were encouraging, and as an organization we were able to reduce the attrition among our young targeted Emiratis by 30 per cent in the first year, which encouraged me to look at the concept of generational differences in the UAE work environment. Following this, my research aims to enable decision makers, HR professionals and young Emiratis to speak the same language and to match the needs of the young Emiratis with the facilities and tools offered by employers and HR departments.

1.3 Research Problem and Associated Questions

Official records of 2010 estimated the total UAE population at 8.2 million, of whom Emirati nationals comprised only 19 per cent, while expatriates made up more than four times this number. Moreover, recent unofficial records from 2015 estimated a total population of around 9.2 million, to which Emirati nationals contributed only around 17 per cent, 1.3 million. With these figures in mind, the percentage of local to non-local workers in the UAE workforce remained consistently 9 per cent from 1995 to 2004 (TANMIA, 2006), and reached to around 11 per cent in 2011 (Swan, 2014) . Whereas, the total current work force is estimated at 6 million (World Bank, 2015).

However, the unemployment rate in the UAE in 2011 slightly increased to 4.6 per cent from a figure of 4.2 per cent in 2010 (Annual Economic Report 2012).

The majority of UAE nationals are concentrated in the public sector, although they represent less than 1 per cent (approximately 18,000 employees) of the private sector workforce (Ministry of Human Resources and Emiratization, 2015). Whereas the UAE government created around 100,000 jobs annually between 1996 and 2000, the majority of which have been in the private sector (Fasano & Goyal, 2004).

In the 1990s the UAE government embarked on a nationalization policy (Emiratization) aimed at reducing the dependency of expatriates and enhancing job opportunities among nationals, but many sectors of the economy still lack a full complement of UAE nationals. The policy was introduced with a number of tools, such as the introduction of quotas for nationals in banking and insurance sectors. Although it has enhanced the number of Emiratis in the banking sector, many of the firms have indicated a number of challenges in reaching the assigned quotas. The challenges for them are mainly associated with the lack of the required skills and the related work attitudes (Harry, 2007), as well as the regulations, policy tools and appropriate mechanisms (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010).

Looking close to the UAE nationals contribution in the private sector, the Hay Group's (2013) report finds that UAE nationals are paid an average 44 per cent premium above the market, however nationals turnover is almost the double the turnover of non-nationals reaching 14 per cent (according to 2013 Hey Group report). "In the UAE's private sector nationals are much in demand and their mobility can lead them to shop around for jobs meaning they have a wealth of opportunities", according Hay Group's Harish Bhatia as a result of his study in context of the UAE.

The Hay study further indicate that graduates in the UAE private sector are offered attractive packages to enter the private sector, something that organizations have got a lot better at in recent year, however national employees witness a diminishing pay premium as they rise through the ranks, upon which they decide to move, negatively affecting their personal development, which all may have negative impact on the growth of their organization.

Bhatia from the Hay Group further illustrate that this turnover often happens at the mid-management level, representing a trend of moving into the public among UAE nationals, once they have experience but are not continuing on the trajectory of high pay premiums that they once were. Where such increase is not affordable for the private sector at the more senior level, compared to graduate entry level. Hay group further identify that 70 per cent of their clients in the UAE, who tend to be organizations at different economic sectors, indicate that pay as the main reason for losing national talent.

Further analysis of generational contribution in the workforce are highlight through the statistics from 2010, which indicate that the X and Y Generations are the two largest demographic groups in the UAE labor market, representing around 35 per cent and 36 per cent respectively, by the year 2015, statistics predicted that 45 per cent of the entire UAE labor market would be dominated by the Y Generation (US Census Bureau, 2012).

Lim (2013) illustrates her view that the sustainability of localization practices in the UAE depends on the ability of organizations to understand the recruitment and retention issues specific to young nationals and on being able to effectively respond to them and adapt to the consequent requirements. Moreover, the recruitment of the Y

Generation is the priority for Human Resources departments of many leading organizations (Erickson, 2008). The subject has special importance in the UAE labor market, given its current challenges, demographic structure, and the associated 2021 vision. The Vision that translates the ambitious plans of the UAE to be among the best countries in the world by the golden jubilee of its Union. To stay focus, the elements of 2021 vision is divided into six themes, representing the national key sectors that will be focused on during the coming years in government work

From the limited evidence in the literature it seems that some generational differences exist. This may have an effect on work engagement, the associated antecedents, and the consequences, leading decision makers and HR professionals to realize the importance of adopting such managerial practices to enhance their employees' work commitment, work effort and intention to stay (Porter 1990; Walton, 1985).

Furthermore, an increasing number of researchers, academics and practitioners have focused on the need to engage and manage Y Generation employees differently from X Generation or Baby Boomer employees "e.g. Huntley (2006), Wey Smola and Sutton (2002)", based on the notion that key differences can be found in the work values and beliefs of employees from different generations.

Accordingly this research aims at examining the motives for engaging with a job (organizational antecedents) and the outcomes of doing so (organizational consequences) in the UAE at first hand. Next it examines these motives and consequences in context of the moderating effect of generational membership. The study focuses on the Y Generation as the target for many organizations, enabling HR professionals and decision makers in general to understand the main elements in work

engagement and its associated consequences, and thereby improve them for the benefit of the workers.

The research accordingly aims to answer the following:

1. What are the antecedents of work engagement in context of the UAE?

2. What are the consequences of work engagement in context of the UAE?

3. Does generational membership moderate the relationship between work engagement and its antecedents?

4. Does generational membership moderate the relationship between work engagement and its consequences?

1.4 Research Aims

Little is known about work engagement antecedents and consequences in the culture of the UAE. Similarly no study to my knowledge has examined the significant impact of generational membership in the UAE on the various antecedents and consequences of work engagement. Moreover, little is known in the UAE about the Y Generation, and the work engagement enablers that are reflected from their generational characteristics and associated perception of the antecedents and related consequences of organizational work engagement, though they have been the target market for most employers. Furthermore, no studies to my knowledge have examined the effect of different demographic and socioeconomic characteristics on work engagement in the UAE culture, although providing these would equip human resources departments and decision makers with suitable practices and tools to ensure the consistency, satisfaction, and growth of the three generations that are operating together. This is the first time they have done so in the UAE's labor market and they have to work together successfully.

The study contributes to the literature on work engagement and generational differences in several ways. First, it evaluates the impact of the selected organizational antecedents on work engagement and its consequences in context of the UAE's culture. Second, it examines the moderating effect of generational membership on the selected antecedents and consequences in the same context. Third, it examines work engagement on the part of the UAE workforce from both demographic and socioeconomic perspectives. Finally, in light of the findings it recommends a list of tools for enhancing work engagement.

1.5 Research Objectives

- To examine the impact of selected organizational antecedents of work engagement on work engagement in the UAE's culture.

- To examine the impact of work engagement on the selected organizational consequences in the above context.

- To analyze the moderating effect of generational membership on the selected antecedents and consequences in the context of the UAE.

- To study the implications of the non-age demographic elements of individuals on work engagement (e.g. their gender, educational level and educational major).

- To highlight the implications of people's socioeconomic profile on work engagement (e.g. employer type; sector, length of service in total and in relation to the current employer and organizational rank).

1.6 Deliverables

In addition to the fact that the present study is believed to be one of the very few that explores work engagement in the context of the UAE's culture and

generational membership and associated differences, it will provide the following:

•A list of recommended tools/practices that are likely to enhance work engagement across generations in the UAE, the Y Generation in particular.

•Clear identification of the implications of the demographic profile of the individual on work engagement in the context of the UAE culture, enabling decision makers and HR professionals to recruit suitable candidates and maintain engaged employees.

•Clear identification of the implications of socioeconomic profile on work engagement in the context of the UAE, allowing decision makers to identify the implications of different job elements on work engagement, and thereby adopt suitable HR practices.

1.7 Application and significance

Employee Work Engagement has been listed as the most important measure of a company's health by Jack Welch, the former CEO of General Electric (Vance, 2006). Similarly, the Society of Human Resources Management (SHRM) listed employee engagement as one of the most important topics of recent years (Cohen, 2007). The importance of the concept has been highlighted in the field after a number of studies outlined its implications; and this has thereby raised its importance in various fields, including HRM. Crawford et al. (2014) estimate that more than 250 articles have been published on work engagement since the year 2000, 80% of them since 2006, focusing on their impact on the need in organizations to have competitive advantage, which reflects today's attention to this topic.

Crabtree (2005) infers that engaged employees give companies competitive

advantage. while Sonnentag (2003) confirms that there is a relationship between work engagement and profitability. through higher productivity. sales. customer satisfaction and employees retention. Bakker. Demerouti. and Burke (2009) find that engaged employees are highly recognized for both role and extra role performance. In addition. Harter. Schmidt. and Hayes (2002) positively relate work engagement to performance at the business unit level. Salanova. Agut. and Peiró (2005) also find that business unit results and the work engagement level are positively associated with customer satisfaction. employee performance and in turn customer loyalty.

Numerous studies suggest that employee work engagement is significantly related to a reduction in the intention to leave (Maslach. Schaufeli. & Leiter. 2001: Saks. 2006: Shuck et al.. 2011). Moreover. relevant studies suggest that work engagement is positively related to job performance. task performance. organizational citizenship behavior. and effective commitment (Christian. Garza. & Slaughter. 2011: Fleming & Asplund. 2007: Rich. Lepine. & Crawford. 2010: Richman. 2006). Gallup in its meta-analysis of a number of studies brings up evidence that "having a work environment that promotes positive employees engagement was consistently associated with beneficial business outcomes. including reduced employee turnover. customer satisfaction. employee productivity and company profit". Bakker and Demerouti (2008) demonstrate that engaged workers perform better than non-engaged workers. because they often have better health and positive emotions. including happiness. joy and enthusiasm. Thereby they create their own job and personal resources and transfer their engagement to others.

Furthermore, the following researchers and academics illustrate the importance of analyzing work engagement and generational differences. with respect to the UAE:

- "The notion of viewing employees in different segments has received only minor attention in HRM literature, despite being proposed as best practice in HRM (Enz & Siguaw, 2000, p. 49)".

- The academic literature indicates that the Y Generation differs from people of the same age range in previous decades, even if this view is not unanimous (Giancola, 2006).

- Many of the empirical studies have focused on students, indicating the need to focus on working members of the Y Generation so as to understand work related aspects more clearly (Kultalahti, Viitala, Tetrick, & Tetrick, 2015).

- "The UAE provides an excellent environment to study attitude change between genders, and across generations (Whiteoak, Crawford, & Mapstone, 2006, p. 78)". The country witnessed a wide- ranging, rapid, and dramatic transformation of domestic society after huge oil reserves were discovered in the country in 1958. This changed the country from an insignificant collection of farming and fishing communities to a predominantly industrial and commercial "ultramodern" society (Whiteoak et al., 2006).

- "Culture surely has unique events that affect generational characteristics. Therefore, generational difference researchers should be conducted within different cultures around the world, and researchers should investigate the feasibility of adopting common generational delimiters across countries and cultures to enable more complex research models investigating the interaction between culture and generation. (Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010, p. 278)".

- "Even though initiatives to increase the participation of citizens in the workforce have been in place for more than a decade in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), the results are not impressive (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner,

2010, p. 364)".

- "There is clearly a need for more comparative studies to test the notion that generational cohorts are shaped by the significant political, economic, cultural and other events of their times (Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Dries, et al., 2008, p. 860)".

- Cross-cultural research that examines antecedents in culturally sensitive contexts could also be of benefit to multinationals and inform policy development at the public and private levels (Shuck & Wollard, 2010, p. 438)".

1.8 Research Context: The United Arab Emirates

The UAE is one of the world's youngest nations, comprising seven emirates which formed a union in 1971. According to the World Bank (1990 statistics) more than 30 per cent of the population is aged under 14 (and thus belongs to the Y Generation), yet the nation enjoys one of the fastest growing economies. For instance, the local labor force has been growing at an average annual rate of 4-5 per cent over the past decade and is likely to continue to grow at this pace over the medium term, since more than one-third of the local population is below the age of 15 years.

1.8.1 UAE labor Market and Employment Conditions

Employment relations in the UAE are regulated by the UAE Labor Law, which refers to the Federal Law No. 8 of 1980. The law applies to all staff and employees working in the UAE, whether UAE nationals or expatriates. However, certain categories of individuals are exempt from this law, such as the employees of federal and public institutes as well as members of the armed forces, police and security units and domestic servants. Furthermore, certain special labor related regulations apply in

some of the free zones in the UAE, such as the Jebel Ali Free Zone. Similarly, local government institutes in each emirate have their own law, such as the Human Resources Law for the Dubai government, which consists of more than 230 items under seventeen chapters and applies to all local department institutions in the emirate of Dubai.

The UAE Labor Law gives priority in employment to UAE nationals, indicating that work is an inherent right. Where National workers are not available, preference in employment should be given to workers of other Arab nationalities, followed by workers of other nationalities. Accordingly, non-nationals may not be employed without the prior approval of the Labor Department, which requires an employment permit to be obtained in accordance with the Ministry of Human Resources and Emiratization (previously known as Ministry of Labor).

The UAE labor law ensures equal employment opportunities for males and females, but children are not permitted to work until the age of 18 years. Females, according to the UAE law and in alignment with the cultural and Islamic norms, are not permitted to work on night shifts except in certain posts that require night duty (such as nurses). Furthermore, female workers under this law are entitled to maternity leave with full pay for a period of forty-five days, provided that they have completed not less than one year of continuous service with their employer. In the 18 months following the birth, female workers are entitled to two additional breaks every day of 30 minutes each, which are considered part of their working hours and entail no loss of wages.

The UAE Labor Law determines the cost-of-living index and the minimum wage payable to workers in certain occupations; this is fixed by a federal decree based

on a proposal to be made by the Minister of Human Resources and Emiratization and approved by the Council of Ministers as sufficient to meet workers' basic needs and guarantee their livelihood.

The maximum normal working day for adult workers under the UAE Labor law lasts eight hours up to a maximum 48 hours per week. The daily total may be increased to nine hours in commercial establishments, for instance hotels, cafeterias, security services and such similar businesses as may be added by resolution of the Minister of Human Resources and Emiratization. This law lays down the overtime hours and associated wages, preventing both parties from infringing each other's rights and ensuring their full commitment in the frameworks defined under the associated polices and regulations.

Besides all the regulating rules such as those related to leave and those that ensure workers' safety, protection, health and social care, the law further indicates the disciplinary actions and all the related entitlements of resignation, end of service and termination.

To ensure the effective compliance with the UAE Labor Law, labor inspections must be carried out by special staff affiliated to the Ministry of Human Resources and Emiratization. The Ministry must publish annually a report on its inspection activities in the state, containing all matters related to the Ministry's statistics of the firms that were subject to inspection. Including the number of workers employed, the number of inspection visits and tours made by the inspectors, the violations committed and penalties imposed, and the work related injuries and occupational diseases.

1.8.2 UAE Economic Conditions

The UAE has the second largest economy in the Arab world (after the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia). The economy is still mainly oil based, one third of the GDP coming from oil revenues. The UAE has witnessed great economic development since its independence in 1971, having grown by nearly 231 times to reach around AED1.54 trillion in 2014. Meanwhile, the non-oil trade grew to AED1.2 trillion, a growth of around 28 times from 1981 to 2013. Although the UAE has the most diversified economy in the GCC, the UAE's economy remains still oil dependent except for Dubai, which has far smaller oil reserves, where the oil exports accounted for almost 77 per cent of the UAE's state budget.

The gross domestic product (GDP) in the United Arab Emirates expanded by around 4.60 per cent in 2014 over the previous year. The GDP growth rate in the United Arab Emirates averaged 4.82 per cent from 2000 until 2014, reaching as high as 9.80 per cent in 2006 and a record low of -5.20 per cent in 2009 (The National Bureau of Statistics, UAE). According to H.E. Sultan Bin Saeed Al Mansouri, the UAE Minister of the Economy, the UAE government plans in the next 10 to 15 years to increase the contribution of the non-oil sector from the present figure of 70 per cent to 80 per cent of the nation's GDP.

The high oil revenues combined with the power of high oil prices between the late 1970s and 1980s have enabled the UAE to short-cut the usually difficult and lengthy process of saving and capital accumulation which is required for its necessary economic development. Furthermore, since its formation in 1971 the UAE has enjoyed political stability, with a high standard of living, and large government investment in social and economic infrastructure of various kinds, as well as health and education,

resulting in a relatively good record on human rights.

Looking at the world economies, the positive relationship between education and economic growth is well recognized; for instance Carnoy (1967) indicates that education and income are highly correlated at both individual and social levels. Evaluating this in the context of the UAE economy, its leaders and government have invested in an advanced educational system that offers a choice between the government and private education. For example, beside the establishment of the UAE University in 1976, the government invested in the establishment of the Higher Colleges of Technology in 1988, offering technical skills such as business administration, accounting, banking, information systems, computers, engineering, aviation, technology, and health sciences located in several emirates. This was followed by a number of universities and technical institutes, such as Zayed University and the Institute of Applied Technology, which were established in 1998 and 2005 respectively.

Similarly, the expenditure on health has been regarded as an investment in human capital (Mushkin, 1962); the relationship between health and economic development is reciprocal, through providing the human resources with a level of health care that improves all aspects of life. These efforts were reflected in the UNDP's 1995 report, which estimated that 99 per cent of the overall population of the UAE had access to health services (this is the percentage of the population that can reach appropriate local health services on foot or by the local means of transport in no more than one hour). Furthermore, 95 per cent of the population had access to safe water, and 77 per cent had access to sanitation (for the period 1985–1993).

The above efforts contributed to the UAE economy's recognition by the major

international organizations. For instance, A.T. Kearney (an American global management consulting firm that focuses on strategic and operational agenda, established in the year 1926) ranks the UAE as one of the top 20 best places in the world for global service business. Moreover, the UAE is ranked ahead of all other Arab nations as among the top 30 countries in the list of the World Economic Forum's "most-networked countries". The UAE also gets positive rankings from Transparency International's corruption index, ranking it in the top quarter of all nations/economies for low levels of corruption.

The data of employee distribution by economic sector in 2010 indicates that Construction and Building recruits around 23 per cent of the entire workforce, followed by Wholesale & Retail Trade at 19 per cent, and Repair Services Government Services and the manufacturing sector, both at also 11 per cent (Annual Economic Report 2012). Moreover, the latest statistics indicate that women account for 59 per cent of the national UAE labor force, with high participation in different economic fields. Furthermore, UAE women have made outstanding progress, accounting for over 70 per cent of university graduates (UAE Ministry of State for Federal National Council Affairs, MFNCA), and more than two thirds of the UAE government workforce.

1.8.3 UAE 2021 Vision

Recently, the UAE announced its 2021 vision, envisaging the "development of a knowledge-based economy", which will be diverse, flexible and led by skilled professional Emiratis. The vision contains six important components with detailed objectives, related to education, health and economy, police and security, housing, as well as government infrastructure and services. The 2021 vision seeks to make the

UAE a land of ambitious and confident people who hold on to their heritage; a strong federation; a competitive economy led by creative and knowledgeable Emiratis; and finally a high quality of life in a generous and sustainable environment (UAE 2021 vision, available from http://www.vision2021.ae). Moreover, within this vision, the UAE aims to increase the current number of UAE nationals working in the private sector. In addition, the government is working to shift the country towards a knowledge-based economy pioneered by skilled and creative UAE nationals. This new direction will require the transition of UAE nationals from employment in the public sector to a search for opportunities in the private sector, which in turn will also contribute to enhancing the productivity in the public sector (http://www.vision2021.ae). In alignment with the new strategy, the UAE government announced that 2013 would be the year of Emiratization, and launched the "Absher" initiative under the patronage of His Highness the President of the UAE. "Absher" is based on four main themes, namely, the creation of job opportunities for nationals, vocational guidance and counselling, training and development, and the encouragement of nationals to work in the private sector.

1.9 Conclusion and Organization of the Study:

Taking the above aims, objectives and deliverables, the present research starts by introducing the UAE's culture, followed by a survey of the current literature on generational differences. There follows a review of the research on work engagement; definition, measures and associated models. Next comes a consideration of the work engagement antecedents and consequences in the literature, with further focus on four work engagement antecedents and three consequences, which are discussed in terms of the UAE's culture and generational differences. Upon these the research model and

associated hypotheses are developed. These are followed by a description of the methodology associated with the research, after which the study results are illustrated along with the associated analysis, leading to a discussion of them and concluding with the implications and limitations of the research and possible future directions that it might take.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research is to examine the implications of the antecedents and consequences of work engagement in the United Arab Emirates, and then examine the moderating effect of generational membership on the identified hypothetical relationships. The first section of this chapter analyzes the UAE culture with reference to Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions, and its implications for organizational management, by which it is hoped to improve the understanding of the most effective work engagement antecedents and their implications in these circumstances. The second section examines generational differences and their associated characteristics, with reference to the Y Generation in the UAE. The final section of the literature review considers a synthesis of work engagement, its importance, associated models and the theories related to the antecedents and consequences of work engagement, with special reference to the selected group of them upon which the research model and the associated hypotheses were developed.

This process is hoped to improve the understanding of work engagement and generational differences in this context, so as to provide effective tools for enhancing work engagement in the working population of the UAE, with special reference to the Y Generation. This will enable organizations and decision makers to align their policies with the national strategy and further attract, develop, retain and maintain the young Emiratis who are their prime target employees on the lines of the nation's 2021 vision.

2.2 UAE Cultural Dimensions and Associated Implications in context of HRM

The first section of the literature review, as indicated earlier, examines the UAE's cultural dimensions and their associated implications for Human Resources Management (HRM). The section starts by defining culture and cultural values, together with their importance in organizational management.

2.2.1 Culture and Cultural Values

Culture has been defined in many ways; for instance Hofstede (1980a, p. 9) defines culture as "the collective programming of mind which distinguishes the members of one group or society from those of another". He specifies that the assumption of a collective mind does not mean that everyone in a society is programmed in exactly the same way, but the notion reflects a collective component of mind that is shared among certain individuals, which differentiates them from other individuals who belong to different societies. Parsons and Shils (1951, p. 11) define culture as "the system of orientation" that guides people's actions and behaviors. Finally, Kluckhohn (1951, p. 86) suggests that "cultures consist of patterned ways of thinking, feeling, and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols". He goes on to say that culture consists of "traditional ideas and especially their attached values".

Hofstede (1980) uses the "onion assumption" to convey the depth of cultures, indicating that values drive behaviors. These values are shown in the symbols, heroes and rituals that are visible to the outside world, while their cultural meaning is visible only to those who share the culture, which Hofstede (2001) refers to as the holders of the core values at the heart of each culture. He continues that culture can accordingly be identified as a "system of collectively held values".

Schwartz (1992, p. 4) defines cultural values as "conceptions of the desirable that guide the way for social actors (e.g. organizational leaders, policy makers, individual persons)". Furthermore, cultural values are defined as the implicitly or explicitly of shared abstract ideas about what is good, right, and desirable in society (Williams, 1970). Schwartz (1999, p. 24) identifies that values as "trans-situational criteria or goals, ordered by importance as guiding principles in life, similarly it's the way in which the societal institutions function their goals and their modes of operation".

Schwartz (1992) believes that these cultural values are considered the norms that tell people what is appropriate in any situation. He adds that since cultural values are shared among leaders, decision makers or even teachers, they can be used in order to select socially appropriate behaviors. Similarly, they can be used to justify behaviors to others. Schwartz (1999) adds that an individual's values were derived from both shared culture and unique personal experience, but understanding shared cultural experience is a key element in understanding the behavior that people adopt in the organizations where they spend most of their time.

2.2.2 National Culture versus Organizational Culture

Research using a variety of frameworks across the world has shown that national cultural values are related to workplace behavior, attitude and other organization related factors and outcomes (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 1993; Hofstede, 1980b; Schwartz, 1994). Chen, Chen and Meindl (1988) claim that cultural differences can shape the primary motives of society members, which in turn affect the effectiveness of different corporations' mechanisms.

Hofstede (1981a) maintains that culture determines the identity of human groups in the same way that personality determines the identity of an individual. Since

each person carries a certain amount of this mental programing (which he refers to as culture), that is reflected in his/her behaviors, words and deeds. He further identifies that since human behavior is mainly stable, individuals tend to display similar behavior in similar situations. Accordingly the more we know a person's mental programming, the more we can predict her/his associated behavior in similar situations, such as those related to organizations and the workplace environment. Taras, Kirkman, and Steel (2010) using data from 598 studies that represent over 200,000 individuals, assert that cultural dimensions can explain more than what is explained by individual differences in some assessments of personality traits. These researchers thereby indicate the importance of bearing cultural values in mind, as much as personality traits and the assessment of mental abilities; they propose, further, that cultural values have explained the low amounts of variation in job related outcomes such as job performance, absenteeism or turnover. However, much variation is apparent in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), leadership style, team related attitudes, feedback, and organizational commitment. Their meta-analysis indicates that culture and its associated values have more implications for attitude and perceptions than behaviors have, and on behaviors more than job performance.

Hofstede (1981b) believes that national culture affects organizations in four different ways. The first way is the distribution of power; organizations must control human behavior to achieve their objectives and they do this through the unequal distribution of power. The second way concerns the influence of cultural values on organizational goals and objectives, the decision making process, organizational structure, formal procedures, and the reward system. The third effect is perceived through the values of most organizational members, which includes the determination of regulations and control processes, reasons for complying with organizational

requirements and the accuracy of communication. The last contribution or effect is generated through the values of different stakeholders, such as government agencies, labor unions, the press and media and the public as a whole.

Hofstede (1981b) indicates that organizational structure reflects the national culture, professional culture, and the organization's own culture. Bik (2010), in a study on the attitude of auditors, indicates that the professional behavior of employees consists of the interaction of the relationship between the individual, organizational and occupational levels. At the individual level, although individuals have their own characteristics, values and beliefs, all these individual values and beliefs are summed up in a common denominator of values and thus of behaviors. Looking at the organizational level, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) maintain that the organizational culture is "isomorphic" with the social culture, reflecting the similarities and harmony between the two. Soeters and Schreuder (1988) in their research on auditors working in the USA and the Netherlands identify that organizational culture is strong enough to influence accountants' values, and is reflected in their organizational behavior. Soeters and Schreuder (1988) find that occupational culture also interacts with the impact of national culture, but they recognize that "national culture still shines through distinctively".

Adler and Jelinek (1986, p. 69) add that "employees maintain or enhance their cultural values in specific ways of working even when employed by multinational or global organizations". This clearly indicates that organizational and occupational cultures do not override the impact of societal culture. House, Javidan, Hanges, and Dorfman (2002) conclude that one of the major findings of Globe Research, which

was set up to investigate the impact of culture on the effectiveness of social organizations and leaders in 58 countries between 1991 and 2004 is that organizational and managerial practices tend to reflect the societal orientation in which they function, because organizational cultures "reflect the societies in which they are embedded".

Laurent (1983) analyzes some concepts of organizational management, finding that nationality has three times more influence than any other characteristic on shaping managerial assumptions. Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) examine the factors that lead to work related values and sees that the culture of origin, followed by industry and religion, can be considered the main factors of influence.

With this in mind, I believe that while culture is clearly reflected in all societal institutions, organizations in turn through their products, cultures and associated rules and regulations, combined with the power of technology and globalization develop new norms for the society by affecting individual's behavior. And through the continuous interaction between the individuals and their society, mediated by economic growth, technology and globalization, societies build new values in alignment with those of the succeeding generations, however the process is very slow and is extended to a number of years and generation. The importance for any organization of understanding the nation's cultural values is thereby a critical element, since it must reflect them through its structure, policies, objectives, strategies, rewards and recognition schemes, products and services. Similarly, while the organization reflects that society in which it is embedded, it also has the opportunity, through its innovation and creativity and the impact of globalization and technology, to shape individuals' future values and thereby their society on the long run.

2.2.3 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Scores for UAE

A number of frameworks are available in the literature that assess cultural dimensions, such as the framework which is developed by Triandis in the mid-nineties, and the cultural framework presented by Schwartz (1992,1999). However, the current study shall analyze UAE culture in context of Hofstede (1980) findings, given that the scale provided is purely dedicated for UAE, and not to the entire region.

Hofstede (1980a) identifies the differences between countries along four main dimensions; Individualism versus Collectivism, Large versus Small Power Distance, Strong Versus Weak Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity versus Femininity. The differences are highlighted by comparing data between the late 1960s and the early 1970s drawn from IBM employees across the world who held similar positions. He believed that this enabled him to identify the actual mental programs that people brought with them, but it has proved to be among the limitations of his study as it focused only on a single employer (Hunt, 1981). However, despite this and other limitations, Hofstede's (1980b) taxonomy is arguably the best-known and most widely referenced and adopted set of cultural value dimensions in the organizational sciences (Daniels & Greguras, 2014).

Hofstede (2002) believes that national cultures mostly stem from consistent values, while organizational culture stems mostly from consistency in practices. Adler and Jelinek (1986) and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1993) indicate that corporative culture should be in tune with the national culture in order to function well. Applying each of the above mentioned dimensions in Hofstede (1980a, 1980b, 1981a, 1983, 1984a, 1984b), together with its associated implications for HRM, to the recommended HR practices in the UAE yields the following main observations:

Table 1: UAE Culture in Hofstede's Terms

Hofstede Dimension	Definition	UAE Index and Interpretation	UAE Status And Implications on HRM Practices	Recommended HR Practices
Individualism Versus Collectivism	"The degree the society reinforces individual or collective achievement and interpersonal relationships". Also reflects the preference of individuals in the society to take care of themselves and immediate families or further extend their social responsibility, indicating a tight / weak social framework.	The UAE with a score of **25** is considered to be a collectivistic society. Thus its citizens have high commitment to the group or a family with an extended relationship.	-Safety needs satisfaction rather than self-ego. -Deep moral relations between employer and employee, making it difficult to change employer. -Priority of relations rather than tasks.	-Group based motivational tools. -Face consciousness, requiring indirect communication.
Large Versus Small Power Distance	" Measures the extent to which a society accepts the unequal distribution of power in institutions and organizations" "The acceptance of power in	UAE scores **90** on this dimension, which means that people accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and	-Centralization is common in organizations. -Subordinates expect to be told what to do.	-MBO generally fails in such societies. -PMS should follow a more parenting approach, where negative appraisals

	organizations, including hierarchic order".	thereby an authority.		should not be given directly.
Strong Versus Weak Uncertainty Avoidance	"The degree to which members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity". "And thereby seek career stability, establishing more formal rules, rejecting deviant ideas and behavior, and accepting the possibility of absolute truths and the attainment of expertise".	UAE scores **80** on this dimension and thus has a high preference for avoiding uncertainty.	-Rigid codes of belief and behaviors are common In these cultures -Emotional need for formal rules - Greater career stability to avoid ambiguous situations. -Security is an important element in individual motivation.	-Strategic planning is less popular. Managers raising their voices are more acceptable. Innovation is less welcomed, but implementation is easy because its action is taken more seriously.
Masculinity (M) Versus Femininity (F)	Masculinity stands for a preference in society for achievement, while Femininity stands for a preference for relationship.	UAE scores **50** on this dimension and is considered to be neither masculine or feminine	-A high score (masculine) indicates that the society will be driven by competition, achievement and success, while a low score (feminine) means that the society is driven by caring for	-Rewards distribution according to performance (M) or to need/ equality (F). -Meaning of a career is more common in (M) rather than (F) societies.

others and
quality of life.

(Source Hofstede 1980a, 1980b, 1981, 1983, 1984a and 1984b)

However, although the above scores provide some insight into general cultural norms in the UAE, it should not be forgotten that Hofstede's research took place in the 1980s. At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996) have compared his results to their findings and observe that the GCC countries are changing, upon which they recommend that similar research should be duplicated every decade, with the aim of monitoring social changes related to Hofstede's four dimensions. This gains further strength from the consideration that rapid economic growth, combined with the power of technology and globalization, has impacted all aspects of life, including the social. Moreover, although many would perceive that the UAE still seems to be firmly connected to traditional cultural values, the new generation may have a different perception of values and in turn different ways of behavior in today's conditions.

Similarly, although Hofstede (1980a,1980b) states that cultures are deeply entrenched within individuals, and are very slow to change, in his 2001 edition he reports that there is a significant change in the individualism and collectivism dimension in most nations across the world within a timeframe of 5 years. Hofstede (2001) adds that the association between Power Distance and Individualism/Collectivism is a substantial measure of a country's wealth; accordingly, when GNP is partially lead out, the correlation between collectivism and Power Distance is reduced to a barely significant -0.32.

In the comparison by At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996) of Hofstede's GCC results of the early 80s, their findings were that the culture of the Gulf countries was changing. For example, Power Distance scored 80, according to Hofstede, indicating

a high power distance culture, while their study showed a score of 56, which they ascribe to the Gulf nations' exposure to other nations' cultures as a result of oil wealth, through the formation of joint ventures and other businesses. Indeed, the GCC countries are moving towards a further decentralization now that each country has established a council that allows citizens to discuss the important decisions. Among them the UAE for the first time in its history set up in 2000 an elected national council, in which females, also for the first time, were given a representative opportunity, promoting further individualism and less power distance.

Moreover, the UAE scored 68 on the Uncertainty Avoidance dimension, but the study by the above researchers indicated a rate of 91; they rationalized this result by citing the reliance of most GCC economies on oil and its price fluctuations and the impact of these on the GCC economies. They also cited the political challenges in the region, including the impact of the Gulf War and its consequences from 1990 onwards (At-Twaijri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996).

In terms of Individualism and collectivism both Hofstede (1980a, 1980b) and At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996) register a score of 38 for the GCC nations, reflecting the association of individuals in the society to groups. Hofstede attributes this association to "the law of conservation" which shows that "old values do not disappear overnight, and often survive in new settings". At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996) further explain that GCC countries are small and weak and hence their societies feel more at ease collectively than as individuals. This tendency is reflected also in the GCCs' staff promotion strategies; the number of years employees have spent in an organization is a factor in deciding to offer them promotion.

Masculinity and Femininity in both studies scores almost 50; according to

research, the figure reflects Islamic values, associated with their derivation from tribal systems, which insist on caring for others and societal cooperation.

In light of their findings At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996) advise organizations to offer job security, implying lifetime employment for their workforce, due to its implications for career stability and promotion opportunities; this would suggest that Arab managers give more importance to employee loyalty than efficiency.

Klein, France Waxin, and Radnell (2009) from the American university of Sharjah who assess empirically how far organizational cultures are impacted by the national culture in the UAE, found evidence that national culture has some influence on the style of organizational culture in the UAE. Their results indicate that managers and leaders would like to see a culture that strives for positive goals, promoting a sense of accomplishment, in alignment with the norms of firms in the USA and Europe. Furthermore, organizational cultures in the UAE value performance and innovation, yet also honor power and prestige through compliance with instructions, an inconsistency which may create further stress at work. The study further indicates that UAE organizations adopt a constructive culture, where taking initiatives and communicating effectively in both directions are expected, along with taking realistic risk and being accountable for one's performance. Moreover, constructive cultures are based on "growing people rather than using them as a career advancement tool"; however, that firms can also be seen to embrace defensive norms that make such goals improbable. Although the research by these writers provides some insight into organizations' operational culture and the culture of the UAE, a number of limitations are associated with it, such as the small number (only 17) in their sample of participating firms. Furthermore, their respondents were not Emirati and therefore may

not represent the practices of an Emirati organizational culture. Moreover, the researchers themselves indicate the importance of analyzing such data in the context of the industries and associated structures in order to illustrate the exact impact of national culture on organizational culture.

Finally, although Hofstede's cultural dimensions have helped to clarify cultural implications in the context of organizational management and thereby shown their value, the use of this tool entails several limitations. For instance, Smith, Peterson, and Schwartz (2002) accuses Hofstede's dimensions and the aggregation associated with them of sample adequacy, even though Hofstede warns us not to take his dimensions to interpret an individual's behavior in any given culture. Smith et al. (2002) rejoin that there will be always a temptation to relate an individual's behaviors to her/his culture.

In this regard, Schwartz (1994) believes that the cultural structures at the country level differ from those at the individual level. But, because the available theories look at the aggregate level of the nation, which may not represent individual cultural perceptions and the associated behaviors, it is all the more critical for organizations to satisfy individuals and adapt to their requirements. However, Fischer, Vauclair, Fontaine, and Schwartz (2010) find that the structure of the two levels put them closer to one another than Schwartz (1994) supposed, and that levels of similarity applied only to instances of strict isomorphism (the identity of structures across levels). In order to identify the differences between the value dimensions at individual and at country level, Fischer and Poortinga (2012) asked people to rate the value priorities of others within the society. The found partial isomorphism between the two levels and accordingly recommended using value dimensions that can satisfy psychometric

demands.

Furthermore, as noted above, although, following Hofstede (1980a,1980b,1983a,1983b), the use of a single firm allows comparisons to be made, Hunt (1981) concludes that over-generalizing factors derived from one large multinational organization may be one of Hofstede's major limitations, recalling that IBM may have tended to hire similar people worldwide, and that an organization's culture may have a homogenizing effect on employees' values. However Laurent (1983) submits that multinational corporations do not reduce national value differences among their employees.

2.2.4 Hofstede Cultural Dimensions' Implications for Human Resources Management (HRM)

Human Resources Management (HRM) is a function in organizations designed to maximize employee performance in alignment with the employer's strategic objectives and operational goals. HRM is primarily concerned with the management of people within organizations, focusing on policies and systems (Collings & Wood, 2009).

Ulrich and Brockbank (2005) indicate that Human Resources departments should add value to their organizations, which would enhance competitive advantage. Research illustrates that international HRM practices are positively related to financial performance (Watson,2001), but best HRM practices may not always transfer well from one society/country to another, for cultural and institutional reasons (Ferner, 1997; Zhang, 2003). Poutsma, Ligthart, and Veersma (2006) believe that organizations need to balance the need to adopt best HRM practices internationally with the need to adapt to local practices that suits the country of operation.

Social scientists assume that individualism is more common in industrialized societies than in other societies, especially traditional developing societies (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002). Scholars also indicate that collectivists enjoy working together more than individualists do, and generally they are more cooperative at work (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991; Earley, 1989). Chen, et.al. (1998) claim that culture does not necessarily lead people to be more or less cooperative, but may affect the selection and the effectiveness of the intervention mechanisms aimed at increasing cooperation. These researchers add that the patterns of individualism and collectivism in a society provide the basis for organizations in this regard; accordingly, cooperative mechanisms that satisfy individual rationality are more effective in individual societies than in cooperative ones, whereas collective societies are more satisfied by group based rationality.

Triandis (1995) lists four main attributes of individualism as opposed to collectivism: first, it is achieved through self-definition, where individualists define themselves as autonomous entities, while collectivists define themselves as members of various connected groups. Second, it prioritizes personal goals for individualist cultures, and collective interests for collectivist cultures. Third, it attributes individuals' attitudes to their own beliefs, but finds collectivists' attitudes to derive from social norms. Finally, it orientates individualists more towards task achievement, and gives the collectivists an emphasis on harmonious relationships.

Watkins Adebowale Akande James Fleming Maznah Ismail Kent Lefner Murari Regmi Sue Watson Jiayuan Yu John Adair Christopher Cheng Andres Gerong Dennis McInerney Elias Mpofu Sunita Singh-Sengupta Habtamu Wondimu (1998) report that self-esteem among undergraduates in the countries that Hofstede (1980a,

1980b) reported as individualist was associated with personal success, while family life was reported to be more important for self-esteem in collectivist countries. In addition, collectivists find the work place more satisfying when it values the social network, while individualists indicate that a workplace is more satisfying it allows self-definition (Oyserman et al., 2002).

It should be noted that individualism is related to one's country's level of economic development, which in turn is linked to the level of entrepreneurship in one's society (Brockhaus, 1982). Furthermore, individualism is also related to the level of motivation to achieve (Hofstede, 1980a, 1980b). Finally, while individualism is motivated by self-gain, collectivism is observed to generate a continuous stream of incremental innovation (Morris, Davis, & Allen, 1994).

With the above in mind, it seems that the Y Generation in the UAE may have a slightly different collective approach from previous generations, given the impact of the recent economic and technological development, and the associated implications of globalization. Evidence of this is that small to medium-sized enterprises owned by young Emiratis have increased in the UAE. This initiative has been encouraged by the Fund for Enterprise Development of the Shaikh Mohammed and Khalifa Establishment for Small and Medium Enterprises. This may have promoted entrepreneurship in the community and indirectly enhanced and encouraged individualism in the UAE culture; or perhaps the reverse is true – that the fund was set up in response to the higher level of individualism and to its associated needs, resulting from the increased economic wealth of the growing society of the UAE.

Regarding the implications of Power Distance, Daniels and Greguras (2014) believe that it is especially important in organizations because power is fundamental

in all relationships and affects many organizational processes and outcomes. Erez (2011) claims that, after individualism/ collectivism, power distance is the most frequently studied cultural value in organizational research. Newman and Nollen (1996), after examining 176 working change units in Europe and Asia, maintain that managerial practices that fit a country's power distance values have resulted in increased profitability.

Taras et al. (2010), using data from 598 studies, representing over 200,000 individuals, meta-analyzed the relationship between Hofstede's original four dimensions of cultural values (1980a) and the relevant organizational outcomes. Power Distance was found to be negatively related to emotional displays, feedback seeking, exchange ideology, the avoidance of unethical behavior, team commitment, preference for team work, employee self-esteem and perceptions of participative leadership. In contrast, at the group level, Power Distance was positively found to be related to group cooperation, and negatively correlated with group performance. Finally, at country level, Power Distance was found to be related to conformity, the importance of family values, agreeableness, neuroticism, and corruption, and negatively related to life satisfaction, extraversion, and openness to experience, wealth, human rights, gender role equality, and income equality.

Daniels and Greguras (2014) analyzed a number of HRM practices in the context of high power distance countries on both macro and micro levels. On the micro level, admitting that previous studies had observed that Power Distance attenuates the relationship between employees' attitude/perceptions and their behavior, they contend that Power Distance attenuates the relationship between perceived organizational support and job performance, commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

(Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007). With regard to the macro level outcomes, Aycan, Kanungo, and Sinha (1999) find that high Power Distance countries provide less job enrichment, because managers believe that employees are more reactive than proactive.

The UAE, as noted above, seems to be a high power distance society, as represented by its organizational structure and associated hierarchies. However the global movement towards flatter organizations may have further implications for its domestic organizational structure. Moreover, the Y Generation has mostly entered organizations at a point where their structure has begun to flatten, which may have implications for their accepting the traditional form of Power Distance.

Adler and Jelinek (1986) confirms that lifetime employment is more common in countries with high uncertainty avoidance. He further indicates that employees in high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance (such as the UAE), view their organizations as pyramids of people, calling for a formal line of communication, which reduces uncertainty by identifying clear lines of authority.

Friedman (2007) states that leaders in segmented societies with high uncertainty avoidance, may institute greater formal structure and more rules and guidelines, in order to overcome employees' fear of uncertainty. Similarly, leaders in high uncertainty avoidance cultures need detailed plans in order to align HR activities with business objectives.

Looking at the consequences of assigning HR practices in alignment with societies' culture; Schuler and Rogovsky (1998) remark that "HRM practices that are consistent with the social values of individuals lead to high performance, as they decrease employees' discomfort and allow employees to be rewarded and treated in

alignment with their behavioral preferences and norms". Gelade, Dobson, and Auer (2008) believe that the effectiveness of organizational practices depends on their ability to respond to the values and priorities of employees, thereby sustaining their commitment. These researchers add that previous evidence shows that the sources of organizational commitment vary between cultures, but do not indicate the alignment of this commitment with cultural values.

2.2.5 Cultural Dimensions in Context of Generations

Higgins (2001) posits that careers are not free of social context; rather they are influenced by the society's political, economic, historical and socio-cultural developments. Still, cultural values and associated practices change over time, as generational change reflects (Leary, Twenge, & Quinlivan, 2006). Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Dries, et al. (2008) assert that people's views on life elements/ dimensions, specifically those related to work, are shaped by the social context in which people develop. Therefore, generational differences are initially based on cultural differences, since cultures change as a result of changes associated with those who possess the culture, who become socialized by new and different values. Accordingly, generations are shaped by the sociocultural environment of their development (Twenge, Campbell, & Freeman, 2012) and the regional variations in culture in which they grow up (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Research in the global context of the Y Generation records high scores on positive individualistic traits, such as self-esteem and assertiveness (Kowske et al., 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2003), and, on the other side, some negative traits of individualism such as narcissism (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, and Lance (2010), which perhaps imply a universal trend towards individualism even within cultures that

have been identified as collective, requiring HRM professionals and decision makers to adapt tools and practices that can cope with such changes. For instance, Twenge and Campbell (2001) after a series of studies on generations, conclude that the Y Generation is more individualistic and self-focused. Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Keith Campbell, and Bushman (2008) add that the Y Generation is focused on work as more of an individual goal. Twenge et al. (2010) illustrate the view that the increase in individualism and narcissism in this generation has led to a general decline in the value of social acceptance; consequently organizations and managers are recommended to focus on individuals rather than team work. Furthermore, Chatterjee and Hambrick (2007) believe that narcissists take more risks and experience more ups and downs in their performance, although their high self-esteem is also linked to high expectations at work (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Moreover, Roberts, Edmonds, and Grijalva (2010) believe that today's culture emphasizes self-serving, which prioritizes the individual's needs over those of society, leading today's young people to be more self-centered.

At the same time, Howe and Strauss (2009) believe that the Y Generation will revert to being the "Greatest Generation", suggesting that it will be group oriented and anti-individualistic; however, the writers supply no psychological data to support this belief. Moreover, Roberts et al. (2010) believe that every generation of young people is by nature more narcissistic than the previous generations, not only because of cultural changes but also due to age-related developmental associated trends, the effect of generation being less than the effect of age and age-graded roles. These researchers suggest that narcissism is a phenomenon to do with one's age, not to one's place in history; younger cohorts are not suffering from an increasing narcissism, but are going through an age-related phase in which elements such as gender and ethnic background

play a role in enhancing narcissism. Trzesniewski, Donnellan, and Robins (2008a) make the point that the increase in narcissism occurring in data from 27 campuses nationwide is evidence that the average college student in 2006 scored higher in narcissism than the 65 scored by students in the early 1980s. However, this does apply to the data from the campuses of the University of California, where almost 40 percent of the sample were Asian. Since those cultures discourage narcissism, whereas high narcissism is a trend in this generation, one's culture still has the power to shape and control narcissism.

In recent years many countries in the Middle East have become more active in the global marketplace; hence, these countries have experienced increased industrialization and economic mobility (Ali, 1993). This has brought them an increased number of Western expatriates, who have exposed many local staff across the Middle East to their business methods and Western values. Given these dramatic changes, it is possible that these Arab societies are verging closer to individualism, but there is still little evidence on the levels of individualism within an Arab society (Whiteoak et al., 2006).

The latter authors found in a survey of 261 UAE nationals that they have higher levels of individualism (lower levels of collectivism) than older UAE nationals had. This may indicate that modernization combined with the power of Westernization in the young nation may be having an important effect on the values of young UAE nationals. The findings have therefore important implications for the country, since individualism is claimed to be associated with a country's economic success (Hofstede & Peterson, 2000) through the development of innovation and entrepreneurship.

The orientation towards individualism may also be associated with

demographic changes, as one of the major trends among Emirati families is the decline in the birth rate (Green & Smith, 2007; Shawky, 2001), Only 18% of young Emirati women would like to have 6 or more children (Broome, 2004). This suggests a tendency to smaller families and individualism replacing the collective norms of earlier decades that resulted from being brought up with many brothers and sisters. Such demographic changes are combined with the power of technology; young Emiratis spend on average 9.9 hours daily on a range of media tools, perhaps a longer time than they spend asleep (Hashem & Smith, 2010). These new trends together, to my mind, naturally promote individualism among young Emiratis, who, unlike those of previous generations, came from extended families and enjoyed more team games when they were young.

Looking at the limitation of Hofstede in context of the Y Generation, the first limitation is related to people's age. The Y Generation is currently in its 20s or early 30s, and age may have an impact on individuals' cultural perceptions, although the implications of this are not yet clear (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). Oyserman et al. (2002) indicate that cultural differences between students are smaller than the cultural differences between adults. This finding may have implications for the research on the Y Generation, since some of its members may still be at the stage of working towards a first academic degree.

Bik (2010) contends that, as well as the limitations of Hofstede's study, which is based on only a single organization, today after 30 years the study seems to be less soundly based than before, given the changing patterns of socialization and increased levels of exchange between cultures, as a result of intensive communication globally enhanced by the power of the Internet. However, Javidan, House, and Dorfman (2004)

state that "the increased connection among countries, and the globalization of corporations, does not mean that cultural differences are disappearing or diminishing". They further speculate that "as economic borders come down, cultural barriers and their impact could go up", presenting new challenges and thereby further opportunities for businesses worldwide. Green and Smith (2007) submit that, although values may change over time due to modernization, the associated differences between countries regarding values remain stable.

To conclude, generational differences in the context of culture present a new challenge for Human Resources Management professionals and decision makers, yet the efforts made in the field especially in the context of the Middle East and the GCC, are not enough for the required level. Many of the cultural dimensions of the GCC cultures, such as collectivism and femininity, come directly from Islam, the formal religion of Arab citizen, and these cultures are well defined by their religious features. Nonetheless, the current changes combined with the power of globalization and of technology may be worth evaluating, given their implications for such aspects of work as employees' behaviors and employment values. This has further implications in the context of the ambitious plans and strategies of the UAE government as embodied in the 2021 vision, because of its current employment challenges.

2.3 Generational Differences

The first section has identified the UAE's cultural dimensions and their implications for HRM practices. This section addresses generational differences and their associated characteristics, with particular reference to generational development in the UAE and the Y Generation.

The section first defines generations, highlighting the importance of generational differences in HRM and organizational management, followed by an identification of Baby Boomers, the X Generation and the Y Generation, illustrating their generational implications for HRM and their characteristics from the current research.

2.3.1 Definitions and the Importance of Generational Differences for HRM

KupperSchmidt (2000, p. 66) identifies a generational cohort as an "identifiable group that shares birth years, age, location and significant life events at critical development stages, divided by five to seven years into the first wave, core group and last wave". He believes that a cohort (or a generational group) as a result of diverse social or life events, which then become experiences, develops a personality that influences their members' feelings towards authority and organization. This also affects the way that they define expectations with respect to the post they occupy, and how they plan to satisfy the associated desires (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Ryder (1965) describes similarities among generational cohorts as "Demographic Metabolism", which implies that a generation faces and lives with certain social forces and uniquely reacts to them and to historical and social events, driving a process of social change. Ryder (1965) further shows that the shared experience of a generation contributes to the development of unique characteristics (e.g. it values, attitude, personality), which differentiates one generation from another. These unique characteristics accordingly impact on the forces in society and drive societal change. Similarly, Twenge and Campbell (2008) note that individuals/generations are influenced by peers, parents, popular culture and major events, developing unique characteristics that are associated with each generation.

But Wey Smola and Sutton (2002) believe that differences between generations are a matter of age and career reflections. Similarly, Trzesniewski and Donnellan (2010) think that many studies that have indicated generational differences are unreliable because they were not based on nationally representative samples. However, Schuman and Scott (1989) conjecture that individuals of the same generation do have "Collective Memories" established in their formative years, supporting the generational differences view. They add that the concept of "Collective Memories" points to a variety of life events (technological, social, economic and political) which have different implications for individuals at different stages. Regarding the concept of "Collective Memory", Schuman and Scott (1989) wonder if the members of each generation may react differently to such events, in alignment with their current perception of them and their implications for their own lives, because their reaction is affected by their understanding of the event and its interpretation, according to which future behavior and attitude are related, reflecting the age at which people experienced it. Similarly, Mannheim (1952) describes similar attitudes and values for most members of a generation, developing what is known in the literature as "Generational Cohort Theory". Rogler (2002) finds that the formation of a generation's collective identity occurs in the following ways; first through significant events such as disasters or wars which challenge the existing social order and underlie the emergence of a new generation. Second, these events have further impact on the growing value system of the generation, which is not yet as fully developed as it is in older people. Finally, the process of developing a generation's collective identity is supported by everyone in the same generation, which persists throughout adulthood. A good example in the Middle Eastern region is the Gulf War (1990-1991), which had different implications for each of three generations, according to the stage at which it was experienced.

Campbell, Cammbell, Siedor and Twenge (2015) identify three theoretical models of generational difference. The first is the Cyclic Model, which rests on cyclic models of economic change established by Kondratiev (1926) and called "K Waves" or "Economic Seasons" This suggests that generations like economics follow patterns or cycles, for instance, moving from extravagant generations such as Baby Boomers to civic-minded generations (Y Generations). The second model is "Modernization", which indicates that generations go through the processes of modernization which are reflected by increasing individualism, tolerance and civic management. The final model is the "Rising Extrinsic and Individualism Model", which predicts that generations will evolve towards more extrinsic features, self-expression and self-focus, wrapped with inward focus.

The concept of generational differences has not only been analyzed in the context of HRM, but also in the context of marketing and consumer behavior (Roberts & Manolis,200), as well as family responsibilities and parental socialization values (Alwin, 1991; Gans & Silverstein, 2006) indicating its wide implications for individuals' behaviors in many fields. McMullin, Duerden Comeau, and Jovic (2007) believe that the theory behind generational differences is mainly related to the influence of early life experiences on values and attitudes and in turn on behaviors.

With this in mind, HR specialists, managers and researchers are increasingly becoming interested in the process and tool of managing and working with people of different generations in the same workplace (Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, & Gardner, 2008). The literature of the last decade reports many differences between the two workforce groups, Baby Boomers and the X Generation, which may lead to conflicts in the working environment (S. J. Adams, 2000; Bradford, 1993; Jurkiewicz,

2000: Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Researchers predict that such differences will provide challenges for managers to effectively manage their workforce (Benson & Brown, 2011). This prompts the warning that failure to recognize these differences many lead to negative organizational outcomes, such as misunderstanding, miscommunication, poor working relationships, reduced employer productivity, poor employee well-being, lower innovation, and fewer behaviors showing organizational citizenship (S. J. Adams, 2000; Bradford, 1993; Fyock, 1990; Jurkiewicz, 2000; Kupperschmidt, 2000; Westerman & Yamamura, 2007; Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002; Yu & Miller, 2005).

However, Kupperschmidt (2000) suggests that understanding these differences can be used as a managerial tool to enhance employee productivity, innovation and cooperative citizenship. Similarly, Lancaster and Stillman (2002) submit that better understanding of generations cohabiting in the workplace can result in better recruitment, retention, succession, management, communication, employee engagement and conflict resolution. Moreover, Park and Gursoy (2012) contend that in an organizational context generational characteristics may lead to formulating a generational perception of different organizational features and their associated work values. One of the biggest challenges for organizations in the coming years will be the retirement of more than 75 million older workers worldwide, and their replacement by young people who are just entering the workforce (Twenge et al., 2010).

2.3.2 The Three Generations of Todays' Workplace

The current workplace environment holds three major generations: Baby Boomers (born 1946-1964), the X Generation (1965-1979) and the Y Generation (1980-1999). Researchers across the world slightly differ over the starting and ending

years of each generation, but the present research will use the above timeframes. Little information is available about these three generations in the UAE, given the infancy of institutional education and associated research in the region. The table below shows the current demographic structure of the UAE's population with reference to the three generations, and their growth rate:

Table 2: UAE Populations by Generations 2005-2015

Generation	Born	2005	2010	2015
Traditionalist	1952-1954	70,360 2%	45,067 1%	29,784 1%
Baby Boomers	1946-1964	758,786 19%	567,243 11%	383,721 7%
X Generation	1965-1979	1,682,728 41%	1,752,082 35%	1,513,689 26%
Y Generation	1980-1999	1,190,636 29%	1,811,635 36%	2,588,396 45%
Z Generation	From 2000	384,092 9%	799,756 16%	1,264,170 22%
Total Population		4,086,602	4,975,593	5,779,760*

(Source: US Census Bureau, 2012) * UAE total population in around 9 M, the difference of 3 M is due to those who are born after 2010.

Kupperschmidt (2000) explains that the Baby Boomers got their name because

of the boom in births between 1946 and 1964; they grew up expecting the best from life. He goes on to say that growing in an environment where they have witnessed the foibles of political, religious and business leaders has resulted in their losing traditional respect and loyalty to authority and social institutions, but the development of positive work abilities such as consensus building, mentoring and effecting change.

A review of the current literature (Hart, 2006; Loomis, 2000; Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002) suggests that Baby Boomers value job security and a stable working environment, which arouse their loyalty and attachment to an organization. It is evident also that they are more idealistic and optimistic, achievement oriented (O'Bannon, 2001), and independent in the control of their own destinies (Mitchell, 1988). McCrindle and Hooper (2006) find that Baby Boomers enjoy a high degree of power, whereas Hart (2006) also believes that they are excellent mentors at work and value the chance to learn new skills, personal improvement and creativity at work (Jurkiewicz, 2000; S. Lyons, 2005).

Lowe, Levitt, and Wilson (2008) maintain that, since Baby Boomers compose the most numerous generation in history, they are competitive by nature and thus work for longer hours and show loyalty. However, although they respect authority, they dislike both authoritarianism and laziness and tend to micro-manage people. Egri and Ralston (2004) add that Baby Boomers are higher in self-enhancement values such as achievement than either X Generation or Y Generation and they also seemed to be more self-reliant, hardworking and work centered than younger generations were (Meriac, Woehr, & Banister, 2010). Drewery, Riley, and Staff (2008) believe that Baby Boomers are highly competitive and work driven, placing more value on organizational commitment. Salahuddin (2010) observes that Baby Boomers are

service oriented, good team players, good at socializing and appreciative of good work ethics; many of them occupy middle to senior positions in today's workplaces. Gursoy, Maier, and Chi (2008) and Hart (2006) state that, Baby Boomers are more loyal and attached to their organization than the X and Y Generations. The Family and Work Institute (2006) reports that Baby Boomers are more driven by goal accomplishment and rewards, and accordingly show a higher desire to occupy positions of greater responsibility than their children or grandchildren do.

Baby Boomers in the UAE witnessed the birth of the nation in the early 1970s and were brought up in an environment that lacked many resources. The few of them who have a university degree generally obtained their education overseas (most often Egypt and the USA). They are largely employed by the government, where employment for life is more common.

Research on the X Generation indicates that this generation is more cynical, pessimistic and tends more towards individualism (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002), because they have grown up in conditions of rapid change, great diversity and a lack of solid traditional practices. Thus the team or collective approach may be used to support their individual efforts and relationships (Karp, Sirias, & Arnold, 1999). The X-ers are known for their ability to change and adapt, and tolerate diversity, and also their tendency to show less loyalty to their employers, and more independence and self-sufficiency than previous generations had (Hart, 2006). This may result in their comparative readiness to leave an organization to gain a higher salary or improved benefits (Loomis, 2000); at the same time, their work centrality is lower than that of the Baby Boomers.

Furthermore, the X Generation prefers immediate feedback (O'Bannon, 2001).

craves mentors (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998), and brings well-honed, practical approaches to problem solving in the workplace (Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002). It is technologically competent, competitive, comfortable with diversity, change, and multi-tasking (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Egri and Ralston (2004) remark that the X Generation thinks it more important to be open to changing values such as self-direction, while it scores lower in self enhancement values such as achievement than Baby Boomers do.

Lowe et al. (2008) describe the X Generation as children of the workaholic Baby Boomers, who saw their parents downsizing and hence are distrustful of large corporations. They add that the X Generation values a good work/life balance, is unlikely to work for a single company or for long hours, and responds to a coaching management style. Heraty, Morley, Cleveland, Beutell, and Wittig-Berman (2008) note that the members of the X Generation are individualistic and believe their own career is more important than loyalty to an organization. Lu and Gursoy (2016) find after reviewing the literature about Generations X and Y that they have some common features in their work related values, such as low work centrality, less organizational commitment and high leisure values.

The X Generation in the UAE is the first generation that observed the development of the nation, and the results of increasing oil revenues. These have impacted all aspects of life, especially the educational side, as a number of universities and colleges started to offer certified programs, for example, the UAE University, established in 1976 by the late H.H. Shaikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahyan, followed by the Higher Colleges of Technology, set up in 1988 and Zayed University in 1998.

Finally, the youngest generational group currently at work is known as the Y

Generation. This collective term is used in the literature to denote individuals across the world who were born between 1979 and 1999. The starting year is not agreed. since some see the Y Generation as beginning early in 1979 or 1980. while others choose the mid-1980s for its inception. The dates are 1979-1994 for Wey Smola and Sutton (2002); 1982-2000 for Hart (2006) and 1980-1999 for Lim (2013). These newcomers have been referred as Millennials (www.census.gov). Generation Me (Twenge, 2010). and Y-ers of the Next Generation (Jennings, 2000).

The Y Generation was born at a time of knowledge revaluation. and witnessed the 11th September attacks. which impacted all aspects of life: social. economic and political. Moreover. many of them have also have seen their parents' loss of job security. as a result of the most recent worldwide recession. This generation was the first to be born into 24-hour electronic connectivity. and is expected to be the first generation to be socially active since the 1960s (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The Y Generation has experienced a distinct set of social. cultural and economic events, which have shaped their formative years. combined with new powers of communication technology and its implications for everyday life in economic and social contact (Wong. Gardiner. Lang. & Coulon. 2008). Increasingly social researchers across the world are focusing on the need to work with. engage. and manage the Y Generation differently than previous generations (Huntley, 2006; Strauss & Howe, 2000; Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002). Strauss and Howe (2000) describe the Y Generation as follows:

1-They are special. vital and full of promise. not only from themselves. but also in the future for their society and the world.

2-They are sheltered. having being smothered with safety rules and devices.

3-They are confident as a result of their trust and optimism.

4-They are team oriented. having been raised on team sports and group learning.

5-They are achievers, as the result of higher school standards and have an instilled sense of accountability.

6-They are under pressure and feel the need to excel and do well.

7-They are conversational. rather than rebellious.

The Y Generation has been theoretically described as optimists, cooperative. team players, trusting. accepting of authority, rule-followers. smart, civic-minded, specially sheltered, confident, achieving, pressured, and conventional (Strauss & Howe, 2000). Yet Twenge and Campbell (2003) believe that the Y Generation has a higher level of narcissism, anxiety, depression, lower trends of social approval and a stronger external spot of control than previous generations had.

ASDA`A (2011) conducted a large-scale youth survey in the Middle East, where Emiratis comprised half of the UAE sample in the survey. The organizers notes that the Y Generation in the UAE are digital natives, conservative, strongly conscious of national identity, career and family oriented, financially pressured, cautiously optimistic and committed to education. Ling Lim (2012) for her part acknowledges that the "Y Generation in the UAE were marked by economic prosperity, regional political unity, social advances in literacy rate, life expectancy and increasing women`s participation in work and politics. Thereby these events have impacted the formation of the generation, affecting their characteristic traits, life and work values".

Ashridge Business School as a result of a number of international surveys,

which included respondents from both Europe and the Middle East targeting Y Generation graduates and employees and their managers', focusing on work related attitude. Illustrate that young employees identify that they require more respect at work environment, further listening, and more supporting for reaching their targeted career progression plans and goals. While their managers thought that Y Generation need to learn and develop before asking for salary increase or promotion. Ashridge research has also identified that according to Y Generation's managers, young employees require regular feedback about their performance, while setting clear objectives for them (Peters, 2012).

Jayaseree's pilot study (2014) on value orientation in the UAE's Y Generation using the World Value Survey (WVS) (a paper in progress, which was shared during the Strathclyde dialogues in Abu Dhabi on 14/10/2014) lists the following as the main value attributes of the generation:

•Very good mix between materialistic and non-materialistic approaches

•General respect for authority

•Great pride in national identity

•Tendency towards innovation ('my own way')

•High recognition for own achievements and individual performance

•Technology oriented, where technology is perceived as "making life easier"

•Sense of purpose, looking forward to society based activities that relate to charities and the environment.

Overall, Jayaseree's basic findings (2014) are that the members of the Y

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Generation in the UAE are effectively rooted and aspirational; they would like to be treated and recognized as individuals, while living for a purpose.

2.3.3 Generational Differences in regard to HRM

Meriac et al. (2010) believe that no aspect of difference between generations have received as much attention as the concept of work related attitudes and values. Deal (2007) believes that the perceptions and realities associated with different generations are substantially different. But Deal, Altman, and Rogelberg (2010) together hold that the empirical research available on the Y Generation is contradictory and sometimes confusing.

The recent interest in the Y Generation among academics and practitioners is mainly due to the present influence of generation membership on the workplace (Macey & Schneider, 2008b). Attention is accordingly paid to finding how organizations and their HRM teams can manage their future relationship with the new generation of employees, target their work values, and meet their motivational needs and career expectations (Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al., 2008; Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Dries, et al., 2008; Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002; Wong et al., 2008). Enz and Siguaw (2000) point out that the notion of viewing employees in different segments has been proposed as a best practice in HRM, even though it has received only minor attention in the HRM literature.

An evaluation of generational differences in academic writing draws on evidence of some consensus that the Y Generation differs from members of the same age groups in previous decades (Giancola, 2006). Moore, Grunberg, and Krause (2015) in their assessment of 3,000 employees of an American organization, observe

that generational differences are more obvious in white-collar (professional) employees than in blue-collar (production) employees. Although this is not a unanimous view, it brings up the possibility of analyzing generation differences, mainly those of the Y Generation in the UAE in connection with its 2021 vision and the associated challenges to the employment and retaining of its members. Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) submit that understanding differences between generations at work is a first step in meeting the diversity of employees' needs in today's business environment. Lyons, Schwitzer, Ng, and Kuron (2012) contend that the literature yields convincing evidence that personalities have shifted both in general and in relation to work; successive generations, for example, appear to be more neurotic, extraverted, and conscientious. George and Brief (1992) proposes that such shifts have several implications for work, since these personalities influence turnover, satisfaction, leadership and stress management, among other outcomes.

Twenge and Campbell (2001), and Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Twenge, and Campbell (2008) summarize the evidence of generational changes in the workplace, and the accommodations that organizations make in response, versus the counter pressure faced by organizations (see Table 2.3).

Table 3: Evidence of Generational Changes in Workplace

Trait change	Evidence in workplace	Change in employee needs/values	Organizational change: Accommodation	Organizational change: counter pressure
Need for social approval down	Casual dress, less formality	"Do what's right for you"	First name basis, casual dress	Dress codes
Self-esteem and narcissism up	Higher expectations, fulfilment	"It's all about me!" ethical problems	Praise programs, training in ethics	No self-evaluation

Locus of control more external	Not taking responsibility for success or failures	Needing a push by organization to produce	More team working	Accountability for Performance
Anxiety and depression up	Stress levels up	More mental health services needed	Provision of mental health services	Releasing employees stressed by job environment
Women more energetic and assertive	More female workers in more powerful positions	Gender equality, child care needs	child care centres flexible time, promotion of women	Rewarding longer working hours

(Source: Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Twenge, et al. (2008))

To conclude, the notice taken of generational differences by HRM has further implications for the UAE's culture, given the country's demographic structure, labor market challenges and 2021 vision. Attention should be paid to these differences and suitable tools should be provided for responding to them, thereby enhancing the work engagement of the Y Generation and the investment of its skills and talents in the future of the growing nation.

2.4 Work Engagement

The third section of the literature review starts by defining work engagement and its associated models and measures, highlighting its importance for today's business environment with particular focus on the UAE, the setting of the study. What follows is a review of the implications in the literature of work engagement in the generational context. After that, the section evaluates the impact of various demographic and socioeconomic factors in work engagement, as pointed out by previous studies.

2.4.1 Conceptualization and Operationalization

Employee well-being has been identified as a critical issue for human resources among a wide range of organizational aspects, because it is related to favorable outcomes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Schaufeli, Tairs, & Van Rhenen, 2008). Among the elements associated with employee well-being, work engagement has recently drawn the attention of both academics and practitioners, in view of its various benefits to the organization (Sonnentag, 2003), in alignment with the shift towards the emergence of positive psychological traits, human strengths and optimal functions, and a shift away from the traditional focus on weaknesses and malfunctioning (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Macey, Schneider, Barbera, and Young (2011, p. 7) define work engagement as a "focused energy that is directed towards organizational goals". The Gallup Organization defines engaged employees as those who "work with a passion and feel a profound connection to their company, drive innovation and move the organization forward". Alternatively, it can be defined as occurring "when employees feel positive emotions toward their work, find their work to be personally meaningful, consider their workload to be manageable, and have hope about the future of their work" (Macey & Schneider, 2008b). Similarly, Saks (2006, p.602) define engagement "as a distinct and unique construct that consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that are associated with individual role performance". Or as a process of "investing the hands, head and heart" (Rich et al., 2010, p. 619).

Shuck and Wollard (2010, p. 103) define employee work engagement as " an individual employee's cognitive, emotional and behavioral state directed toward desired organizational outcomes". Kahn (1990, p. 700) describes work engagement as

"the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's preferred self in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others. where personal presence includes: physical, cognitive and emotional". Personal engagement may be defined as "the harnessing of organizational members' selves to their work roles, upon which engaged individuals employ and express themselves: physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performance" (Kahn, 1990, p. 894). Miller, Woehr, and Hudspeth (2002) and Kahn (1992) add that in this involvement physical, cognitive and emotional factors are simultaneously connected instead of fragmented. Kahn (1990) proposes that personal engagement represents a state in which employees "bring in" their personal selves during work role performance, while investing their personal energy, thereby experiencing an emotional connection with their work.

Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002, p.74) define work engagement as "a positive, work-related state of fulfilment, which is characterized by: vigor, dedication and absorption". Here vigor signifies high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, while dedication denotes being deeply involved and feeling a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge: and absorption in one's work is defined as being 'fully concentrated and happily engrossed, characterized by time passing quickly and finding it difficult to detach oneself from what one is doing'. This set of characteristics will be used as a definition throughout the present study, with its associated measures.

Macey and Schneider (2008b) believe that the term 'engagement' among both academic and workplace practitioners is ambiguous. These researchers further contribute to the debate on the meaning of engagement by offering a number of propositions. In the first of these, seeking to differentiate between engagement and

satisfaction, they believe that the measures of engagement in use are very similar to job satisfaction measures, but work engagement is notably above and beyond simple satisfaction, since it involves passion and commitment, and the willingness to invest oneself to help the employer to succeed. The authors, after illustrating the definition from fourteen related propositions, define work engagement as "a consequence of both environmental conditions and dispositional characteristics, and their interaction" (Macey and Schneider, 2008, p.25)

Christian et al. (2011, p. 90) define work engagement as "a relatively enduring state of mind referring to the simultaneous investment of personal energies in the experience of performance of work". They state that the concept is distinguishable from job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement; although it may share item content with measures of other constructs, these items are combined in a way that makes work engagement a unique concept.

To summarize, the definitions available in the literature in context of engagement have three main elements: the first concerns personal engagement, and is mostly highlighted by the work of Kahn. The second is mainly associated with employee engagement its implications for the organization, and are probably best illustrated by the Gallup organization. Work engagement, which is the main focus for the present study is mostly connected with the elements of: vigor, dedication and absorption associated with the measurement tool of the Utrecht Work Engagement scale (UWES).

Several instruments have been devised to measure work engagement; efforts to measure it start at the individual level, from which scores are then aggregated to measure engagement at the organizational level or work group level (Attridge, 2009).

The measures of engagement mainly include items representing four different attributes. namely. job satisfaction. organizational commitment. psychological empowerment and job involvement (Macey & Schneider. 2008a). Studies of measures divide employees into three major categories: disengaged. moderately engaged. and highly engaged (Towers. 2003).

Although Kahn (1990) presents a comprehensive definition of work engagement. he does not propose an operationalization of the definition. or a methodology for assessment (Miller et al., 2002). Scaufeli et al. (2002) refer to a consistent state through the three elements of work engagement: vigor. dedication and absorption. This is measured by means of the Utrecht Work Engagement scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker 2003).

This scale includes items for assessing the three dimensions of work engagement. behavioral. emotional and cognitive. which corresponded to the work engagement attributes of Vigor (VI. 6 items). Dedication (DE. 5 items) and Absorption (AB. 6 items). All items are scored on 7-point scales ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (always). The UWES has been widely used. for example in China (Yi-wen & Yi-qun. 2005). Finland (Hakanen. 2002). Greece (Xanthopoulou. Bakker. Demerouti. & Schaufeli. 2007). South Africa (Storm & Rothmann. 2003). and the Middle East (Elewa. 2013). Studies have confirmed the internal consistency of the three-factor structure of work engagement; for one thing. Cronbach's Alpha results typically range between .80 and .90. exceeding the .70 which is considered to be the general standard for acceptance (Nunnally. 1994).

Shcaufeli. Bakker and Salanova (2006) using data from 10 different countries. discovered that the original 17-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) can be

shortened to 9 items still with good internal consistency, and concluded that the UWES 9 scores has acceptable psychometric properties, enabling the instrument to be used in studies on positive organizational behavior (POB): "the study and the application of positively oriented human resources strengths and psychological capacities can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (Luthans, 2002).

May et al. (2004) introduce a model based on Kahn's (1990) definition, identifying elements related to cognitive, physical and emotional components, but no information is available yet about the psychometric qualities of the scale (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Saks (2006), building on Kahn's (1990) definition of work engagement, has measured employees engagement by organizational engagement and work engagement. Saks (2006) accordingly identifies 6 items measuring organizational engagement, and another 5 items measuring work engagement, but no information about their internal consistency has been published. Meanwhile, The Gallup Organization has developed a 12 item index after studying productive work groups and individuals, but has given no information about its psychometric quality, despite the widespread use of the scale in different economies around the world.

While the UWES has an acceptable degree of internal consistency, the models based on Khan's (1990) definition by May et al. (2004) and by Saks (2006) as indicated earlier, have not provided enough information about their psychometric qualities. In addition, the confirmatory factor analysis applied to the hypothesized three-factor structure of UWES makes it superior (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Although some studies (e.g. Sonnentag, 2003) have failed to find a three-factor structure, Bakker and Demerouti (2008) rationalize this failure as due to the contribution of a translation

problem, especially when it comes to items that involve metaphors.

The present research, as noted above will be based on the definition of work engagement by Maslach. Schaufeli et al. (2001) and its three associated attributes, vigor, dedication and absorption, will accordingly be measured using the UWES. The latter has been examined in a number of cultures, including those of the Middle East, and has proved its internal consistency. Although the UWES has been translated into more than 30 languages, it is not available in Arabic; hence, translating the scale while ensuring its internal consistency became one of the challenges for the current study. It should be noted that UWES has been applied to university students (Schaufeli, Marinez, Pinto, Salanova & Bakker, 2002), as well as employees in cross-national studies at different occupational levels (Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, Janssen & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli et al. 2006), confirming its ability to be applied in the present study to measuring three different generations of UAE nationals in several economic sectors.

2.4.2 Importance of Work Engagement

Bakker (2011) claims that work engagement is a better predictor of job performance than other earlier constructs defined in the literature. The relationship between the variables of work engagement and performance related outcomes can in the long run create competitive advantage for organizations across the world (Shuck et al., 2011).

Chalofsky (2010) estimates that only 30% of those who go to work are even partially engaged, and Gallup similarly shows that fewer than one in every five workers is actively engaged with work (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Furthermore,

Gallup and Newport (2010) estimate that disengaged employees cost US companies between $250 and 350 billion annually, the Australian economy $4.9 Billion, and the Asian economy $2.5 billion. Perrin (2005), using data from more than 85,000 employees across 16 countries, indicates that 24% of the employees were disengaged, 62% were moderately engaged and only 14% were engaged. The latter study further indicates a number of differences between regions. For instance, Mexico and Brazil are at the higher end, with 40% and 31% of highly engaged employees respectively, while the USA and Canada are in the middle (12% and 17% respectively), and Europe and Asia at the lower end (11% and 7% respectively). However, Gebauer, Lowman, and Gordon (2008) suggest that engagement is significantly declining worldwide.

Although engaging employees is one of the top five most important challenges for management (Wah, 1999), and most organizations include engagement among their performance measures (Evenson, 2014), only 35% consider themselves successful in actually perceiving the positive outcomes associated with work engagement (Evenson, 2014).

Shimazu, Schaufeli, Kamiyama, and Kawakami (2015) warn that, although work engagement and workaholism are both distinctive types of work investment, they should not be misleading. Their two years' longitudinal study across more than 1000 Japanese employees suggested that workaholism and work engagement are reversely related to (un)well-being. Furthermore, work engagement predicts an increase in job performance, while workaholism does not, contradicting the belief among many organizations and managers that workaholics are superior performers. Researchers accordingly recommend HRM managers to promote work engagement, while guarding against workaholism.

To conclude, work engagement has further implications for the UAE given the conditions in its labor market and the challenges related to the UAE nationals' contribution to the workforce and their employment in the private sector. Moreover, under the new 2021 vision, further efforts are needed by both the government and private organizations throughout the economy in order to ensure effective alignment between the new generation's requirements and the tools, policies, practices and facilities offered by the HR departments.

2.4.3 Models of Work Engagement

Perspectives on work engagement have emerged from the study of burnout, from which it appears that work engagement is the opposite of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Work engagement is defined as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova et al. 2002, p.74). Burnout in contrast is defined as a three-dimensional construct made up of exhaustion (the depletion or draining of mental resources), cynicism (indifference or a distant attitude to one's job) and lack of professional efficiency (the tendency to evaluate ones' work performance negatively, resulting in feelings of insufficiency and poor job-related self-esteem) (Maslach, 1993). Vigor and dedication are the positive direct opposites of exhaustion and cynicism, respectively (Maslach et al., 2001). Accordingly a number of models in the literature have started from burnout, and have gone on to analyze work engagement, exploring the relationship between it and a series of work environment variables and personal resources.

Maslach et al. (2001) identify six areas of life at work which lead to burnout and thereby indirectly to engagement, namely, workload, control, rewards and recognition, community and social support, perceived fairness and values. They argue

that work engagement is associated with a sustainable workload, feeling of choice and control, appropriate recognition and rewards, a supportive work community, fairness and justice, and meaningful and valued work. Accordingly, work engagement/ burnout mediates the relationship between these six factors and various work outcomes that include organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory, "MBI: Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1986)", is considered the most widely used model to assess burnout. Researchers in the burnout literature began by considering cures for it as a disease. Hence, the role of organizational and employee wellbeing was perceived as a function for work engagement and a strategy for optimizing human strength (Shuck, 2011). Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), using a sample of 314 Spanish university students and 619 Spanish employees, provided empirical evidence for the use of MBI as a measure for engagement. Having examined MBI, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). Since publication the UWES emerged as a widely used measure for engagement (Shuck 2011). However a major limitation of the model and scale by Maslach et al. (2001), is that it conceptualizes work engagement only as the opposite of a negative state, and not as a separate state of mind (Shirom, 2003).

Kahn (1990) demonstrates that three psychological conditions are associated with engagement; meaningfulness, safety and availability, which he considers as dimensions of psychological conditions. Kahn (1990) adds that this means that workers are more engaged at work in situations that offer them greater psychological meaningfulness, that is, the feeling that one's work is worthwhile and accompanied by a sense of value. They are also more engaged when they are offered psychological

safety, which is the ability to be one's preferred self, together with trust of their working style, which allows their authentic styles and those of their colleagues to merge in practice, "when they are more psychologically available, which indicates the availability of resources (e.g. budget, and manpower)". Kahn (1990) identifies meaningfulness "as a sense of return on investment of self in role performance"; this is influenced by work elements that substitute incentives for disincentives of self-investment, such as tasks, work and work interaction. Safety is characterized by the "sense of being able to show and employ self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career, and includes all elements of the social system, interpersonal relations, group and intergroup dynamics, management style and process and organizational norms". Finally Availability according to Khan (1990) is defined as "sense of processing the physical emotional and psychological resources necessary for investing self in role performance", and according to Kahn (1990) includes influences such as individual and physical energies, insecurity and outside life. May, Gilson et al. (2004), in an attempt to test Kahn's model (1990), found that job enrichment and role fit are positive predictors of meaningfulness, rewarding co-worker and supportive supervisor relations are positive predictors of safety, and finally that the resources available are a positive predictor of psychological availability.

The Job Demand Model, "JDM; Bakker and Demerouti (2007)" assumes that burnout is not related to the type of occupation, and, simply through its two inputs of job demands and job resources, illustrates the fact that when job demands are higher than job resources, individuals are exposed to high levels of execution; for this reason, lack of job resources is the most predictable factor of disengagement. Job demands, in this model, refer to the physical, social or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort, and are therefore "associated with certain

physiological and psychological costs". Job resources refer to the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: be functional in achieving the work goals, reduce the job demands and the associated psychological costs, or make demands that stimulate personal growth and development. The JDM classifies those resources into two categories: external (organizational and social) and internal (cognitive features and action patterns), and the model focuses on the external resources only.

The Demand-Control Model "DCM; Karasek Jr (1979)" indicates that job strain is caused by the combination of high job demands and low job control. Karasek Jr (1979) further indicates that employee who can decide for themselves how to meet their job demands do not experience job strain.

The above models (JDM and DCM) indicate that the interaction between job demands and job resources intensifies either job strain or motivation, while job resources may buffer the impact of job demands on job strain, including burnout (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003). However the JD-R model with its resources offers a number of tools that can act as a buffer, unlike the DCM which offers control alone. Hart (2006) argues that the buffering or the interaction effect can occur between any pair of variables in the stress/strain sequence; he adds that the properties of the work situation, as well as the characteristics of the individual, can buffer the effect of a stressor.

Effort-Reward Imbalance "ERI; Hart (2006)" assumes that job strain results from an imbalance between efforts (the extrinsic job demands and instinctive motivation to meet these demands) and rewards (in terms of salary, esteem rewards and security/career opportunity). Furthermore the ERI model introduces a personal

component: thus personality is expected to qualify the interaction between efforts and rewards (Lim. 2013).

Bakker and Demerouti (2008). building upon the findings of previous studies, create a model designed to develop work engagement and meanwhile ensure improved career development in today's workplace. The model uses two types of resource: one is job resources. that is. connected with "physical. social or organizational aspects of the job" (Bakker & Demerouti. 2008). such as – according to the model – social support from colleagues and supervisors. performance feedback. skill variety. autonomy and learning opportunities. and personal resources "defined as positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and refer to individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment" (Broadbridge. Maxwell. & Ogden. 2007). The other type of resource. according to the model. includes such factors as optimism. self-efficacy. resilience and organizational based self-esteem. In this model job resources and personal resources predict work engagement with the three dimensions of vigor. dedication. and absorption. Furthermore the two above-mentioned enablers. job and personal resources. have significant impact on work engagement when job demands are high (such as work pressure. emotional demands. mental demands. and physical demands.). Finally work engagement predicts all aspects of performance (in-role performance. extra-role performance. creativity and turnover). According to this model engaged employees are able to create their own resources, which then foster work engagement again: hence personal resources in the first phase turn into enablers supporting employees by building their engagement. which they then enhance over time. acting in the second phase as consequences.

Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) have tested the above model among 517 Dutch

employees examining the role of three personal attributes (self-efficacy, organizational based self-esteem and optimism). The results indicate that personal resources do not offset the relationship between job demands and exhaustion; instead, personal resources mediate the relationship between job resources and engagement/ exhaustion and are influenced by the perception of job resources. Self-efficacy, according to the model, may be defined as the "individual's perceptions of their ability to meet demand in a broad array of contexts" (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001), which includes the accumulation of success as well as persistent positive experience. Furthermore, Organizational Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) is defined as "the degree to which organizational members believe that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the context of an organization". Optimism refers to the tendency to believe that one will generally experience good outcomes in life (Scheier & Carver, 1985).

Saks'(2006) model is built on those of Kahn (1992) and Maslach et al. (2001), for which six antecedents have been identified; job characteristics, reward and recognition; perceived organizational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (PSS), distributive justice, and finally procedural justice. Furthermore, the model identifies employee engagement of two kinds: job engagement and organization engagement. This is consistent with the understanding of engagement in May et al. (2004) and in Singer and Abramson (1973), in which they indicate that people have multiple roles in the organization, among which for most people the dominant roles are their work role and their role as a member of the organization; hence, these writers suggest that researchers should examine engagement in multiple roles within the organization. The results of doing so indicate that job and organizational engagements are related but have different constructs. For instance, perceived organizational support (POS) predicts both job and organizational engagement; job characteristics predict job

engagement: and procedural justice predicts organizational engagement. Job engagement and organizational engagement however, partially mediate the relationship between these antecedents and the four identified consequences (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit (a negative relationship) and organizational citizenship behavior), whereas organizational engagement is a much stronger predictor than job engagement for all the outcomes. In light of this study, Saks (2006) recommends managers and decision makers to find what resources and benefits are most desired by their employees and are most able to create a sense of obligation. The receipt if these benefits is repaid by a greater level of engagement, understood as a long-term and ongoing process.

To conclude, these models in the current literature see work engagement as a product of both organizational and personal elements. As the present study aims to evaluate and analyze work engagement in the context of generations, while its definition will be based on that of Schaufeli, Salanova et al. (2002), the UWES rather than MBI will be used as its measurement tool, and personal resources in the present study will be defined according to Kupperschmidt's theory of generational differences (2000), which is been defined and discussed above.

2.4.4 Work Engagement in the Context of Generations

In an organizational context, generational characteristics may lead to different perceptions and values to be formulated (Park & Gursoy, 2012). Given that work engagement is predicted by various job resources, and influenced by the way that employees perceive such resources in the workplace (Park & Gursoy, 2012), different generations may have different work values for such concepts as work centrality and leisure. Hence, work engagement antecedents may have different impact on

individuals from different generations and thereby different outputs for the organization (Park & Gursoy, 2012). Work values indicate the importance that individuals place on work outcomes (Elizur, 1984), which may differ between generations, while underlining the perception of meaningfulness in the work itself, which as an important predictor of work engagement (Christian et al., 2011; Kahn, 1990). The differences in work values between generations, combined with the power of psychological characteristics of each generation (or the "Demographic Metabolism" as identified by Ryder (1965), or "Personal Resources" as illustrated by Bakker and Demerouti (2008) as discussed in the previous work engagement model), may predict differences in the level of work engagement across generations, and thereby may impact on the related antecedents and consequences such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intention to leave (Park & Gursoy, 2012).

Looking at the level of work engagement in the three generations discussed above while considering differences in work centrality, the importance of balancing leisure and work life, the level of narcissism, and the need for social approval as well as other factors such as career phase and age, it might be expected that the Y Generation is less engaged at work. But the Y Generation's characteristics, as identified in the previous section, such as high self-esteem and optimism, might allow them to be even more psychologically present at work once they had begun to engage with it (Kowske et al., 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2003), leading to further job satisfaction. However their high tendency to individualism might indicates less organizational commitment with a higher proneness to leave, a possibility that the present research will examine in due course.

Hoole and Bonnema (2015) examine work engagement in these three

generations in South Africa, finding that Baby Boomers are the most engaged of all, but the X and Y Generations are much the same in this regard. This leads the researchers to recommend organizations to treat their older employees with care, or else they may risk losing their most engaged cohort in the near future. Hoole and Bonnema (2015) justify their study results about the level of work engagement among the generations by cultural and regional influences and associated norms, emphasizing the need to customize HR strategies on the lines of what each cohort feels to be meaningful. Although the study is one of the very few to analyze work engagement in the cultural context of generations in Africa, limitations associated with the sample size and the cross sectional nature of the study and the implications of these for generations should be borne in mind.

Park and Gursoy (2012), in a study of 677 customer contact employees in the US hospitality industry, examine the relationships between work engagement and age, and work engagement and generation. They observe that levels of work engagement significantly differ depending on one's generation, with Y Generation employees having lower levels of work engagement than older generations. Research using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), focused on generational differences in work engagement, and the moderating effect of one's generation on the relationship between work engagement, job satisfaction and turnover intentions, shows that work engagement has equally significant effects on job satisfaction regardless of generation, while the effect of generational membership on the relationship between engagement and intention to leave was noticeable. When they lose their sense of significance, enthusiasm and challenge in their work, Y Generation employees have significantly stronger intentions to leave their organization than older generations. However once engaged they are less likely to leave their employer than other generations are.

Park and Gursoy's (2012) research indicates that work engagement levels differ between generations, even when they are given similar work conditions The work related values of the members of each generation may impact on their work related experience and state of mind by determining their psychological presence and the significance of work to them; but equally these features could also reflect the work values underlining the interior standards of individuals/generations and thereby illustrate their perception of various work resources and work environment elements. Accordingly work engagement might have different levels for different generations, bearing in mind each generation's characteristics and other psychological factors. Park and Gursoy (2012), in light of their findings, suggest that while engaging young employees is critical for today's work environment, managers should understand generational characteristics and the unique characteristics of the Y Generation in order to engage the most suitable.

Although Park and Gursoy's (2012) research has enabled decision makers to analyze the impact of generation on different organizational outcomes, namely job satisfaction and turnover intention, individuals' demographic and socioeconomic impact on work engagement was not analyzed in context of generations. Furthermore, the intentions to leave among Y Generation could be analyzed in terms of their youth; they may be looking for more opportunities, given the career stage they occupy. The propensity to leave should also be analyzed in the context of the industry concerned, with the associated norms including attrition rate and ease of moving between employers taken account of and not ignoring the social culture and associated social and economic factors.

2.4.5 Implications of Demographic and Socioeconomic Elements on Work Engagement

Schaufeli at al. (2006) say that work engagement is positively related to age, which means that one's work engagement slightly increases over time. These findings indirectly echo those of previous research, which demonstrates that burnout declines with age (Schaufeli & Enzmann 1998), given the fact that burnout is the opposite of engagement. However the relationship with age is so weak that it can hardly be considered meaningful (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

Shaufeli et al. (2006) further report that the level of work engagement does not differ with gender, and that the relationship between gender and work engagement seems weak and is still not clear. Similarly, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) also report that levels of burnout do not differ systematically from one gender to the other. Mauno, Kinnunen, and Ruokolainen (2007) illustrate that gender may play a moderating part between family factors and work engagement, but the relatively low number of male participants in their sample precludes this conclusion from being decisive.

Nonetheless, Koyuncu et al. (2006) in their assessment of work engagement among women working for a Turkish Bank find that personal demographic and work situations characteristics were generally not related to work engagement levels across their sample.

Looking at the level of work engagement in the context of occupations, Schaufeli et al. (2006) found that blue-collar workers are less engaged in their work than police officers, managers and educators. The researchers further note that the above results could be rationalized by the nature of the sample, illustrating that relationships drawn up between work engagement and occupational groups should be

interpreted with caution.

Schaufeli (2011), examining differences between professions in a Dutch national sample (N = 4,000 representatives) lists the following occupations as high in work engagement: entrepreneurs, teachers, managers, artists, farmers, salespersons and nurses. In contrast, following occupations are generally associated with lower work engagement levels: blue-collar work, food processing, printing, policing officers, Information and Communication Technology work (ICT), home care and retailing. Similarly Karasek and Theorell (1990), Lee and Allen (2002), Lee et al. (2000) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990) endorse the view that professional (white-collar) workers often have strong occupational commitment, as well as more challenging jobs. Mauno et al. (2007) in their longitudinal study of health care personnel in Finland posit that dedication as an element of work engagement was more often experienced among professionals than non-professionals; health care staff, for instance, are generally likely to be highly engaged and committed to their work (Chiok Foong Loke, 2001; E. A. Hakanen, 2004; Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola, 1998; Mauno, Kinnunen, Mäkikangas, & Nätti, 2005; Stordeur et al., 2003). Mauno et al. (2005) indicate that work engagement has different predictors in different economic sectors, indicating how important it is for managers to be aware of these antecedents or predictors before comparing levels of work engagement between occupations.

Regarding the concept of work engagement in at different educational levels, Maslach et al. (2001) that educational level positively correlates with burnout; hence engagement is enhanced within individuals with lower educational levels. The researchers justify this inference by explaining that education is confounded with other variables, such as occupation and status, which could be interpreted to mean that

individuals with higher education have greater job responsibilities and hence higher associated stress levels, or that higher educational level is associated with higher job expectations, where individuals are more distressed if these expectations are not met, according to which work engagement is negatively correlated with educational level.

Mauno et al. (2007) indicate in their study on health care personnel in Finland that vigor and dedication, as two major elements of work engagement, are enhanced in employees with children. The study further illustrates that the same is more common across female participants, whose multiple roles (both in the family and at work) have a positive impact on their lives.

Looking at the demographic implications for the UAE labor market, the contribution of women to the national economy increased significantly from 9.6% in 1986 to 33.4% in 2007, representing approximately a 3.5% average annual growth, while women now account for 59% of UAE's national labor force (Women in the United Arab Emirates: A Portrait of Progress, MFNCA, 2015). Furthermore UAE women have made outstanding progress, accounting for over 70% of university graduates (UAE Ministry of State for Federal National Council Affairs, MFNCA). The data on employee distribution by economic sectors in 2010 indicate that Construction and Building recruits around 23% of the entire workforce, followed by Wholesale & Retail Trade at 19%, and Repair Services. Government Services and the manufacturing sector both occupy 11% (Annual Economic Report 2012).

The United Arab Emirates UAE has been ranked as the happiest nation in the Gulf region according to the World Happiness Report of 2017. While the UAE is ranked as 21st happiest nation in the world, a great progress from the year 2016, where the country stood at 28th.

The report further identifies that UAE nationals are among the 12 happiest populations in the world. While the UAE has been ranked as the first and in the index of satisfaction of individuals residing in other countries (expatriates).

The report which has been issued by the Earth Institute at Columbia University under the supervision of the United Nations ranked 157 countries based on happiness levels using factors such as; per capita gross domestic product (GDP) and social support.

According to the report; "happy countries are the ones that have; a healthy balance of prosperity, as conventionally measured, and social capital, meaning a high degree of trust in a society, low inequality and confidence in government". Whereas the rankings are based on six factors which include; per capita gross domestic product, healthy life expectancy, freedom, generosity, social support and absence of corruption in government or business. Since academics believe that three of these factors; social support, incomes, and healthy life expectancy, are the most important elements in accounting for differences in happiness between countries.

This raises the need to analyze work engagement in the context of the social and economic circumstances of the UAE, in alignment with the growing Government identification of happiness with "a proper measure of social progress and a goal of public policy".

2.5 Antecedents of Work Engagement

Since organizations, practitioners, and HRM professionals, in particular, constantly focus on the state of work engagement. Research in the field of management and psychology has suggested that there may be antecedents to engagement that could

enhance it (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Focusing on these antecedents could enhance, and perhaps help to form an engaged workforce (Saks, 2006).

The current literature on generational differences in the context of the UAE's culture, suggests that the following work engagement antecedents reveal most: job characteristics :feedback and autonomy (Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al., 2008; Twenge & Campbell, 2008), rewards (Leary et al., 2006), corporate social responsibility (Milne, Rawlins, & Rawlins, 2008) , and work/life balance (Twenge et al., 2010; Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002). The chapter first defines the term 'work engagement antecedents' and then justifies the choice of the above antecedents with reference to HRM literature, generational differences and the UAE's cultural dimensions, before proposing some hypotheses.

2.5.1 Definitions and Classification of Work Engagement Antecedents

The antecedents of work engagement are defined as "constructs, strategies or conditions that precede the development of employee engagement, which come before an organization or a manager reaps the benefit of the related outputs (e.g., higher levels of productivity, lower levels of turnover)" (Wollard & Shuck, 2011, p. 432).

The current literature divides work engagement antecedents into two groups: individual antecedents and organizational antecedents. Individual antecedents are defined as conditions that are applied directly to or by the individual employees; organizational antecedents are defined as conditions that are applied across an organization. Both are seen as foundational to the development of employee engagement (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). The table below (Table 4) lists antecedents for which there is empirical evidence.

Table 4: Individual and Organizational Antecedents to Employee Engagement*

Individual Antecedents to Employee Engagement	Organizational Antecedents to Employee Engagement
• The ability of Absorption • High level of Self-Dedication • Higher Levels of cooperate citizenship • Personal Involvement in meaningful work • The ability to Link Individual goals to organizational goals • Perceived Organizational support • High level of vigor • The ability to balance Work and Life • Core self-evaluation • Value Congruence	• Authentic cooperate culture • Clear expectations • Cooperate Social Responsibility • Job characteristics • Job fit • Level of task challenge • Manager expectations • Manger self-efficacy • Perception of workplace safety • Positive work place climate • Rewards • Supportive organizational culture • Use of strengths

*With Empirical Evidence. (Source: Wollard and Shuck, 2011)

Wollard and Shuck (2011) indicate that further research is needed to shed light on the overlapping domains between individual and organizational antecedents, although they believe that the above division of them into two classes is sensible. Admittedly, some of the individual antecedents are perceived as consequences of work engagement by some writers, requiring them to be further identified. But in general this classification gives some insight to the individuals and organizational factors/enablers that lead to the building of work engagement by organizational and HR management.

Saks (2006) believes that the relationship between work engagement and its antecedents is best understood through the Social Exchange Theory (SET), which indicates that "human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives". This holds that individuals determine the cost associated with the services that they provide and the perceived benefits of doing

so, which includes the financial and non-financial benefits. Similarly, Pogson, Cober, Doverspike, and Rogers (2003) demonstrate that the level of work engagement that individuals are prepared to contribute to their role and the performance they give depend on the economic and socioeconomic resources received from the organization.

Mauno et al. (2007) in their longitudinal study among health care personnel in Finland, indicate that vigor and dedication are considered the core dimensions of work engagement, and can be predicted by relatively similar antecedents. These include job resources (job control, organization-based self-esteem and perceived management quality), whereas the effect of job demand varies according to the dependent. Pogson et al. (2003) have tested a model of the antecedents and consequences of job and organizational engagements based on the models of Kahn (1990) and Maslach et al. (2001), in the belief that, although both models identify the antecedents that are vital for work engagement in organizations, they do not explain the varying degrees of work engagement response among employees.

Shuck (2011) believes that, although Kahn's (1990, 1992) elements of work engagement namely, physical, cognitive and emotional, are widely cited, they are scarcely used in framework development until the work of Rich et al. (2010). Their research aims to develop a model that positions engagement as a key mechanism between a variety of individual characteristics and organizational factors on one side and job performance on the other, based on Kahn's theory of 1990. The model indicates that, from a statistical perspective, a significant relationship exists between each of the antecedents (value congruence, perceived organizational support and core self-evaluations), and the consequences of task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) Job satisfaction, job involvement and intrinsic motivation

are considered to mediate this relationship. Rich et al. (2010) applied the model to a sample of 245 firefighters and their supervisors, and found that work engagement is fully accountable for the relationship between the antecedents and performance outcomes, whereas each antecedent has a unique effect on work engagement. All effects, however, are of nearly equal magnitude. The findings of Rich et al. (2010) make it clear that organizations which adopt work engagement practices enhance performance no matter which definition of task performance is chosen, whether "defined as those activities that are directly involved in the accomplishment of core job tasks" or "activities that directly support the accomplishment of tasks involved in an organization's technical   performance, as well as in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), defined as "types of behavior that do not contribute directly to the organization's technical core but rather contribute to the organization by fostering a social and psychological environment conducive to the accomplishment of work involved in the organization's technical core" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Rich et al. (2010) describe the above processes on the part of employees as "simply throwing their full selves into their roles".

Finally, the conceptual framework (Macey & Schneider, 2008b) indicates that job characteristics (autonomy, task variety, task significance, problem solving, job complexity, feedback, social support, physical demands and work conditions), as well as leadership and personality traits are directly related to work engagement, and thus indirectly related to performance, making work engagement a product of both organizational efforts and individual features, and thereby indicating the importance of different selection tools in driving work engagement in the organization.

The studies above focus on identifying the antecedents of work engagement,

but few studies have focused on the factors influencing the relationship between work engagement and its antecedents and outcomes (Park & Gursoy, 2012). The present study accordingly examines the relationship between organizational work engagement antecedents and its consequences taking into consideration membership of a particular generational cohort, and the associated moderating effect of generational membership on the relationship between organizational antecedents and work engagement, and also between work engagement and identified organizational consequences, in the context of the three generations in the UAE workforce, with special reference to the Y Generation. The research identifies the impact of a range of demographic and socioeconomic elements on work engagement and its consequences, in one of the unique areas of the world where very little institutional research has been undertaken.

Previous studies have identified a link between work engagement antecedents and cultures; for instance, Shay Tzafrir, Dr Guy Enosh, Farndale, and Murrer (2015) note that differences across job resources and work engagement can be analyzed with reference to national cultures. Their analysis of Mexico, the Netherlands and the USA found differences in the strength of the relationship between work engagement and four identified job resources: financial rewards, team climate, participation in decision making and performance feedback. This can be rationalized by Hofstede's cultural dimensions; for instance the strongest relationship between rewards and engagement was found in Mexico, and the next strongest in the USA, which are both high on masculinity, but the relationship was partially significant in the Netherlands, which Hofstede classifies as more feminine (Hofstede, 1980). Shay Tzafrir et al. (2015) praise national culture as a useful lens through which to analyze differences in the strengths of relationships. Although the above research had a number of limitations, involving only a single firm, and with two of the job resources in the study measured

by means of a single item, it addressed a gap in the empirical research on the relationship between job resources and engagement in terms of national cultures and their differences.

2.5.2 Individual Level Antecedents

Kahn (1990) indicates that individuals' perceptions of their work, combined with their own individual characteristics, promote the psychological conditions which directly influence their willingness to engage in their work roles. Kahn (1990) submits that the characteristics of employees and organizations which drive work engagement affect three issues: psychological meaningfulness, safety and availability. The perception of organizational and work factors related to tasks and roles is the primary influence of psychological meaningfulness, while safety is aligned with the perception of the social system, and psychological availability is associated with confidence and social self-consciousness.

Individual antecedents are also referred to as "Personal Resources": defined as "positive self-evaluation tools, which are linked to the individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact their environment successfully" (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003). These resources include items such as optimism, self-efficacy, self-esteem, resilience and all the sorts of active coping styles that help individuals to control and affect their own work environment and achieve career success (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

They could also be referred to as "Dispositional Characteristics", which are defined as explanations of individuals' behavior as a result of the internal characteristics residing within them, which come mainly from the environment or

culture in which they live; they are considered to be the factors/antecedents of work engagement. Dispositional characteristics include traits such as conscientiousness, positive affect (extraversion) and proactive personality (Christian et al., 2011). Similarly, they may be referred as "Personality Traits" concerned with human agency, or ones which are related to the ability of individuals/employees to control the thoughts and emotions associated with different events, in order to actively interact with their working environment (Bandura, 2001). These traits are mostly linked to a strong sense of responsibility (conscientiousness), enthusiasm (positive affect) and initiative taking (proactive personality) and have been linked to high levels of work engagement (Christian et al., 2011).

The results of Akhtar, Boustani, Tsivrikos, and Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) on 1,050 adult workers from various British economic sectors indicate that personality factors are valid predictors of work engagement. Among these, emotional intelligence ranked first of all the factors, followed by openness to experience, which is described by these researchers as due to the resiliency with which individuals are enabled to control their environment. In addition, they list interpersonal sensitivity, ambition, extraversion, adjustment and conscientiousness. They infer that conscientious individuals are more likely to have a higher level of achievement since they are less affected by external interferences. The researchers conclude that, although most organizations are trying to enhance their employees' work engagement through changes related to job demands and resources, more attention should be given to their methods of selection, given the impact of personality factors on work engagement.

As indicated earlier, individual antecedents in the present study are looked at in the light of generational characteristics /differences and the associated theories. In

addition, the study considers those characteristics which are developed and associated with the UAE's culture, as discussed in an earlier section.

2.5.3 Organizational Level Antecedents

Antecedents at the organizational level revolve around basic employee/human needs, which may reflect a lack of complexity; this concentration is challenged mainly by the variety of employees' personalities, and the associated perceptions of them by organizations (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Generational membership and its associated distinguishing effects may feature here, particularly with the challenge of having three generations in the same workplace. Wollard and Shuck (2011) observe that these antecedents are functions and not process dependent, which invokes the development of work engagement, given the organizational culture. Furthermore, they indicate that, as well as organizations providing such antecedents, they should be accompanied by processes that facilitate the development of work engagement.

Organizational antecedents have also been referred to in the literature under the heading of "Job Resources", defined as those aspects of a job that include: the physical, social or organizational features that play different roles in an organization, for instance, reducing job demands and their physiological cost, functionality in attaining work goals and stimulating personal growth, learning and development (Shaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

2.6 Work Engagement Antecedents in the Context of Generations

After looking at the literature on generational differences, especially those that are related to the Y Generation and with reference to the UAE's cultural dimensions, the following organizational antecedents emerge as associated with major differences

in different generations: job characteristics; performance feedback and job autonomy (Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al., 2008; Twenge & Campbell, 2008), rewards (Leary et al., 2006), corporate social responsibility (Milne et al., 2008), and work/life balance (Twenge et al., 2010; Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002). Examining these as they appear in the three generations of UAE culture may provide decision makers and HR professionals with a better understanding of each generation's needs, encouraging them to adopt practices and tools (if required) that would enhance work engagement in the generational groups.

Each of the following antecedents is first discussed with reference to the HRM literature and its implications for work engagement. In addition, they are examined for their relevance to generational differences and the UAE culture, and on this basis the hypotheses of the present research are built for later testing.

2.6.1 Job Characteristics (Job Autonomy and Performance Feedback)

The Job Characteristics Theory (JCT) of Hackman and Oldham (1980) indicates that every job has a specific motivational potential which depends on the availability of five main elements: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. These elements are linked to positive outcomes such as high quality work performance, job satisfaction, and low absenteeism and turnover, through what is identified in the literature as their "Critical Psychological State". Hackman and Oldham (1976) further illustrate that these characteristics motivate individuals by engendering experiences of meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of the associated results. Our analysis of the available literature indicates that, of these five elements, performance feedback and job autonomy showed the most generational differences. Hackman and Oldham (1980) indicate in this regard that proper feedback

fosters learning and decision latitude satisfies the need for autonomy.

The role of job characteristics in enhancing work engagement is illustrated in the work of Kahn (1990, 1992), who posits that psychological meaningfulness can be achieved from tasks that provide challenging work and variety, which allow workers to use their personal discretion, while still making an important contribution. Psychological meaningfulness involves a sense of return on investment of the self in role performance (Kahn, 1992). The five defined job elements influence three critical psychological states: knowledge, experienced meaningfulness, and experienced responsibility, which in turn influence a number of individual and organizational outcomes such as internal work motivation, job satisfaction, lower turnover, absenteeism and work effectiveness (Devaro & Brookshire, 2007). Accordingly, jobs that are high in the core job characteristics provide individuals with the space and incentive to bring more of themselves into their work or, in other words, to be more engaged (Kahn, 1992).

Furthermore, the workload and control conditions from the model by Maslach et al. (2001) also indicate the importance of job characteristics for work engagement. For instance, job characteristics, especially lack of performance feedback and job autonomy, have been consistently related to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Similarly from a Social Exchange Theory (SET) perspective, one can argue that employees who are provided with enriched and challenging jobs will feel obliged to respond with higher levels of engagement (Saks, 2006). Hakanen, Perhoniemi and Toppinen-Tanner (2008) in their longitudinal study of 2,555 Finnish dentists indicate that job resources such as the opportunity to work creatively and positive feedback about the direct results of work, predict work engagement and in turn predict personal initiative and

innovativeness.

Bakker and Geurts (2004) note that job autonomy. possibilities of professional development and feedback on performance enhance the absorption element of work engagement. In a later paper. Bakker (2005) finds that social support at work. supervisory coaching. job autonomy. and performance feedback are associated with high experiences of absorption. Hakanen (2004) and Hakaen. Bakker and Demerouti (2005) contend that various features of job content such as job autonomy. use of one's own skills. challenge. and feedback on performance are positively associated with work engagement.

Similarly. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Shaufeli and Salanova (2007) claim that supportive colleagues and performance feedback increase the likelihood of being successful in attaining one's work goals. and thereby enhance work engagement. Schaufeli et al. (2008) in their study of managers and executives of a Dutch Telecom Company report that. after controlling for baseline engagement. increased social support. autonomy. opportunities to learn and develop and performance feedback are positive predictors of work engagement. Moreover. Schaufeli. Bakker and Van Rhenan (2009) observe that changes in job resources predicted engagement over a period of a year, whereas increased social support. autonomy. opportunities to learn and performance feedback predicted future work engagement in their sample and reduced registered sickness and absenteeism.

Bakker. Demerouti, and Euwema (2005) conducted a study of more than 1,000 employees of a large institute for higher education in the Netherlands. with the aim of testing and refining the JD-R model (Demerouti et al.. 2001). The study took a qualitative approach in order to investigate the specific job demands and potential job

resources for the sample of employees. The crucial job demands on these employees were work overload, emotional demands by students, physical demands and work-home interference. The list of potential job resources mentioned social support, quality of relationship with the supervisor, autonomy and performance feedback. The researchers justify the use of this method by the fact that the role of various job demands or resources varies in relation to the job characteristics and between individuals. The results of a regression analysis in the study indicate that job autonomy, social support, a good relationship with the supervisor and performance feedback can buffer the impact of work overload on exhaustion (as an element of burnout). For workload, however, the interaction with job autonomy was unique and a significant predictor of cynicism (another element of burnout), whereas emotional demands interacted with job autonomy, social support, and performance feedback. And physical demands interacted only with job autonomy and social support. Finally, the work-home interface interacted with: job autonomy, quality of the relationship with the supervisor and feedback. These interactions imply that not only may the interaction between job demands and control predict strain, but several demanding aspects of the job, if they interact with the resources supplied, can be predict the symptoms of burnout. The study, despite a number of limitations, such as: being cross sectional and relying on a single organization, was able to shed light on the combination of different working conditions that may foster burnout. Bakker et al. (2005) further rationalize that the results associated with job autonomy could be justified by the fact that job autonomy helps employees to cope with heavy job demands, because it lets employees decide for themselves how and when to respond to these demands. Moreover, performance feedback provides employees with the necessary information to maintain their level of performance and stay healthy.

Job autonomy (freedom in carrying out one's work) has been found crucial for the health of the employee because greater autonomy is associated with more opportunities to cope with stressful situations (Jenkins, 1991; Karasek, 1998). Job autonomy is seen in the Demand-Control Model (DCM) to act as a buffer against the influence of job demands (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999).

Mauno et al. (2007) find in their longitudinal study of Finnish health care workers that job resources. In particular job autonomy/control promote the positive development of work engagement. They emphasize that, before introducing tools to improve employees' job autonomy, management should know what improvements are needed, since the concept of job autonomy could have different meanings and needs for different cultures and generations.

Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) believe that younger generations may seek work opportunities that provide freedom and autonomy and accordingly may be prepared to leave organization if they cannot find them there. Their study of three working generations in New Zealand in 2007 indicates that younger employees look for a psychological contract within an organization that emphasizes freedom, status and social involvement. Hansen and Leuty (2012) analyzing data on the work values of a US vocational clinic, took account of the generational effect and inferred that comforts (e.g. compensation, security and working conditions) and autonomy (creativity and responsibility) were the most important for successive generations. Status (advancement, recognition, and authority) was less important, and no differences were found in the importance given to achievement, altruism, and safety values.

Looking at job autonomy in the context of the UAE's culture, Hofstede (1980)

found that in high power distance societies of this kind, subordinates expect to be told what to do. Individuals with power are seen as superior, and hence are expected to be paternalistic and lead autocratically. Daniels and Greguras (2014) add that power distance cultures are more task oriented and less people oriented, causing individuals to value status and power. However, the impact of Westernization, combined with the power of technology, globalization, and economic growth, may cause the newer generations (X and Y) to show less respect for high power distance, and a stronger preference for low power distance, which suggests a taste for more autonomy in the workplace among them. Furthermore, given that many believe that GCC societies are getting less collective, the need for autonomy may have increased and uncertainty avoidance may have been declined/ weakened in the younger generations.

In light of the above, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H1: There is a positive relationship between Job Autonomy and Work Engagement.

H2: The positive relationship between Job Autonomy and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Y Generation employees as compared to X Generation and Baby Boomers.

Performance Feedback (the extent to which a job provides performance information) highlights the negative discrepancies between goals and role performance, creating a sense of challenge and an incentive for investment of the self in a role, which in turn should foster greater sense of meaningfulness (Kahn, 1990:1992). However, this does not apply to all types of feedback, since negative feedback may be threatening to an individual's self-image and thereby reduce the feeling of psychological safety (Rich et al., 2010). However, constructive performance feedback, besides helping employees to do their job more effectively, enhances

communication between employees and the supervisor, improves performance, prevents work problems and reduces the tendency to worry about work related issues at home (Bakker et al., 2005). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) in their study of the Job Demands-Resource Model (JDR) show that while job demands (workload and emotional demand) are positively related to burnout and not to work engagement, job resources such as social support, supervisor coaching and performance feedback enhance work engagement and reduce burnout. Proper feedback from one's supervisor, however, increases the likelihood of attaining one's work related goals.

The Gallup researchers indicate that 77% of engaged employees respond positively to the statement of "my manager focuses on my strengths or positive characteristics" (Coley Smith, 2006). Similarly, The Corporate Leadership Council (2002) finds from the survey responses of 19,000 employees and managers that emphasizing employees' strengths enhances future performance by 36%, while an emphasis on weaknesses reduces future work performance by 27%. In light of these studies Attridge (2009) believes that one way to start changing work engagement at the individual level is by giving employees feedback about their job performance focusing on their positive elements.

Although the Corporate Leadership Council (2004) notes that pay was found in recent studies to be the single most important motivator for the Y Generation, Lynos, Ng and Schweitzer (2012) believe that this emphasis on the financial rewards may explain why the Y Generation needs feedback. The researchers justified this supposition by pointing to McClelland (1965) who reasoned that the interest in money stems from the fact that money and all types of reward and profit are a source of feedback on how well one is doing.

Laird, Harvey, Lancaster, Tetrick, and Tetrick (2015, p. 93) state in a survey of 181 university students that: "one consistent observation is that existing managerial practices regarding performance evaluation and reward are often out of step with this cohort". In light of this statement, the researchers recommend that organizations and managements should renew their interest in Management By Objective (MBO), in which setting and achieving personal goals and performing meaningful work is important to all generations (Allen & Meyer, 1993). The researchers fad that organizations and available systems should provide multiple sources of feedback to the Y Generation, that are far from traditional top-down evaluations, and thereby increase their chances of viewing accountability as an opportunity to learn and grow (Laird et al., 2015).

The Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM) in its 2009 annual report asserts that the Y Generation expects close relationships with and frequent feedback from supervisors. Barnes (2009) indicates that the Y Generation has received rewards, stars and trophies for simply competing in a team activity in which they have not excelled, or even for merely showing up, which make them expect praise and immediate feedback when working on a project or for nothing more than filling the requirements of their job description. Lowe et al. (2008) indicate that the Y Generation look for immediate feedback on their performance, and managers, to encourage them, should provide it. The researchers indicate that the Y Generation wants to be treated like its parents by their organizations and managers, which means flattening the organizational hierarchical structure that nowadays forms the very foundation of most corporations (Earle, 2003) . In response to this, these researchers would like managers to balance corrective feedback with praise.

Twenge and Campbell (2008), after examining data on 1.4 million people between the 1930s and the present, indicate narcissism has increased: the data suggest that the average college student in 2006 scored higher in narcissism than 65 percent of students in the early 1980s. Hence sources and methods of feedback should be reevaluated, especially those related to self-assessment. Judge, LePine, and Rich (2006) are concerned that the inflated self-concept of narcissists could damage organizations, especially in jobs which require accurate self-assessment. Accordingly, organizations can adapt to the recent increased levels of narcissism by relying less on self-evaluation, and instead enhancing the use of 360° feedback methods which are more objective and base evaluation on behaviors that other employees can see (Twenge & Campbell, 2008).

Real, Mitnick, and Maloney (2010) commented on the work ethics, job values, and gender beliefs of three generations of blue-collar workers in the US construction industry; they used triangulated methods and stratified random sampling, in order to ensure the most effective representative combination of responses. They found, consistently with Wong et al. (2008) and Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008), that generational membership has only a weak association with the dependent variables and hence the Y Generation are more similar to previous generations than different when it comes to work related values and beliefs. Real et al. (2010) accordingly advise decision makers and HR professionals to avoid policies and procedures based on generational differences and adopt more practical strategies, such as establishing well defined rules and using multiple communication channels, as their technology allows. Management should develop good interpersonal relations with the Y Generation, including mentoring relationships, while illustrating to young employees the importance and the details of their job and how they fit into the big

picture. Finally these researchers recommend managers to give frequent, accurate, specific and timely feedback, which would result in improved outcomes. Yet Kowske et al. (2010) have evidence that the Y Generation reported higher levels of satisfaction than the two other generations did, including satisfaction with recognition. In light of the above, researchers indicate that this could reflect that organizations are already providing performance feedback and recognition of good performance, and hence the Y Generation are witnessing an influx of feedback that ought to produce superior work.

Performance feedback should not be given directly, especially when negative, in the context of the UAE's culture, given its high power distance; the purpose of this is to save face, since people do not generally display their emotions and seek feedback less often. Earley (1994) infers that instructions focused on group performance are more effective than those on personal performance in Chinese culture (collective), while the latter may improve performance more in in an individualistic culture (e.g. America's). Taking the above generational characteristics and cultural influence into consideration, the expected relationship between performance feedback and generations is tested below by the following hypotheses:

H3: There is a positive relationship between Performance Feedback and Work Engagement.

H4: The positive relationship between Performance Feedback and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Y Generation employees than for members of the X Generation and for Baby Boomers.

2.6.2 Rewards

Rewards comprise an essential human resource policy that influences human behavior in the workplace and thereby motivates people (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2008). Watson (2003) indicates that rewards serve many purposes in organizations, because they build a better employment deal, encourage the retention of good employees, and reduce turnover. Rewards may be defined as "anything that reinforces, maintains and strengthens behavior in a firm" (Goodale, Koerner, & Roney, 1997).

Beardwell (1994) divide rewards into two main types: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards include financial rewards – including bonuses, gifts, salary increase and promotions, job security, relationships with a supervisor, and relationships with co-workers. Extrinsic rewards can be further defined as elements associated with the consequences of work, or those that are mainly derived from the actions of others, such as supervisors, and are controlled by managers and organizational rules and policies. In contrast, intrinsic rewards are less tangible, result from the person or job itself, and tend to give personal satisfaction to the individual (Business Dictionary, 2012). While intrinsic rewards make the employee feel better in the organization, extrinsic rewards focus on the performance and related activities that orient the employee towards a certain outcome (Reif & Robinson, 1975). Accordingly the role of organizational leaders and HR professionals is to find a balance between employees' performance (extrinsic) and happiness (intrinsic). This is considered one of the challenges for organizations, given the differences across employees, leaders and cultures and the practices thus entailed (Reif & Robinson, 1975).

Kahn (1990) reports that people vary in their work engagement level as a function of their perceptions of the benefits they receive from the job or role they

occupy. The sense of return on investment can come from external rewards. recognition. and/or meaningful work. Maslach et al. (2001) suggest that. while a lack of rewards and recognition can lead to burnout. appropriate recognition and reward are important for engagement. Saks (2006) argues that employees perceive rewards and recognition as a sense of return on investment. while employers want their staff to invest themselves in the organization and in the roles or occupations that provide more rewards and recognition for their performance.

Saks (2006) believes that the relation between the employer and the employees is best understood through the "Social Exchange Theory (SET)". which holds that individuals will continue to engage themselves in alignment with the continuation of favorable reciprocal exchanges. Accordingly. when employees receive rewards and recognition from their organization. they feel obliged to respond with higher levels of engagement. Koyunce et al.(2006). examining the potential antecedents and consequences of work engagement in a sample of women managers and professionals in a large Turkish bank. conclude that control. value fit. rewards and recognitions are significantly associated with three elements of work engagement: vigor. dedication and absorption.

The current literature on the concept of rewards in the context of generations and their associated differences. is confusing. For instance. the study by Macky. Gardner, Forsyth. Dries, et al. (2008) covering four generations in Belgium to explore career differences finds that salary is still the most important work value for all generations in determining career success. Accordingly. the Y Generation still expresses high expectations of financial reward. but the authors note that the Y Generation rate work and career satisfaction as more important than financial rewards.

Similarly. Alsop (2008) and Hill (2002) believe that the Y Generation expect its evaluation at work to be based on its production of outcomes and not the age or experience of the producer, reflecting the frequent praise it received from teachers and parents in their early years, or what is referred to as "trophies for all" (Alexander & Sysko, 2011). Alsop (2008) adds that many of the Y Generations expect their supervisors to be their workplace parents. Moreover, Ng. Schweitzer, and Lyons (2010) argue that many of the career goals and expectations of the Y Generation are supersized, unrealistic and represent a disconnection between reward and actual performance.

Furthermore. Jennings (2000) believes that the Y Generation envisage even higher salaries, more flexible work arrangements and more financial leverage than the X Generation did. Similarly. Twenge et al. (2006) contend that Extrinsic Values (status, respect, and higher salary) have increased across generations, while Intrinsic Value (Meaning and interest in work) has been relatively consistent. In response to the Y Generation's need for frequent praise and recognition, the Corporate Leadership Council 2005, recommends giving the Y Generation a 1% increase three times a year, rather than an annual increase of 3%.

Furthermore. a comparison between high school seniors (the X Generation in 1985 and the Y Generation in 1996) shows that the latter places more value on extrinsic work rewards than the former does (Krahn & Galambos, 2014). Similarly, the Monitoring The Future (MTF) time lag data, an ongoing study of the behaviors, attributes and values of young American adults and secondary students, indicates that the X Generation significantly values money, status and prestige more than the Baby Boomers did, but that value of these things declines among the Y Generation.

However, the Baby Boomers valued them still less.

Nonetheless, Amar (2004) believes that the motivational tools that attract, retain and engage the Y Generation are not the same as those in previous generations. He argues that there are three sources of work motivation for the Y Generation: the job itself, the job outcomes (rewards and sanctions) and the organizational system (practices, culture, industry, image and market positioning).

Lim's (2012) study of the life priorities and work preferences of Y Generation Emiratis and expatriates is one of the very few studies of the UAE. Her results suggest that the most important work motivators for both Emiratis and Expatriates were extrinsic tools, such as salary, status and the chance of promotion. Lim (2012) explains that this selection of extrinsic motivators is justifiable because the indigenous respondents seek stability in the life domains, such as family matters (which were measured in the survey under the headings of a successful marriage, home ownership and good parenting) and thus extrinsic motivators provide them with tangible means to attain such stability. Lim places this in the context of the UAE economy, resulting from the high inflation rate between 2001 and 2005, and the growth in the Consumer Price Index (CPI), which in the period grew annually at a rate of 3.9 percent. This is what convinces Lim (2012) that extrinsic motivation is the main factor in the current recruitment and retention of the Y Generation in the UAE, although intrinsic motivators are apparently gaining importance when it comes to retention. With this in mind, Lim (2012) recommends employers of the Y Generation in the UAE to offer competitive salaries and benefits, provide a good physical environment, offer professional training programs, and allow creative space and less direct supervision in a supportive work environment.

The increase in the power of extrinsic rewards among the Y Generation is also to be justified by the rising levels of narcissism worldwide. Twenge (2006, 2008) and Twenge and Campbell (2001) indicate that the Y Generation has higher self-esteem and assertiveness, which is compounded by the increase in narcissism. Greenberger et al., 2008 educe a recent report that indicates an increase of 300 percent in the use of the phrase "sense of entitlement" in newspapers in the period 1996-2000. The term is defined as "a stable tendency toward highly favorable self-perceptions and a tendency to feel deserving of high levels of praise and reward, regardless of actual performance level" (Harvey & Harris, 2010). Roberts, Edmonds and Grijalva (2010), using data from different sources, show that the mean levels of narcissism scores clearly rose over the previous three decades (i.e. 1982- 2006). However the researchers highlight the importance of analyzing these figures in the context of age and age-related roles, which are more important than the generational effect. They explain that narcissism is an age-related and not a holistic phenomenon. Twenge, Campbell, and Gentile (2012) drawing data from 6.5 million US undergraduates to examine self-perceptions of academic ability, demonstrate that the Y Generation reported themselves more favorably than previous generations, but still scored worse in aptitude tests. Greenberger, Lessard, Chen, and Farruggia (2008) in their research found that a sample of Y Generation university students manifested a sense of entitlement to good grades that did not match their academic results.

Bernstein (1997), Harding and Hikspoors (1995) and Quintanilla and Wilpert (1991) believe that generational differences regarding extrinsic and intrinsic rewards may be justified by the changes in: the meaning of work, the increasing numbers of dual careers, single parent families, expectations of work/life balance, combined with the increased use of electronic media and the continuous learning of new skills.

Real et al. (2010), however, in their examination of generational differences among skilled workers in the USA construction industry, indicate that the Y Generation scored intrinsic job features higher than the Baby Boomers did, and also higher on social aspects of work than either of the other generations. Similarly Jurkiewicz (2000) in his cross sectional study of public sectors workers in the USA brings evidence to show that Baby Boomers were more likely than Y Generation to place importance on learning new things, but no other significant differences were found among the other factors of intrinsic values. Furthermore, Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) and Lyson (2004) note that the Y Generation values intrinsic aspects of work such as mentoring and training in order to remain marketable.

However, Twenge et al. (2010) maintain that among more than 15,000 high school seniors in 1976, 1991 and 2006, the extrinsic elements that peaked with X Generation are still higher among the Y Generation than among Baby Boomers. At the same time intrinsic values declined slightly over the generations; the younger generations are not necessarily searching for meaning. These writers believe that, while generational membership and its associated characteristics play a role in work values, they do not appear to be the most important antecedent of work values, but of small to medium importance.

Twenge (2010) in her of revision of generational differences indicates that, in light of the available time lag studies, the importance of extrinsic values increases across the generations, and increases greatly between the Baby Boomers to the Y generation. Yet the intrinsic values remain largely consistent for all three generations, with no differences between the Baby Boomers and the X Generation, and only a slight decline between the Baby Boomers and the Y Generation. Similarly, cross sectional

studies indicate few differences in intrinsic values, with the Y Generation placing more importance on the meaning and importance of work as an expression of identity. Regarding extrinsic values, however, both the X and Y Generations value status more and other extrinsic elements the same (Twenge, 2010).

However, Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) in their study of generational differences across the three generations in New Zealand found no evidence that the generations valued extrinsic and intrinsic job elements were valued differently, but did observe significant differences regarding freedom and status, since the Y Generation values freedom related items more than the X Generation and Baby Boomers do. Furthermore the youngest generation thinks status more important. This too is justifiable if the career stage is recalled, as this is the source of the generation's visibility, progression and marketability (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). These results, however, should be analyzed in the context of New Zealand's culture and the associated dimensions.

The concept of rewards in a specific culture is discussed in the work of Palich and Bagby (1995), which hypothesizes that individual rewards should in individualistic societies have a stronger influence on commitment than in collective ones, since they offer an opportunity for personal achievement. In the long term Equity based rewards for individualist societies, and equality based rewards for collective societies are recommended to improve relations (Chen, et al., 1998). Furthermore, Schuler and Rogovsky (1998), who investigated organizational compensation systems in relation to power distance, inferred that the options of share ownership and stock options are less used in lower power distance societies than in high power distance ones. This leads to the following hypotheses:

H5: There is a positive relationship between Rewards and Work Engagement.

H6: The positive relationship between Rewards and Work Engagement is not moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is same among for all generations i.e. Baby Boomers & X and Y Generations.

2.6.3 Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Business Dictionary defines CSR as "A company's sense of responsibility towards the community and the environment (both ecological and social) in which it operates". Companies express their citizenship and sense of belonging to their society in various ways such as the efficient use of resources, their management and reduction processes regarding pollution and wastage, and their contribution to various educational and social programs.

People are concerned about the conduct of major companies, which are urged to be economically, environmentally and socially sustainable by becoming more accountable and transparent, ethical and equitable (Batten & Birch,2005). The principle of CSR is the primary responsibility of the profit generating organization; Freeman and Velamuri (2008) illustrate that while organizations have a responsibility to maximize their profits, they also have responsibilities towards a range of stakeholders. Freeman and Velamuri (2009) argue that leaders have a duty to look for win-wins for all stakeholders, including shareholders, maximizing value without resorting to trade-offs. This is also put forward by the Economist Intelligence Unit (2005) results, showing that 88% of executives believe that consideration for CSR has a central importance in business decisions, while 72% emphasize that CSR initiatives accompany a better long term financial performance than others do.

Lindorff and Peck (2010) in their qualitative exploratory study of the leaders of large Australian Financial Institutions indicate that there are three main motives for firms to engage in CSR: instrumental (self-interest driven), relational (concerned with relationships among group members) and moral (considering it to represent ethical standards and moral principles). The leaders who contributed to their study added that the relational outcome of CSR is associated with the perception of the organization's fairness regarding employees, which lead to their greater engagement, commitment and satisfaction. The promotion of CSR activities acts as a mechanism for attracting and retaining good employees as well as for developing social capital for the business in the wider community (Laindorff & Peck, 2010). Laindorff and Peck (2010) further indicate that leaders link CSR initiatives to staff engagement, enhanced reputation and a better relationship with the community as outcomes; these are then recycled as instrumental tools for improving the business bottom line. Accordingly, the role of CSR can be summarized in alignment with the findings of the study as associated with the enhancement of organizational sustainability, share price, employee engagement and performance (Laindorff & Peck, 2010).

The concept of CSR has further implications for generations. For instance the Harvard University Institute of Politics (2006) notes that 60% of the Y Generation who were surveyed expressed their interest in public service in order to help the country and support the community. The Center for Information and Research on Civil Learning and Engagement (2009) also state that the Y Generation is choosing voluntary work in unprecedented numbers. Moreover, Milne et al. (2008) see the Y Generation as looking for organizations that are socially responsible and provide personal fulfillment with less focus on moneymaking. Ng et al. (2010) after examining more than 20,000 Canadian undergraduate university students, report that the Y

Generation considers making a social impact in their expectations of social responsibility and commitment diversity. In parallel. Gaudelli (2009) indicates that the Y Generation is willing to pay for more if they know that the amount spent is going to a good cause. Greening and Turban (2000) believe that the employer's Corporate Social Responsibility. in view of the demands of the current generation. enables organizations to attract high quality job applicants. Alsop (2008) and Epstein and Howes (2006) acknowledging the above. recommend companies to establish recruiting programs for young workers involving some sort of voluntary work and supporting the environment.

The MTF time lag study. at the same time, indicates that no significant differences were found in the three generations' assessment of Altruistic Values (helping and volunteering). Twenge (2010). in response to this. claims that although programs that provide leave in lieu of volunteering or are oriented towards helping others may be effective in today's working situation. they are not more effective for this generation than for previous generations. Similarly. Stewart and Bernhardt (2010) and Twenge and Foster (2010) indicate that in their sample of college students narcissistic traits increased over the generations. and the latest one had less empathy and concern for others.

Twenge (2010) recommends managers to offer stability but also flexibility and leisure benefits. treating the new generation as individuals and not as representing a different generation. Similarly. a study among 16,507 high school seniors in the USA in 1976. 1991 and 2006 illustrates that where altruistic values (helping others or contributing to the society) are concerned. no significant generational differences exist. A general decline in the importance of social rewards (interpersonal relationships at

work) is reported, which may be linked with the increased level of individualism and narcissism of the new generation. The study accordingly recommends HRM managers and supervisors to focus more on individuals than on team working (Twenge et al., 2010).

Similarly, Twenge, Campbell, and Freeman (2012) in their nation-wide study indicate that the life goals trends between the Baby Boomers and the Y Generation evince less community feeling, but more emphasis on extrinsic goals and less on intrinsic goals, confirming that generational differences do have implications for some life goals. Their data come from Monitoring The Future (MTF), and includes more than 400,000 responses (from 1967 to 2000) as well as a sample of more than 8 million between 1966 and 2009 from The American Freshman. These data imply that the Y Generation scored a little lower than the Baby Boomers in most of the items measuring concern for others. They go on to claim that the increase in volunteering levels reported of the Y Generation, compared with the decline in other forms of civic and political engagement and the increased rate of individualism may be explained by the increasing requirements of community service for graduation over their time period. However the researchers stipulate that their results should be analyzed in the context of such demographic changes as the increased participation by women and its implications, in addition to the word of the question and its implications for interpreting and answering the questions.

The concept of CSR is also linked to cultures and their norms. Andolšek and Stebe (2004) illustrate from various cultures, that in collectivistic societies post materialistic job values such as helping others were more predictive of employees' commitment (Daniels & Greguras, 2014), because collective societies are known for

extending social support, and thus a tight social framework. Similarly, feminine societies are expected to show evidence of caring for different those who need and seek support. However, as societies are getting less collectivism and susceptible to the power of narcissism, we may expect less emphasis on the CSR over time.

Furthermore, studies in the field indicate that in light of the organizational activities worldwide, organizations with high power distance are less likely to focus on CSR, and instead to pay more attention to the needs of direct shareholders. This may also have implications for the GCC business environment with the movement towards less power distance as a result of Westernization and GNP growth. Therefore the present study expects that:

H7: There is a positive relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Work Engagement.

H8: The positive relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership such that it is stronger for Y Generation employees than for members of the X Generation and Baby Boomers.

2.6.4 Work/life balance

This antecedent is considered an individual antecedent for work engagement by Wollard and Shuck (2011), but this study analyzes the impact of tools that are adopted by the organization to supply people with such benefits as more time and extra resources to cope with work demands and with different roles of life, for instance, as a parent or responsible committee member. Other such benefits, known as "Flexible Work Arrangements" (FWA) are flexible working hours, the ability to work from home, day care centers and gyms at work, which can act as effective organizational

tools for striking a work/life balance. They are also highlighted under the Theory of Work Adjustment (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999), which holds that when people have access to flexible working conditions, they get a higher correspondence between their personal life demands and their job, enabling them to allocate time, energy and attention, and thereby gain more control and autonomy at work leading to deeper work engagement (Rich et al., 2010).

Mauno et al. (2007) believe that having problems in balancing work with family demands leads to a loss of vigor (levels of energy and mental resilience while working), which is one of the dimensions of work engagement. Sonnentag and Kleine (2000) observe in their study that a key factor in employees' engagement is their ability to switch off or psychologically detach from work during non-work time, since employees who were unable to detach from their work experienced in the long run a lower level of work engagement.

Although work engagement has positive implications for organizations in terms of both work performance and extra-role behavior (OCB), Halbesleben, Harvey, and Bolino (2009) believe that in the short run this may indicate a positive impact on the organization, leading to a negative impact in the long run, due to its interference with family life. Halbesleben et al. (2009) accordingly advise organizations to consider suitable tools for rectifying the work/life balance in the long run. Furthermore, Halbesleben et al. (2009), in assessing the consequences of work engagement, with further focus on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), reveal that work engagement is associated with higher work interference with family in alignment with the Conservation of Resources Theory (COR). The theory suggests that people will invest resources in ways that will maximize their return and in a manner that best fits

the specific resources invested; that is, most people with an excess of work resources (e.g. those high in engagement) are likely to invest those resources back into work (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Hobfoll, 2001), through both performance and OCB (Saks, 2006; Salanova et al., 2005). Accordingly the assessment by Halbesleben et al. (2009) of 851 employees in the USA from different occupations (fire fighters, hairstylists and other groups of working adults) suggests that employees with higher work engagement and OCB (which is an indicator/consequence of work engagement), experience greater work interference with family. However the study points out that those with high conscientiousness (an individualist antecedent) are better able to balance their work/family obligations. Thus work/life balance can be analyzed as both an organizational and an individual antecedent, for which the organization can provide effective tools, while individuals can use them effectively, highlighting self-awareness and good management.

However empirical investigation of the use of Flexible Work Arrangements (FWA) included job satisfaction as an outcome, and research has demonstrated the importance of work life balance policies for work performance (e.g. Brough, O'Driscoll, and Kalliath (2005)). Yet Timms et al. (2015) in their research on eight Australian organizations (with a sample of 823) that took place during the Global Financial Crisis (2008), observed a negative relationship between the use of Flexible Work Arrangements (FWA) and work engagement. The researchers explain it by claiming that the associated organizational culture judged and compared employees being to their colleagues if they made use of such tools. The researchers infer that the use of FWA is highly dependent on work-place cultural norms, thus admitting the importance of formal and informal communication so that available arrangements can assist employees to balance the domains of their lives. Kirby and Krone (2002)

similarly indicate that the use of FWA sometimes affects employees' future career prospects and supervisors' judgements on their commitment.

The context of generational differences suggests to The Families and Work Institute Report (2006) that Baby Boomers are more work-centric than the X and Y Generations, while the latter two are more family-centric than the Baby Boomers. The institute further reports that the desire to move into a job with greater responsibilities has declined over the last decade; they calculated that in 1992, 89% of workers under 23 years of age expressed their desire to move to a job with greater responsibility, whereas only 60% did the same in 2002, clearly denoting lower work centrality in the newer generations. Furthermore, while the Baby Boomers define themselves by their careers, the X Generation view work as a job and want freedom and autonomy (CUNA, 2004).

Lancaster and Stillman (2002), Wey Smola and Sutton (2002), and Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak (2000) believe that Baby Boomers may have difficulties in balancing work and family, which may be one result of their focus on hard work and achievement. At the same time, Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) indicate that the Y Generation gives more importance than previous generations to freedom, work-life balance and autonomy. Ng et al. (2010), in their study of career expectations and priorities among the Y Generation reveal after examining more than 20,000 of Canadian university undergraduates, that the generation is looking for a meaningful and satisfying life outside work, but also rapid advancement and the development of new skills. Loughlin and Barling (2001) rationalize this desire for a meaningful and satisfying life outside work as a result of witnessing their parents suffering from firms' downsizing and frequent layoffs associated with economic

recession and from the increased divorce rates in most societies. Furthermore, research in the field indicates that both men and women of the Y Generation are seeking a more balanced lifestyle and have other expectations of their work role than Generation X and the Baby Boomers had (Añón et al., 2006; Kerslake, 2005; Morton, 2002), recognizing that employment flexibility is one way of achieving work life balance (Kerslake, 2005).

Twenge (2010) in her empirical evidence and after reviewing generational differences in the context of both time lag studies and cross sectional studies, remarks on a greater general tendency among the Y Generation to seek leisure, freedom and work/life balance than the X Generation or Baby Boomers had. However, she warns that these trends should be examined in relation to the long working hours of the USA labor market and their associated implications. Similarly, The Family and Work Institute (2005) works out that the X Generation worked more hours than the Baby Boomers at the same age in 1977, though it worked no less than the Y Generation.

Carless and Wintle (2007) and Wey Smola and Sutton (2002) predict that because the Y Generation gives priority to work life balance, it is more likely to communicate its interest in flexible career paths. Twenge, Zhang, and Im (2004) suggest that since the younger generations are reporting significant differences in controlling their life, which is also linked to higher levels of cynicism and helpfulness, the Y Generation may be valuing work/life balance in order to retain control over different aspects of their lives.

Kultalahti et al. (2015), used Facebook as a suitable tool for the Y Generation targeted generation to identify its motivational factors and the role they play in formulating psychological contracts in Finland; they used the method of empathy-

based stories (MEBS) on a snowball sample, where data are gathered from the responses to an illustrated scenario, reflecting the respondent's expectations, values and perceptions. The findings indicate that the members of the Y Generation in Finland do not consider salary a major tool for the psychological contract, since it is inappropriate in their culture to discuss salary. Furthermore, this generation is more interested in multi-tasking and job enrichment than in formal rules and status symbols, but they have got used to short term contracts and insecurity as new norms. The Y Generation is also looking for dynamic tasks and teams, where they can develop their competencies in a supportive flexible working environment. These findings imply that HR departments should offer more flexibility of time and place, which may include: flexible working hours, distance working and days in lieu as a tool of monetary compensation. Furthermore, they recommend HR managers to adopt developmental activities such as exploring job rotation, personal coaching and mentoring, personal development plans aligned with continuous feedback, while developmental targets should be revised at least two to three times a year. Furthermore, they encourage recruiting and developing supportive leaders who are responsible for developing, mentoring and giving feedback to the young generation. Finally, the researchers believe that HR departments may need to expand their headcounts, because the new generation in not willing to put in extra hours at home or at weekends without pay, which may create a problem in organizations pursuing a cost driven strategy or in those which are operating under intense pressure to increase efficiency.

Wey Smola and Sutton (2002) compared data from 1974 to data obtained in 1999, using the Protestant Work Ethic (PWE); they find that generational differences do exist, and work values are more influenced by generational experiences than by age and maturation. Furthermore, the new generation works towards its own objectives

and goals, along with organizational goals, oriented more towards "ME" than to organizational goals. Additionally, it has a greater desire for quick promotion, and a general decline in considering work a central aspect of life, but conversely a general trend towards work/life balance was observed; moreover, the new generation's personal values are less associated with what one does or how hard one works. The researchers accordingly recommend human resources managers and decision makers to adopt better work goals and personal goals, for example, flexible work schedules, quality of life programs, on-site day care and even care for elders. Wey Smola and Sutton (2002) summarize the above scenario as follows: "Millennials and the generations behind them may bring their own set of changing values; managers may need to be creative in accommodating those needs while still watching the bottom line".

Twenge et al. (2010) studied three generations of high school seniors in the USA, born in 1958-1959, 1973-1974 and 1988-1989, together with their employment decisions in different years (1976, 1991 and 2006). Results indicate that the Y Generation more strongly values leisure, and that the value of leisure has increased steadily over the three generations, while centrality of work has declined. However the researchers advise analyzing the findings with reference to US labor market trends and its long working hours, downsizing, redundancy and attempts to outsource as well as increased general awareness and its implications for the understanding of the survey questions. Accordingly, the study recommends HRM managers to motivate the younger generations by the of offer flexible timing, with a choice of when to start work, or of taking the 40 hours over 4 days a week instead of 5, as well as providing time off as a reward.

Bal and De Lange (2015) examine the effect of flexible HRM on employee engagement and job performance among 2,210 employees of 9 organizations in the USA and a sample of employees across the world; they conclude that flexible HRM is positively related to work engagement among the Y Generation. In alignment with Generation Theory, younger employees place more value on flexibility at work and thereby become more emotionally attached to their employer. Flexible HRM, however, is positively associated with job performance by the older two generations endorsing the Lifespan Theory of Selection, Optimization and Compensation (SOC) which holds that older workers experience age related losses in capability and a decline of health, leading them to welcome job flexible tools in order to maintain their performance. The study, besides investigating the role of age in the effects of flexible HRM on employee engagement and job performance considers both the availability and use of job flexibility; it reveals that the availability of job flexibility was a stronger predictor than the use of flexibility itself. The researchers rationalize this by recalling that availability enhances employees' awareness of the benevolent intentions of their organization and their own importance and validity. Flexible HRM in the context of this study was defined as the opportunities that organizations provide to their employees to make choices regarding when and how they work (Hill et al, 2008) and divided into two types, irregular and regular.

The concept of work/life balance also has implications in the context of culture; for instance, Suh, Diener, Oishi, and Triandis (1998) illustrate that work/life balance is a stronger satisfaction element of individualistic cultures than of collective ones. In light of the above, the present study predicts that:

H9: There is a positive relationship between Work/Life Balance and Work Engagement.

H10: The positive relationship between Work/Life Balance and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Y Generation employees than for members of the X Generation and Baby Boomers.

To conclude, while a many antecedents play an effective role in enhancing work engagement among individuals, the literature on generational differences lists the above as the main areas of differences.

Moreover, although having the three generations at work for the first time in the UAE labor market provides a challenge to decision makers and HR professionals, it also brings a variety of talents, values and skills. Shedding light on these differences and providing suitable tools enables these challenges to turn into opportunities. Moreover, while HRM professionals are aware of generational differences and cultural features play an important role in managing people in organizations, with its associated practices, individuals' unique attributes should not be ignored, and due attention should always be given to individuals, not only to generational membership or the attributes that are derived from cultures.

2.7 Consequences of Work Engagement

The earlier sections of this chapter have analyzed the UAE culture, generational differences and work engagement, this section is going on to analyze work engagement consequences in context of both generational differences and the UAE cultural dimensions.

Empirical findings suggest that there are relationships between employees'

work engagement and key outcomes for both employees and organizations (Harter et al., 2002). For instance, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) note that engaged employees have a greater attachment to their organization, with a lower tendency to leave. Saks (2006) believes that the work engagement tends to be related to positive work outcomes, as can be analyzed under the Social Exchange Theory (SET), indicating that individuals will continue to engage themselves in alignment with continued favorable reciprocal exchanges. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) highlight the favorable consequences of work engagement by defining engagement as a state where the resources of a job exceed its demands, allowing employees to perform in a unique way at a higher level.

Kahn (1992) proposes that engagement leads to both individual and organizational level outcomes, where individual outcomes include elements such as the quality of people's work and their own experiences of doing it, while organizational level outcomes include elements such as the growth and productivity of the organization. Maslach et al. (2001) conversely find that burnout is related to outcomes such as increased withdrawal, lower performance, lack of job satisfaction and commitment, and hence engagement seems to them the opposite of burnout: it should be associated with the same outcomes but negatively. Saks' (2006) work effort links all the favorable outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and lack of intention to quit, to both work and organizational engagement, where organizational engagement partially mediates the relationship between the antecedents identified above and the four identified consequence, whereas organizational engagement is a much stronger predictor of all other outcomes than job engagement. Similarly Shaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Sonnentag (2003) indicate that engagement mediates the relationship between various

antecedents and positive outcomes. Finally, Koyuncu et al. (2006) believe that work engagement has potentially positive consequences for both employers and their related organizations.

2.8 Work Engagement Consequences in the Context of Generations

The experience of work engagement has been described as doing fulfilling positive, the work related experience and a state of mind (Shaufeli and Bakker, 2004), which are linked to good health and other positive work effects (Sonnentag, 2003). In the context of generational differences and the current literature, three consequences has been identified which should be analyzed with reference to the UAE culture, namely; organizational commitment (OC), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and the intention to leave; this has further implications for the current challenges in the UAE labor market and the associated 2021 vision. Examining the above in the context of the three generations in the UAE should allow decision makers and HR professionals to understand better the implications of generational differences in the practice of HR, and thereby adopt the most effective tools for enhancing or controlling practice.

The associated consequences may have further implications for organizations regarding generational differences: Wey Smola and Sutton (2002) find after their surveys (1974 and repeated in 1999) that work values are more influenced by generational experience than by age and maturity, encouraging HRM managers and professionals to analyze these differences and identify their consequences for organizational management.

2.8.1 Organizational Commitment

Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) define organizational commitment (OC hereafter) as "the strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organization". Similarly, Allen and Meyer (1990) define OC as "the employee's feeling of obligation to stay with the organization, where the feeling results from the internalization of normative pressure exerted on an individual prior to or following entry". Allen and Meyer (1990) further divide OC into Affective, Normative and Continuance Commitment. While Affective Commitment refers to emotional attachment to an organization, causing employees to remain in it because they want to, Normative Commitment is based on the sense of obligation to the organization, leading employees to feel that they ought to remain in it and Continuance Commitment is based on employees' acknowledgment of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Because Affective Commitment refers to emotional attachment to an organization, causing employees to remain in it because they want to, and hence it's more associated with work engagement, as it involves emotional connection to the employer.

OC has been aligned to many favorable outcomes in the context of organizational management and HRM, such as lower turnover (Mueller & Price, 1990; Porter et al., 1974), lower absenteeism (Angle & Perry, 1981; Brooke & Price, 1989; Sagie, 1998), higher motivation and involvement (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981), as well as higher job performance. Employees with OC express higher levels of commitment to organizations which adapt to employees' commitment enhancement strategies (Porter, 1990; Walton, 1985), in other words, to the HRM practices that are in harmony with the employees' needs and wants and are thereby capable of building and maintaining their commitment.

Work Engagement has been positively related to OC in a number of related studies (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentage, 2003). Shaufeli and Bakker (2004), and Sonnentage (2003) indicate that work engagement is positively related to OC and negatively related to the intention to leave, having also an impact on both job performance and extra-role behavior (OCB).

Macey and Schneider (2008b) and Saks (2006) find evidence that Affective Commitment, which emphasizes employees' emotional connection with their organization, closely parallels the emotive qualities of work engagement. This has also been viewed as an important perspective among employees in making decisions about their future behavior at work (Macey & Schneider, 2008b). Shuck et al. (2011) remark that Affective Commitment comes even before work engagement (as an antecedent rather than a consequence) when employees develop an affective bond with their organizations before actually engaging in the behavioral state of work engagement. These researchers further claim that each organization is unique and the starting point for employees depends on its needs, bearing in mind its culture in this regard.

Looking at the concept of OC in the context of cultures and their dimensions, Gelade et al. (2008) maintain that organizational commitment is influenced by the job characteristics which are highly valued in the culture in question. These writers examine the impact of a range of diverse job characteristics designated to each of four selected dimensions of Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions; Individualism, Collectivism, Masculinity and Femininity. Their study results, comprising data from 50,000 respondents, represents a variety of cultures, all within the same employer, and indicates a positive relationship between each dimension and the designated characteristics. For instance collectivism characteristics were strong antecedents of

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commitment in collectivist nations, and the same applies also to individualism, femininity and masculinity. Collective designated job characteristics according to the survey, included such tools as the receiving of training and development needed for the job, the opportunity to use the individual's skills/abilities, and satisfaction with the benefits. The individual designated tools included work/life balance and the ability to express one's own opinions in a safe environment. Masculine job characteristics, according to the study, included a sense of personal accomplishment, satisfaction with payment, recognition for innovation and personal development and the opportunity for growth. Feminine job characteristics included team working and the involvement of the immediate manager in making decisions. The research did not, however, identify the reasons behind designating those tools under the four identified cultural dimensions of Hofstede's, but was pursued at a single organization (the same method that Hofstede had used), making it difficult to generalize. With this in mind, Gelade et al. (2008) show the importance of examining the role of the psychological contract in each culture so as to better understand the sources of organizational commitment across different cultures.

Bochner and Hesketh (1994) believe that employees in a high power distance culture are more loyal than those in a lower distance culture. Furthermore, research on culture and HRM suggests that individuals in collective societies may show greater commitment to the organization, due to the importance in these societies of belonging. Taras et al. (2010), using data from 598 studies and 200,000 individuals, use meta-analysis of the relationship between Hofstede's (1980a) four original cultural value dimensions and relevant organizational outcomes at the individual level. These scholars infer that Power Distance is positively related to absenteeism, sensitivity to others, job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, perceived organizational justice,

continuance and normative commitment.

However, Gelade et al. (2008), examining 49 countries, find that none of Hofstede's cultural dimensions are related to Affective Commitment (AC). However, such commitment is high in countries where the population is happy. Furthermore, Brief (1998) illustrates according to the integrated model of attitudes that work related attitudes depend on both objective circumstances and individual dispositional characteristics.

Although cultures may define OC norms among individuals, Gabriel (1999) and Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau (1994) believe that employees no longer expect to depend on their organizations for job security, causing a shift in the psychological contract between them and their organizations. Daboval (1998) suggests that young employees nowadays generally feel less obligated to their employers than employees of a similar age a few decades ago. Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth, and Larson (1996), Putnam (2001) and Robinson and Jackson (2001) contend that older and younger employees differ in their beliefs about the psychological work contract between themselves and their employers, and that this affects their OC. However, they believe that this fact should in some cases be kept in mind in alignment with the importance of career development and its possible conflict with organizational commitment and employer loyalty. Moreover, Brousseau et al. (1996), Hirsch and Shanley (1996), and Solomon (1992) note that this difference should be analyzed in relation to the latest HRM practices. For instance, while older generations believe that loyalty towards the employer and hard work are rewarded with job security, younger generations in light of today's downswing, reengineering and outsourcing practices, believe that counting on loyalty from an employer is risky and accordingly they must take responsibility for

their own career and be ready for quick career transitions while still taking advantage of learning opportunities. Moreover, Crainer and Dearlove (1999) believe that the self-awareness of younger people leads them to look for other employment opportunities if their needs are not met by their current employer. Kupperschmidt (2000) rationalizes the decline of OC across generations, by observing that the new generations learnt not to count on their organizations but to seek those employers and employment opportunities that could offer challenging jobs with sufficient training, while emphasizing career security in lieu of job security. Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Dries, et al. (2008) summarize the situation by saying that "there is a multiple-employer career, but still a longing for stability and security".

Furthermore, OC should also be evaluated in alignment with the development of the career concept, where the traditional career structures defined by the person making a series of upward career moves have been replaced since the beginning of the 1990s by boundary-less careers (Arthur, 1994). The new concept is defined as "occupational paths that are not bounded with a specific organization but grow through project based competency development across firms in an industry network" (Michael B Arthur & Denise M Rousseau, 1996) (Michael B Arthur & Denise M Rousseau, 1996) (Michael B Arthur & Denise M Rousseau, 1996) (Michael B Arthur & Denise M Rousseau, 1996). Baruch (2004) further indicates that today's business environment is more transactional: short term relationships are common, while other criteria are now applied when climbing the ladder, such as inner satisfaction, work/life balance, autonomy and freedom. Similarly, Broadbridge et al. (2007) find that people now expect to move between companies more often than in the past. Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, D'Amato, and Herzfeldt (2008) describe a scenario in which young generations do not expect life-time employment when they enter a workforce, as a

result of the emerging trends to re-engineer, downsize and manage services. These have led organizations to value capabilities rather than loyalty, and to offer challenges rather than guaranteeing job security for their employees (Hamel & Prahalad, 1996). Similarly, Lawler (2005) states that organizations have changed their contact model to gain flexibility in staffing and the use of talent. This may explain the latest figures by the USA Department of Labor Statistics (2013), showing that the average tenure for the Y Generation is 3.2 years, versus 10.3 years for individuals aged 55 and above. The report asserts that these new trends in the global labor market are evidence of the new generation's commitment, which is not a generational trend, but rather a reaction to different practices in the labor market, in which OC is an investment by both employers and employees. Tomlinson (2007) rationalizes this by suggesting that the Y Generation realize that lifelong employment and organizational security are rare in today's workplace, and therefore take a proactive approach by securing and then enhancing their employability. In this regard, Daboval (1998), as noted above believes that today's young employees feel less obligated to their employers than their counterparts felt a few decades ago.

Wallace (2006) comments that the antecedents of commitment differ between Baby Boomers and the X Generation; work effort, professional activities and rewards are more related to Baby Boomers' commitment, while the sense of importance and supportive colleagues were more important to Generation X's commitment. He adds that the Baby Boomers had a higher work commitment than Generation X had, but the difference is not statistically significant after taking into account other related factors such as work effort, earnings, work flexibility and intrinsic rewards. Accordingly his sample among lawyers shows no differences in work commitment between Boomers and X Generation. Similarly, Benson and Brown (2011) in their research among

Australian public organization demonstrate a weak relationship between generations and commitment. However,Yu and Miller (2005), working on Taiwanese manufacturing firms, indicate that the X Generation is more loyal than the Baby Boomers' to occupations and their associated skills.

The cross sectional study of Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) concludes that all generations have almost the same level of commitment and that respondents with well-fitting Person Organizational values for status or with extrinsic values are more committed, with a lower intention to leave – Person Organizational values concern the match between the individual's values and the values of their organization. Furthermore, their study finds that when the younger respondents experience lack of fit, they tend to feel less commitment than Baby Boomers do and thereby have a stronger intention to leave. Moreover, the study indicates that the values held by individuals, such as organizational satisfaction, commitment and intention to leave, were less important for organizational outcomes than the perception of what the organization supplies, at least for the extrinsic elements of the job. However the research illustrates the importance of analyzing this finding in the context of careers and life stages and their implications for organizational commitment.

Amato and Herzfeldt (2008) examined the role of learning orientation, leadership development intentions, OC and the intention to stay among 1,666 managers from four generations in Europe: Early Baby Boomers (1964-1951) Late Baby Boomers (1952 -1959) Early Generation X (1960-1970) and Later Generation X (1971-1980). Their results indicate that: organizational commitment was lower in the last two generational categories than in the others, which may be supported by the differences in the psychological contract between the generations. The younger

generation also placed learning orientation higher than the older one did. Moreover, for later Baby Boomers and the early X Generation, commitment mediated the relationship between leadership development and intention to stay. For the Early X Generation, however, it mediated the relationship between learning orientation and the intention to stay; accordingly, the role of OC varies between generations. With these results in mind, the researchers indicated the importance of tailoring HR practices for different generations as well as tailoring them to match different career stages, treating learning and development as key elements of OC in the younger generation.

The UAE is 21th in the year 2017 World Happiness Report, and ranked first among all Arab countries in the report which has been issued by the Earth Institute at Columbia University under the supervision of the United Nations , yet no research has analyzed its OC in the context of these results. Accordingly, the present study should examine this ranking with reference to generational membership and its associated differences, expecting that:

H11: There is a positive relationship between Work Engagement and Organizational Commitment.

H12: The positive relationship between Organizational Commitment and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Baby Boomer employees than for the X and Y Generations.

2.8.2 Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB):

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is defined as "types of behavior that do not contribute directly to the organization's technical core but rather contribute to the organization by fostering a social and psychological environment conducive to

the accomplishment of work involved in the organization's technical core" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998). Similarly, Moorman and Blakely (1995) describe the term as used for those behaviors that are not part of the organizational reward system; therefore managers often find it difficult to reward OCB or punish its absence. Kidder and Parks (2001) describe this behavior as typical of "good citizens/good soldiers". Similarly, Organ (1988) define it "as individual's behavior that is discretionary, not directly, or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in its aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization". Organ's definition of OCB includes three critical aspects that are central to the construct. First, OCB is defined as behaviors which are not part of the job description, and are performed by the employee as a result of personal choice. Second, OCB goes beyond the requirements of the job description. Finally, OCB's associated behaviors contribute positively to overall organizational effectiveness. Research has indicated that OCB can be divided into two kinds: behavior that is directed towards other individuals (OCBI) and behavior that is directed towards the organization (OCBO).

OCB has a number of critical implications for different organizational aspects: for instance. Koys (2001) believes that OCB is an important factor in organizational performance, while Organ and Ryan (1995) find that job satisfaction and AC (affective commitment) are significantly inter-correlated with OCB. Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Bume (2009) indicate that OCB is negatively related to turnover and employee absenteeism. Similarly, Chen, Hui, and Sego (1998) illustrate the view that employees with low levels of OCB are more likely to leave an organization than employees with high levels of it. Moreover, Shragay and Tziner (2011) demonstrate that OCB is positively related to job satisfaction. Borman and Motowidlo (1997) see

the importance of such behaviors as linked to employees' ability to contribute to overall organizational effectiveness, and also to shaping the social and psychological context that catalyzes the task activities and processes of the organization.

The current literature suggests a number of antecedents of OCB. For instance, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) point out that OCB is influenced by both personal characteristics and work environment factors. George and Brief (1992) observe that a positive mood among employees often results in a desire to perform more by reflecting helping behavior, while a high level of job satisfaction leads to the higher frequency of OCB (Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, & McMurrian, 1997). Organ and Ryan (1995) conducted a meta-analytic study designed to test some proposed predictors of OCB, their analysis of 55 studies determined that job satisfaction and perceived organizational justice were positively correlated with OCB to approximately the same degree. Moreover, OCB was found to be related to procedural fairness, through promoting group welfare, since it supports behaviors that motivate the collective interest (Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993). Netemeyer, Johnston, and Burton (1990) in addition demonstrate a significant positive correlation between person/organization fit and job satisfaction. Similarly, a significant positive relationship can be found between person/organization fit and OCB. Thus, person/organization fit influences both OCB and job satisfaction. In this regard, Netemeyer et al. (1990) recommend employers to consider assessing the potential person/organization fit of candidates for jobs as part of their recruitment process, which should enhance OCB among the individuals who qualify.

Researchers further indicate that most of the current research surrounding OCB focuses on situational causes, ignoring the importance of explaining them in the

context of individual differences. Organ (1990) accordingly maintains that individual differences play an important role in predicting whether an employee would offer such cooperation and be involved in such practices. Moorman and Blakely (1995) after testing the relationship between individualism/collectivism (as an individual difference variable and not based on a national aggregate score) and the performance of OCB. indicate a positive relationship between collectivist variables and OCB.

Bolton. Houlihan. Lamm. and Meeks (2009). examining the relationship between workplace fun and individual outcomes in the context of generational differences. find that the members of the three generations perceive workplace fun differently. The Y Generation shows a greater positive association between workplace fun and individual outcomes than does X Generation for the elements of job satisfaction. task performance and OCBI. The results lead to the contention that. while generational membership does not moderate OCB as a multi- dimensional construct. the impact of generational differences is reflected in OCBI. Accordingly the researchers infer that the birth cohort and thereby the personality develops an impact on workplace outcomes. effecting behaviors both in role and extra role (OCB).

Amayah and Gedro (2014) , after analyzing the current research in the context of generations and OCB indicate that when organizations do not address the changes in the role of work between generations. they may run the risk of losing employees. This suggests that both the X and Y Generations give more importance to leisure than the Baby Boomers do. These researchers add that HRM departments should be aware that the new generations are not willing to provide additional work without additional pay. and are less willing to make personal sacrifices for the organization.

Gyekye and Haybatollahi (2015) investigate the relationship among 320 Ghanaian indusial workers between their age and their level of job satisfaction and participation. Their study maintains that age (older workers are defined as above 40 years) is positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior. The researchers go on to say this is to be expected since older individuals are less self-centered, more socially responsible, and hence act more altruistically. In light of the study findings, the researchers advise HRM professionals to adjust the job assignments of older workers to include more mentoring, not only to pass on their skills and expertise but also to act as role models. Their study implies in addition that OCB among the younger generation is governed by the norms of reciprocity (Blau, 1964), which presume that greater derived satisfaction results in greater motivation to actively participate in OCB. HRM managers are thereby expected to identify the job aspects that raise job satisfaction and in turn OCB.

Paine and Organ (2000) indicate that OCB might be interpreted differently for every culture; since behaviors are perceived differently, HR departments should adopt practices which are capable of enhancing this effect. Earley (1989) finds evidence showing that one of the attributes of collectivist societies is that in them "individuals will subordinate their personal interest to the goals of their collective". Kuehn and Al-Busaidi (2002) evaluate the influence of: selected individual characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job design on OCB ratings in the non-Western context of Oman. Their results make it clear that job satisfaction is a leading predictor of OCB, and similarly that normative commitment was also a significant predictor of OCB. The study also indicated that age is another significant predictor of OCB, whereas job scope was not - young Omanis are less satisfied with their work and hence are less likely to contribute to the organization in the form of OCB.

Al-Obaidi, Suliman, and Al-Ani (2013) examine the antecedents of OCB in the Islamic banks of the UAE, according to which a positive relationship can be observed between both transformational and transactional leadership and employees' OCB. Transformational leadership influences employees who consequently perform above and beyond the call of duty (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Podsakoff et al. (2000) further indicate that managers who provide positive feedback contingent on particular citizenship behavior should note a positive relationship between the two, resulting in further willingness to engage in more citizenship behaviors. The study thereby recommends that HR departments should convince managers of the importance of OCB and the way to support it in their daily behavior.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) suggest that cultural dimensions may affect the form of OCB observed in an organization. For instance, OCB differs according to whether feminine or masculine cultural dimensions prevail. Feminine behaviors, as noted above, are characterized as interpersonal in orientation and focused on a concern for others, whereas masculine behaviors are typically more aggressive and independent (Spence & Helmreich, 1980). Similarly, altruism and courtesy, as OCBIs, are seen as in-role behavior for women, while civic virtue and sportsmanship, previously listed under OCBOs, are regarded as more in-role for men.

Wanxian and Weiwu (2007) results in a study based in China posit that OCB is more likely to be performed in collective and high power distance cultures, due to the importance of group acceptance and subordination in a hierarchy. Recalling the UAE's cultural norms and the associated generational differences, it is expected that:

H13: There is a positive relationship between Work Engagement and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB).

H14: The positive relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Baby Boomers employees than for members of the X and Y Generations.

2.8.3 Intention to Leave

Intention to leave refers to the "conscious and deliberate willfulness of employees to leave the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993), or as "the individual's own estimated subjective possibility or probability of leaving the organization or profession in the near future" (Bigliardi, Petroni, & Ivo Dormio, 2005; Steers, Mowday, & Porter, 1979). Tett and Meyer (1993) define the intent to turnover as the final cognitive phase in the decision making process, in which organizational members actively consider quitting and searching for alternative jobs or professions. Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino (1979) provide four cognitive components of turnover intent:, thinking of quitting, planning to stay or leave, searching for an alternative career, and desire to leave the current career.

Intention to turnover presents one of the most strategic and common outcome variables for HRM, which is often used as a benchmark for the success of the latter: strategies, programs and interventions (Shuck et al., 2011). It is also considered a powerful predictor of an employee's current and future behavior (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006). Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) note that job turnover intention is indeed an important predictor of future/actual turnover. Previous research has claimed that the number of times individuals change their job predicts their future turnover (Ghiselli, 1974; Munasinghe & Sigman, 2004). Karatepe and Ngeche (2012) and Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton and Holtom (2004) believe that the importance of this

measure is linked to its ability to predict actual turnover, and the costs associated with, for both parties, employees and employers.

Several work engagement models would empirically link work engagement and turnover intentions (Harter et al., 2002; Saks, 2006). For instance, Schafeli and Bakker (2004) see in employees a lower tendency to leave their organizations, the greater their attachment to them. They go on to show that their study identifies a negative relationship between work engagement and turnover intentions, where work engagement mediates the relationship between various job resources and turnover intentions. Shuck et al. (2011) assert that when employees feel that their job makes a meaningful contribution and perceive that they have the appropriate resources to complete it (elements of work engagement according to Kahn,1990) they are less likely to leave their organization. Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) hold that the link between work engagement and the intention to leave derives from the high level of energy invested in the job, in association with the high level of identification with the work being done, if it provides extensive resources that makes the employee hesitate to leave.

A unique study in Japan (Takase, Oba, & Yamashita, 2009) with the aim of identifying turnover motives among nurses grouped them into three main categories, based on their generational membership: they represented the Dankai generation, 1946-1959; the Shinjinrui (meaning a new mankind), 1960-1974 or the post-Dankai Juniors, (born between 1975 and the present), standing for the Baby Boomers and the X and Y Generations, respectively. The research explored work related needs, in addition to identifying the factors that underlie nurses' consideration of leaving. By means of a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, the research could

shed light on the positive aspect of generational differences, and thereby control the factors that are related to turnover intentions in each generation to create a fulfilling work environment for nurses. The first generation (1946-1959) according to their analysis can be seen as "corporate warriors", perceived to be more robust to harsh working conditions, although the most two frequent cited causes of intention to leave among them were excess workload and issues of interpersonal relationships. Second, the generation of 1960-1974 paid more attention to autonomy, leisure and recognition, and the main reasons behind their intention to leave were associated with the imbalance between their jobs and personal lives. Finally, those who were born after the year 1975 gave lower needs and values and lower opportunities for further clinical challenges made young nurses consider turnover since these features undermined their confidence to care. This was found to be associated with the changes in the educational curriculum for nurses in Japan and the move in the colleges and institutes that they attended from a traditional clinically-oriented training to an academic education. In light of the findings, it is believed that understanding generations and their differences should enable organizations to develop suitable countermeasures to reduce the turnover intentions of each generation, requiring suitable tools for each generation employed.

Benson and Brown (2011) submit that Baby Boomers have less intention to leave than members of X Generation, as observed after controlling for the age element in an Australian sample. Hall (1996) recommends that Baby Boomers who enter a firm and work hard and loyally should be rewarded by job security, unlike current employees of this age, who may not be rewarded by job security, given the changes in HR practices which include outsourcing, downsizing and managed services. Whyte (1963) discusses the relationship between Baby Boomers and their organizations in

terms of individuals belonging to firms. not merely working for them. Similarly. Elsdon and Iyer (1 999) identify lifetime employment. company loyalty and paying ones' dues to go ahead as the values that Baby Boomers believe in. Hart (2006) indicate that the members of X Generation are expected to show less loyalty to their organizations given their self-reliance and independence. and Eisner (2005) similarly notes that the members of X Generation focus on their skills to improve their security. Likewise. the Y Generation views job security as less important. being brought up to be comfortable with change (Eisner, 2005).

Lu and Gursoy (2016) consider the moderation effect of generational differences on the relationship between burnout (the antonym of work engagement) and employee satisfaction and turnover intention. together with its moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction and turnover intention. They perceive that generational membership has a significant moderating effect: the Y Generation. according to their study. reported lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention than the Baby Boomers. However these scholars are convinced that this cannot be analyzed as a function of generational differences alone. but also in light of the differences in the perception and interpretation of the state of emotional execution among the three generations. as well as the Career Stage Theory (Super. 1980). The Career Stage Theory (1980) classifies people as occupying one of three stages: the Trail Stage (younger than 31 years), the Stabilization Stage (31- 44 years) and the Maintenance Stage (older than 44 years). Using this classification. the theory holds that these stage entail different perceptions and needs. For instance, in the Maintenance Stage people are more settled in their career patterns and strive to maintain their status at work and hold on to their position. while people in the Stabilization Stage show rapid career advancement and have already set their personal and career goals. People

in the Trial Stage are more willing to try other occupations, with the aim of finding their ideal career. In light of the findings, Lu and Gursoy (2016) recommend HRM professionals to offer their young employees constant pay rises instead of one annual pay rise, rapid feedback and rewards. They also show the value of adapting to strategies that offer a balanced corporate life, giving younger employees more control over their career and professional work/life balance. However, since their study is centers on the hospitality industry, which is unique and requires employees to display the appropriate emotions, thereby reported to be stressful (Chuang & Lei, 2011; Kim, 2008), the burnout ratios and work engagement patterns of their sample can be generalized to this industry alone. Furthermore, since it was conducted in the USA, the cultural dimensions of Americans may show different results from those of other cultures such as the Middle East or the GCC.

Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) use their cross sectional study to show that the Y Generation has more intention to leave, followed by the X Generation, whereas the Baby Boomers have less intention to leave, indicating the importance of analyzing employees according to their age and career stage. Moreover, The Family and Work Institute comments that workers between the ages of 24 and 37 were more likely to have spoken of plans to leave their current employers in 2002 than they were in 1977, representing an increased trend of turnover in the newer generations. Similarly, Amato and Herzfeldt (2008) indicate from their data on 1,066 European managers that intention to stay in one's current organization has gradually declined in the younger generation. These researchers infer that managers with higher organizational commitment and greater learning orientation and willingness to develop as leaders have more intention to stay with their current employer for the next three years.

With the aim of examining whether individual career patterns have shifted away from traditional linear upward careers and towards boundary-less multi-directional careers, Ng, Lyonss and Schweitzer (2012) compare the career mobility patterns of four generations: the Matures, Baby Boomers, X Generation and Y Generation in a sample of almost 3000 employees in Canada. Their results indicate that Baby Boomers had significantly fewer job changes per year than had members of the X and Y Generations, and the X Generation had significantly fewer job changes per year than the Y Generation. However, these results should be analyzed with reference to the increased trend to job and organizational mobility across all generations, as one of the main characteristic of the new careers, which does not coincide with the increased rate of turnover (where 'job mobility' is defined as the rate of job changes and organizational changes per year of career employment). The researchers indicate that increased mobility seems to be more obvious with successive generations; accordingly, the Y Generation has almost twice as many job and organizational moves per year as the X Generation has, almost three times as many as the Baby Boomers and 4.5 times as many as the Matures have (the same results were also reported by the Ethics Resources Center Report, 2010). However, the X Generation has almost twice as many job changes per year as the Baby Boomers and 2.5 times more than the Matures. The researchers further indicate that the same could be rationalized as due to changes of technology, globalization and economic shifts, making some jobs redundant, outsourcing, and requiring people to change jobs more often as a norm of today's labor market. Furthermore, today's economic conditions and their implications for employment contracts, including cyclical layoffs, self-employment, part time temporary and multiple jobs, should be viewed as a general increase of non-standard work that must be borne in mind when analyzing observed

patterns of intention to leave in different generations. The above study, in view of these findings concludes that there is a small but significant increase in the rate of involuntary mobility in the two youngest Generations (X and Y), but the increase was small with no clear indication of more transient work arrangements. Traditional full time employment remains the norm. The researchers go on to say that the recent market changes of downswing and outsourcing perhaps lead newer generation to adopt a self-directed career approach, but its members are looking for a faster pace of change than previous generations were, according to which organizations need to offer quicker career progression.

Similarly, Becton, Walker, and Jones-Farmer (2014) in their study of work behaviors among more than 8,000 employees in two different hospitals in the southeastern states of America, posit that there is still a significant mean difference in the jobs held in the past 5 years between Baby Boomers and the X Generation, and between Baby Boomers and the Y Generation. Baby Boomers exhibit fewer job mobility behaviors than either the X or the Y Generation does, which results from something more than mere age factors, if job mobility is defined as patterns of intra and inter organizational transitions over the history of a person's career (Hall, 1996). Becton et al. (2014) further warn that these results need to be treated with caution, because the effect size is small, providing only limited evidence of generational differences at work. The researchers do not recommend any tailoring of HR practices, taking into consideration the costs and benefits of doing so, but they see it important to take account of individual differences and of providing greater flexibility in the HR practices that add value to all employees regardless of generational membership.

Similarly Moore et al. (2015) comment that their results, based on a single firm

in the USA, imply that the Y Generation at point of hiring had greater expectations of support for career development and job training than the X Generation and Baby Boomers had. Moreover, they find that the Y Generation has higher intentions to leave but lower pension expectations. The researchers justify these findings by the rule of reciprocity, which may operate most strongly for the Y Generation, indicating that if its higher expectations are fulfilled by their employer, the fact should be reflected by a higher intention to remain. This may be the case for all generations, but the connection between the two seemed by closer for the Y Generation employees.

Twenge (2010), however, contends that generations are similar in their intention to leave, on the basis of a number of time lag studies and cross sectional studies, yet the loyalty of the Y Generation seems more likely to break down should better opportunities be offered. Similarly, Kowske et al. (2010), who examine the intention to leave among five American generations and compares data obtained between 1985 and 2009, conclude that these generations demonstrate the same level of turnover intentions; intentions to leave mostly turn out to be related to individual circumstances.

Looking at the concept of intention to leave in the context of national cultures, Hofstede (1980a, 1980b,1983a, 1983b &1984) believed that collectivist societies might have difficulties in changing employers, given their deep sense of the moral relationship between employer and employee. It would be hard to change employers where priority is given to relations and not tasks. Similarly, the high uncertainty avoidance in cultures such as the UAE that Hofstede indicates promotes greater career stability in order to avoid ambiguous situations, security being an important element in individual motivation, which may result in lower intentions to leave. With this in

mind, the current study expects:

H15: There is a negative relationship between Work Engagement and Intention to Leave

H16: The negative relationship between Intention to Leave and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Baby Boomers employees than for X and Y Generations.

To conclude, Work Engagement is associated with a number of consequences for organizations and individuals, the present study focused on three of the consequences, which seemed to be of a critical importance in the UAE labor market. These consequences should be analyzed in the context of career and other demographic and socioeconomic factors, and not linked only to generational membership and the associated changes.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter started by analyzing the UAE cultural dimension as it figures in Hofstede's framework; it went on to identify generational differences, focusing mainly on the three targeted generations. The chapter defined work engagement and discussed models and associated measures. After this, selected work engagement antecedents and consequences were analyzed in the context of HRM and the literature on work engagement as well as the current literature in the context of generational and cultural differences. On the basis of the above, the hypotheses of the current study were identified for examination in the next part.

2.10 Research Model

Taking into consideration the available efforts in the literature and the above predictions in the format of hypothesis, below is the research model:
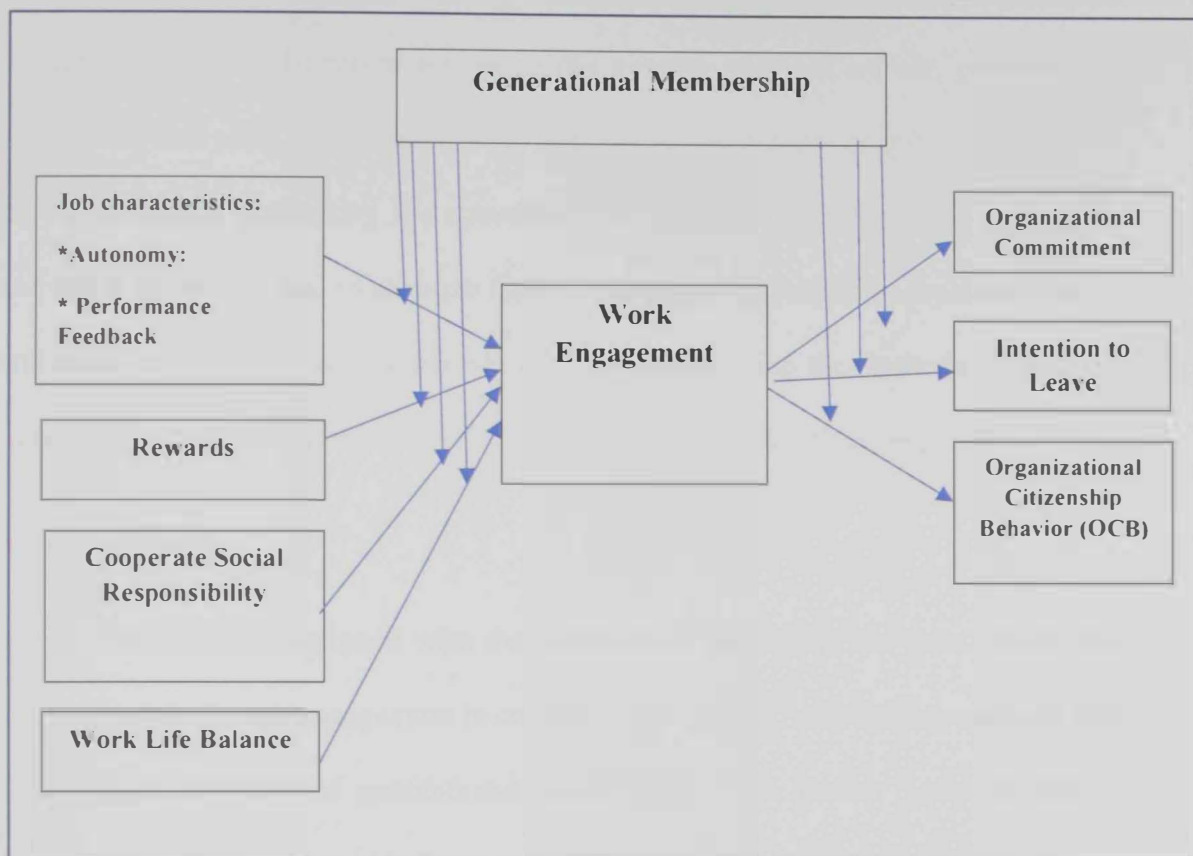
Figure 1: Research Model

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The first two chapters of the current study have discussed the research background and the literature review in the context of UAE culture, generational differences and work engagement. The objective of the current chapter is to identify the study design, illustrating the operationalization of its research model constructs and the instruments used to measure them. Furthermore, it identifies the data sources and associated data collection procedures, before examining the methods of analysis in order to overview the data analysis techniques and profile of the respondents.

3.2 Study Design

This study is designed with the intention of examining the antecedents and consequences of work engagement in context of the United Arab Emirates culture and the moderation effect of generational membership, with further focus on the Y Generation as the target market for most employers.

The first phase of this research involved reviewing the literature in context of cultural dimensions, generational differences and work engagement. In the course of this a number of antecedents were selected, namely, job characteristics (performance feedback and job autonomy), work/life balance, cooperate social responsibility (CSR), and rewards. Similarly, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), organizational commitment (affective commitment), and intention to leave were selected as consequences of work engagement. Accordingly, the research model was developed for testing, along with the associated predictions developed in the form of hypotheses.

The selection of these antecedents, as noted above, was due to their

implications in the context of generational differences; however, since no studies have examined these implications in the context of the UAE (as far as I am aware), the current research started by examining the validity of each antecedent/consequence, after which the moderation effect on them was examined.

The second phase of this research involves identifying suitable measurement tools for each of the identified antecedents/consequences, ensuring their statistical quality and applicability in the context of the UAE culture and relevant studies of generational differences. The third phase of the research involved collecting data through the survey. Then the research model and associated hypotheses are applied to the collected data. The research is concluded by suggesting a number of managerial and practical implications, which are discussed, together with the study's limitations and possible future directions for research, in the last chapter of the study.

3.2.1 Quantitative Approach Identification in Context of Social Science

The quantitative method is widely used in the natural and social sciences, since it allows for a systematic empirical investigation of observable phenomena through statistical tools/techniques, by translating the associated observations into quantitative terms (mathematical or computational) (Given, 2008). This process is known as "operationalizing" (Heyck & Simon, 2005).

After looking at the literature of operationalization in the context of social science, we can define it as a process of measuring a phenomenon that is not directly measurable, through its existence as indicated by other phenomena. Accordingly the process involves clarifying an ambiguous concept/scenario and making it clearly distinguishable, measurable, and understandable through empirical observations.

Operationalization is often used in the social sciences in the scientific method and psychometrics, mainly related to complex situation, where unique threats to the validity of operationalization are believed to exist (Lukyanenko, Evermann, & Parsons, 2014).

The first step involved developing hypotheses related to the phenomena, which predicate the scenario based on the literature available on generational differences and the UAE's culture. The second step required measurement, which is central to quantitative research. The literature of the social sciences illustrate that measurement provides the connection between empirical observation and the mathematical expression of quantitative relationships. Quantitative data can be defined as any data that are in numerical form, such as statistics, percentages, etc. which yield their results through cross sectional analysis, and can be generalized to some larger population (Given, 2008). These quantitative data are often obtained through surveys, which can be defined as a predetermined set of questions given to a number of individuals; surveys are often used to assess thoughts, opinions, and feelings (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1985).

The literature available in the context of social science studies includes cross-sectional studies, a type of observational study that analyses data collected from a population, or a representative sample, at one specific time. Typically social science cross-sectional studies use regression for the purpose of sorting out the existence and magnitude of the causal effects of one or more independent variables on a dependent variable of interest at a given point in time.

The current study uses a comprehensive cross sectional survey developed after the operationalization of nine research model constructs, for the purpose of testing the

identified hypotheses with the aim of answering the research questions.

3.2.2 Measures /Instruments used to operationalize Research Model

The current study research model has nine constructs (five identified antecedents and three consequences in addition to work engagement), on which the survey in this study includes four sections, with nine measurement scales, in addition to the last section, which asks for each respondent's demographic and socioeconomic information (see Appendix 1). Below is a list of the measures used for each construct.

Work Engagement: as the major focus of the current study lies at the heart of the research model. A number of measures exist in the literature, but the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) is the most commonly used in studies on positive organizational behavior (POB). Furthermore, although the Gallup organization provides a set of 12 questions which is widely used by different organizations to survey various economic sectors, no information about its statistical status is provided. Moreover, as noted above the UWES has been examined in a number of cultures, including the Middle East. The UWES has been applied to university students (Schaufeli, Martinez, et al. 2002), as well as employees in cross-national studies at different occupational levels (Demerouti et al., 2001) and confirming its ability to be applied in the present study.

The short version of UWES (Schaufeli et al., 2006) was used in the first section. A sample item from the UWES scale is; "My job inspires me". The UWES, as noted above. includes items for assessing three work engagement dimensions, behavioral, emotional and cognitive, which correspond to the work engagement themes of Vigor (VI, 3 items;1,2&5), Dedication (DE, 3 Items;3,4&7) and Absorption

(AB. 3 items;6,8&9). In the original scale all items are scored on 7-point scales ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (always), but in the current study a scale of 1 to 5 was used to ensure consistency with all the other scales used in the survey, and for ease of use, making it more response friendly, following the recommendations of Podskoff, MacKenzi, Leen & Podskoff (2003).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): With its two elements, individually directed behavior (OCBI) and organizationally directed behavior (OCBO), OCB was measured by four items each, from Lee and Allen (2002). Participants were asked in the first section to respond on a 5-point Likert-type scale with (1) = never to (5) = always to items 10 to 13 for OCBI and 14 to17 for OCBO. A sample item from the OCBI scale was; "Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems". A sample item from the OCBO scale might be, "Take action to protect the organization from potential problems".

A number of scales had been identified earlier in the literature; for instance Williams and Anderson's (1991) study, which includes fourteen items to measure OCBI and OCBO (7 items each). Sample questions included "I am a person who helps others who have heavy workloads" and "I am a person who conserves and protects organizational property", where the scale reliability was 0.84` this has been cited more than 4,000 times. Bateman and Organ (1983), based on their definition of OCB, constructed a 30-item OCB scale that measured cooperation, altruism, compliance, punctuality, housecleaning, protecting company property, conscientiously following company rules, and dependability, on which participants were asked to rate their agreement or disagreement using a 7-point scale that ranged from negative 3 to positive 3. Furthermore, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990)

developed a 24 item questionnaire based on the five dimensions of OCB: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue/ Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement using a 7-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". However, given the length of the three surveys and their complexity, Lee and Allen's (2002) scale seemed to focus better on measuring OCB through a smaller number of items.

Affective Organizational Commitment: was measured by the six-item Affective Commitment scale used by Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli (2001) and published through the Journal of Applied Psychology; the paper has been cited nearly 1,500 times. The initial measures developed by Meyer, Allen, and Allen (1997) were also cited more than 1,500 time.

Three major scales were identified in the literature: the 15-item scale of Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), the 9-item scale of Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) and the Original Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Of these, the third was the most commonly cited (more than 10,000 times). The original scale had 8 items with 4 reversed questions, making it difficult to understand, given the complexity of the approach across all targeted group. Therefore the scale used by Rhoades et al. (2001) developed from the original commitment scales of Allen and Meyer (1990) and modified by Meyer et al. (1997) was selected for the present study, given the wide use of the initial scale in the literature, the length of the scale (only 6 items/questions), and the direct approach of the questions. It contains no reverse questions and a sample item is "I feel personally attached to my work organization".

Intention to leave: was measured using the three items from Colarelli (1984), a sample of which is " I frequently think of quitting my job".

The literature available for measuring this construct focuses on current and future intention to leave one's current employer, whereas the selection of the Colarelli (1984) three-item scale was based on the number of items, since most of the surveys available in the literature focus on a single item (e.g. Nagy (2002) and Kowske et al. (2010)) or two items such as Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979) However, to measure a single construct, .it is recommended from a statistical perspective to have a scale with at least 3 items designated.

Job Characteristics: Job Autonomy: was measured using an scale adopted from Beehr (1976), which has four items, a sample of which might be "I have enough freedom as to how I do my work".

Before the selection a number of measures were identified, for instance The Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ) Morgeson and Humphrey (2006), which was not chosen because it measures job autonomy from three different perspectives, work scheduling, decision-making and work methods, which is beyond the scope of a discussion of generational differences. The four item scale of Thompson and Prottas (2006) was also excluded because one of its questions was "I decide when I take breaks" which may not suit certain jobs that requires direct interaction with customers or those that require shift-work and exhibit certain working patterns.

Job Characteristics: Performance Feedback: was measured using the three items of Morgeson and Humphrey (2006), which has been cited more than 1,000 times. A sample item of this might be "The work activities themselves provide direct and clear information about the effectiveness (e.g., quality and quantity) of my job performance". Moreover, since the literature available on generational differences and work engagement emphasizes positive feedback, two items were used from Steelman,

Levy, and Snell (2004); which were: "My supervisor gives me useful feedback about my job performance" and "I frequently receive positive feedback from my supervisor" (items 24&25, secion2).

Work/life balance: was measured by Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL) a 7- items scale developed by Fisher-McAuley, Stanton, Jolton, and Gavin (2003); the Cronbach alfa for this scale was $\alpha=.87$, and a sample item might be, "My personal life suffers because of my job". For ease of understanding and interpretation, all the questions were asked in a positive manner, e.g. "My personal life doesn't suffer because of my work". Following the recommendations of Podskoff, MacKenzi, Leen & Podskoff (2003), who identifies that negatively worded items may be a source of method bias.

The above selection was made because most of the available scales in the literature observe and measure work/family conflict (e.g. Adams, King and King (1996) and Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996)), whereas the present study targets the employees of the Y Generation who may not yet have their own dependents and may feel that these questions are not applicable. Hence most of the above scales were rejected and the decision was made to use the scale of Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003) since its suits all employees of different generations, with different roles of life.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): Employers' CSR practices were measured through selected items from El Akremi, Gond, Swaen, De Roeck, and Igalens (2015). One item from Community-oriented CSR was selected: "Our Company provides financial support for humanitarian causes and charities". One item from a natural environment-oriented CSR was also chosen: "Our Company invests in clean and renewable technologies". Two items related to Employee-oriented CS were

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added: "Our Company implements policies that improve the well-being of its employees at work" and "Our Company supports its employees' work and life balance" (items 26-29, section2). Hence we have selected the heavily loaded item from every dimension of the scale. Furthermore, the selection of the items was in alignment with the available literature on generational differences and the governmental orientation towards supporting clean energy and different communities across the world. As the UAE has ranked as the first donor of humanitarian aid compared to the gross national income out in the year 2014 (WAM, 2015). Furthermore selected items involved employees' perception of the available tools, because researchers infer that the use of available arrangements depends on work-place cultural norms, which influence perceptions.

Before the selection of the above, the scale in Turker (2009) was explored, but it was not found suitable, given its length (42 items). Furthermore, its items were not classified under headings illustrating different aspects of CSR in the context of organizations and employees.

Rewards: Were measured a scale from Elizur (1984), who in the third section asked respondents to indicate the importance of 21 items that illustrated intrinsic and extrinsic incentives such as "To do complete and meaningful work". The scale, unlike other scales available in the literature, is also capable of representing generational preferences in many other elements related to CSR and Work/life Balance, such as contribution to society, pride in working and belonging to the organization and flexible hours of working. (In comparison to 16-item scale of Mowday et al. (1979), 9 items scale of Cherrington (1980) and 10 items scale of Saks (2006)).

However after analyzing the scale carefully at the results stage only four items

of Elizur (1984) were found to be measuring rewards, namely included, item 4: recognition for doing a good job, item 8: advancement (chances for promotion), item 13: Job status and item 18: pay (the amount of money you receive).

The last section of the survey aimed at identifying each respondent's demographic and socioeconomic profile. Participants were asked to identify their age/generational membership based on pre-identified years for each generation, their gender, marital status, highest qualification, specialization and emirates of residence and working. The respondents were also asked to identify their type of employment, sector, organizational rank, length of service with the current employer, and total years of work experience. Finally, they were asked to identify the method of receiving the survey, which was included as a control variable at the research analysis stage. The table below summarizes the measurement tools used to develop the survey:

Table 5: Measurement Tools Used to Develop the Survey

No	Variable	Measurement Tool	Section	Relevant Question
1	Work Engagement	UWES Short Version (W. B. Schaufeli et al., 2006)	Section 1 Items (1-9)	At my work, I feel I am bursting with energy. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. I am enthusiastic about my job. My job inspires me. When I get up in the

			morning. I feel like going to work.
			I feel happy when I am working intensely.
			I am proud of the work that I do.
			I am immersed in my work.
			I get carried away when I am working.
2	**Organizational Citizenship Behavior** **(OCBO/OCBI)**	Lee and Allen (2002)	Section 1 Items(10-13) OCBI Items(14-17) OCBO	Willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems. OCBI Adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off. OCBI Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems. OCBI Assist others with their duties. OCBI

				Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image. OCBO
				Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization. OCBO
				Take action to protect the organization from potential problems. OCBO
				Defend the organization when other employees criticize it. OCBO
3	**Organizational Commitment (Affective Commitment)**	Developed by Meyer et al. (1997) used by Rhoades et al. (2001)	Section 2 Items (1-6)	I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire.
				Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.
				I really feel that the problems faced by my organization are also my problems.

				I feel personally attached to my work organization.
				I am proud to tell others I work at my organization.
				I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization
4	**Intention To Leave**	Colarelli (1984)	Section2 Items (7 ,8 & 9)	I frequently think of quitting my job
				I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months.
				If I can please myself. I will not be working for this organization one year from now.
5	**Job Characteristics: Job Autonomy**	Adopted scale from Beehr (1976)	Section 2 Items (10-13)	My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own.
				I have a lot of say over what happens in my job.
				I have enough freedom as to how I do my work.

				I have enough authority to do my best.
6	**Work/life balance**	WIPL of Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003)	Section 2: Items (14-20)	My personal life doesn't suffer because of my work.
				My job doesn't make my personal life difficult.
				I don't neglect my personal needs because of my work.
				I don't have to put my personal life on hold for work.
				I don't miss personal activities because of my work.
				I don't struggle to juggle work and non-work.
				I am happy with the amount of time for non-work activities.
7	**Job Characteristics: Performance**	Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) and 2 items from	Section 2	The job itself provides feedback on my performance.

	Feedback	Steelman et al. (2004)	Items 21-25	The job itself provides me with information about my performance.
				The work activities themselves provide direct and clear information about the effectiveness (e.g., quality and quantity) of my job performance.
				My supervisor gives me useful feedback about my job performance.
				I frequently receive positive feedback from my supervisor.
8	**Cooperate Social Responsibility (CSR)**	4 items from El Akremi et al. (2015)	Section 2 Items (26-29)	Our company provides financial support for humanitarian causes and charities
				Our company invests in clean technologies and renewable.
				Our company implements policies that improve the

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| | | | | well-being of its employees at work.

Our company supports its employees' work and life balance (e.g., flextime, part time work, flexible working arrangements). |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | Rewards | 4 items of Elizur (1984) | Section3

Items (4,8,13 & 18) | Item 4: recognition for doing a good job

Item 8: advancement (chances for promotion)

Item 13: Job status and

Item 18: pay (the amount of money received). |

Participants were asked to respond to the three section by using a 5-point Likert-type scale. In the first section they have been asked to express their feeling based on their work related behavior on 5 point scale with anchors (1) = never to (5) = always. In the second section they had to response in alignment with their agreement level based on the given 5 points scale, with anchors (1) = strongly disagree to (5) = strongly agree, to indicate how far they agreed with a given statement. For the reward section (third section), participants were asked to identify the importance of the

identified rewards tools also on a 5-point Likert-type scale with anchors (1) =not at all important to (5) = very important. In the last section each question had an identified number of options for the respondents.

For the purpose of ensuring the quality of translation, the survey was first translated from English to Arabic (by a translator), and then, after reviewing the translation and adopting the recommended changes, the survey was again translated to English (by another translator), following the approach of Brislin (1980a, 1980b). Moreover, because we had few concerns regarding to the translation, especially when it comes to the exact Arabic term to be used for words like for instance work engagement, a close session between the two translators, the researcher and an Arabic language expert was conducted, in order take careful decisions regarding both; the Arabic terms be used and Arabic version of the survey (including the guidelines). Additionally, in the survey (hard and soft copies send via the SurveyMonkey.com link), both languages; Arabic and English were symmetrical, allowing the respondents to look at the items in both languages at the same time, and hence enabling for further understanding of the survey items (see Appendix 1).

3.2.3 Control Variables

Research work, such as the current research, that aims to measure cause and effect relationships and hence is designed to explore changes of one item that may cause something else to vary predictably across the related item, defines those changing items as variables. A variable is "any factor, trait or condition that can exist in differing amounts or types" (Miah, 2016). Research models usually have three kinds of variable: independent, dependent, and controlled. An independent variable is one that is changed by the researchers in order to observe what happens to the dependent

variable with the aim of capturing how it responds to the change made to the independent variable (Miah, 2016).

In the current research, rewards, the job characteristics of feedback and job autonomy, work/life balance and corporate social responsibility are independent variables, whereas work engagement in the first equation acts as a dependent variable. However in the second equation with the aim of evaluating the consequences of work engagement in the context of the UAE's culture, work engagement is then defined as an independent variable, while organizational citizenship behavior, affective organizational commitment and intention to leave act as dependent variables. In both equations generational membership acts as a moderator, while work engagement acts as a mediator.

A controlled variable in an experiment or study is a constant variable used to assess the relationship between two other variables (Business Dictionary, 2015). Because control variables do not change, they allow the relationships between the other variables to be tested in order to be better understood. This relationship is not, however, of primary concern in the experimental sciences (Science Buddies – Science Fair Projects).

Gender and age are commonly used as controlled variables in social science research, mainly because of Eagly (1987); Eagly and Kite (1987) gender role socialization theory, which argues that the roles and norms of acceptable behavior are different for men and for women. Men usually portray themselves as self-reliant and independent, but women according to the theory represent themselves as interpersonally connected and emotionally expressive. Furthermore, both genders report different levels of workplace victimization, consistent with their prescribed

roles, where women label themselves as victims, whereas the notion of victimhood clashes with men's perceptions of being self-reliant and independent (Nixon, 2009).

In the current research gender, employment sector, industry, marital status, highest qualification, the emirates of working and of living, organizational rank, experience with current employer and total experience and the method of receiving the survey are used as controlled variables. This use aims to highlight the relationship between work engagement and the identified antecedents and consequences in context. Information about the way that the survey was received was a controlling variable for the current research, aimed to examining the impact of the social media as a transmission tool for the data collected, a field the is relatively new and still evolving, especially in the area of social science (see Felt (2016)).

3.3 Research Procedures

In that the study targets working UAE nationals of three generations; Baby Boomers and the X and Y Generations in different economic sectors, the targeted respondents were those who were working for a range of employers in the UAE labor market from a variety of economic sectors.

The type of sampling used in the current study was stratified random sampling, a method of sampling that involves dividing a population into smaller groups known as strata, which are formed to reflect members' shared attributes or characteristics (in current study the attribute was generational membership/year of birth). A random sample from each stratum is chosen with a membership proportional to the size of the stratum compared to the population (in the current study it was in alignment with the three generations in the estimated demographic participation in 2015 (see Table 2).

Before the start of the main field research a pilot study was conducted. A pilot study means "a small scale preliminary study conducted in order to evaluate feasibility, time, cost, adverse events, and effect size (statistical variability). (Hulley, Cummings, Browner, Grady, & Newman, 2013)". Pilot studies attempt to improve the study design before the performance of a full-scale research project (Hulley et al., 2013).

In the pilot study phase, the survey was sent (soft copy, as an attached pdf file that allows selection) to fourteen individuals from all three generations, and various economic sectors, representing a variety of experiences and academic qualifications, making the group an appropriate sample to test the study instrument/survey.

After thanking them for participating, the survey introduced the respondents to the purpose and the topic of the survey, and they were asked the following questions:

- How long did you take to fill the survey (in minutes)?

- Which language did you use to fill the survey (English /Arabic)?

- Did you face any difficulties or lack of clarity in any of the four sections?

- Do you have any comments and recommendations about any aspect of the survey?

After almost a week, 10 completed surveys had been received, representing a response rate of almost 70%, with an average time of 15 minutes. No major concern or lack of clarity was reported, but 80% of the participants decided to respond in Arabic, which was surprising, perhaps related to the type of the survey and the fact the Arabic language remain the mother language despite the fact that English is also very common across the new generation.

After assessing the survey through the pilot study, the survey was made to be

accessed as a hard copy or and a soft copy through a web link (via SurveyMoneky.com); thus it could be transmitted along various social media channels. The purpose of the research and a promise of confidentiality were clarified in the cover letter, with a clear undertaking that responses would be addressed at an aggregate and not an individual level; direct ways of contacting the researcher were added, in case further information was needed. There followed four sections of questions, each starting with clear instructions about the way to approach them in both Arabic and English.

3.4 Data Sources

The survey had to be approved by the UAE University Ethical Committee. As a result of the current literature on the social sciences, the survey was then distributed as follows. A number of research channels were identified, together with direct contact through employers; social media channels (WhatsApp, Twitter, Instagram and Facebook) and career fairs, through which targeted groups could respond voluntarily to questionnaires. This was because, as Dillman, Smyth, and Melani (2011) observed, people are more prone to cooperate if there is a legitimate authority associated with the request (i.e. that it is sponsored), or that the opportunities to participate in a survey are limited (scarce), and if the request comes from a person or entity who is liked or trusted, perhaps an employer or the HR team in the current study.

Allred and Ross-Davis (2011) in their comparison between the Drop-off/Pick-Up (DOPU), the Tailored Design Method (TDM) and Dillman et al.'s method (2011) indicate that their DOPU had a significantly higher response rate of 20.6% overall than the TDM. The researchers believed that the DOPU method had several advantages over mail survey methods. It allows for personal contact (defined as face-to-face

contact and verbal communication) between the respondent and a researcher/member of a research team. Similarly Olsen et al. (1998) believe that the DOPU technique has resulted in increasing response rates, as high as 93%, in natural resource-related studies. Mangione, Hingson, and Barrett (1982), and Riley and Kiger (2002), however, believe that although DOPU is associated with favorable response rates, it can be difficult to determine whether the eligible individuals actually completed the questionnaire. Additionally DOPU is associated with increased costs from delivering questionnaires personally rather than using other tools such as mailing them to the individuals concerned.

The use by young Emiratis of social media channels with different media tools, according to the latest figures, is on average 9.9 hours per day, which is often longer than they spend asleep (Hashem & Smith, 2010). The global trend of using social media found by the independent Pew Research Center, in which nearly two-thirds of American adults (65%) use social networking sites, up from 7% in 2005, affects all aspects of everyday life including communication patterns around the globe, as well as the way that people get and share information about various topics, promoting the use of social media in context of different research, including social science.

In January 2016 the survey link in the present research was shared (using SurveyMonkey.com), in various social media, including Twitter, Facebook, WhatsApp and Instagram. Furthermore, ten potential employers were contacted from different economic sectors of the UAE. The selection of these organizations was based on the possibility of getting access to their UAE national employees, the number of such employees, and the maintenance of effective representation of both, the employer types (federal/ local government, semi government and private) and major economic

sectors. A formal request indicating the purpose and the confidentiality of the research, along with a short brief about it was sent to the HR managers of the contacted organizations. Similarly, career centers in the UAE University, Higher Colleges of Technology and Zayed University, were contacted taking the same approach. Both the employers and the academic institutes were assured that no identification of the employer/organization would be provided, only his/its economic sector.

Of the contacted organizations, three agreed to formally send the link to the UAE nationals concerned (Al Futtaim "Automotive Group", Al Hilal Bank, Dubai and Islamic Bank).The Sharjah Electricity and Water Authority (SEWA) and the Dubai Police agreed to participate through the drop and pick up method (DOPU).

UAE national employees in Al Futtaim, Al Hilal Bank and the Dubai Islamic Bank (DIB) had received an email about their voluntary participation along with the link from their HR department. The participating organizations in some cases asked for a contract to be signed before any direct communication with their staff. The Dubai Police received a number of hard copies of the survey which were dropped at its HR departments in order to be distributed to all UAE nationals in its employ and collected after seven days. In SEWA, personal interaction with the researcher was made part of the training program in a number of workshops. The objective of the current research was highlighted, indicating the support the nationals could offer to the growing field of social research in the UAE. The same approach was taken with the participating employers in the National Career Fair Exhibition (Expo Center Sharjah, 10-12 February 2016), who received hard copies of the survey along with a brief summary; completed surveys were then collected on the second day (the DOPU approach).

None of the contacted career centers in the identified colleges and universities

responded to the email, although it was followed by two telephonic reminders to the career officer concerned.

The combination of the responding organizations illustrated a healthy combination that seemed to be able to answer the research questions through the identified constructs and measures. It included two local government entities (the Dubai Police and SEWA), a local bank (Dubai Semi Private Islamic Bank), a private bank based in Abu Dhabi (Al Hilal bank) and Al Futtaim private group (based in Dubai and spread throughout the region), in addition to those at the National Career Fair Exhibition, other participating employers of different economic sectors and those who responded electronically through various media channels.

From 1st January to mid-March 2016, the total number of electronic responses reached 605, of which 379 surveys were completed. 146 hard copies were also received, of which 123 were fully completed, bringing the total completed surveys to 502 (sample size), with a response rate among the hard copies at 70%. Of these 3% (17 responses) were Baby Boomers (born before 1965), 32% were X Generation (163 responses, born between 1965 and 1979) and the majority, as planned and expected (64%) were part of Generation Y (322 responses by people born between 1980 and 1997). In alignment with their demographic contribution in the UAE population; 7%, 26% and 45% respectively (See Table 2). The small number of Baby Boomers in the sample may be justified by the fact that most Baby Boomers, as noted above, are not academic qualification holders, given the early stage of regulated education in the UAE when they were young. Moreover those who had obtained their academic qualifications abroad and had worked in different organizations might have already retired. Additionally given the nature of the country and its geographical location as a

bridge between the East and West, many of the Baby Boomers in the UAE would be commercial entrepreneurs.

Finally, since there is understandably and naturally some uncertainty regarding the quality of responses in social media, our analysis we have examined it across the collected data (502 surveys). Our analysis of work engagement in comparison to method of receiving has indicated that there is not significant differences (Table 42, P=0.899).

3.5 Sample Characteristics

The current study involved 310 female working UAE nationals (approximately 62%), and 192 males, in alignment with the announcement of H.H. Shaikh Mohamed on 28th August 2016 (the Emirati Women's Day), that two thirds of UAE government employees were female. In the sample, 38% were single, 55% were married and only 7% were either divorced or widowed.
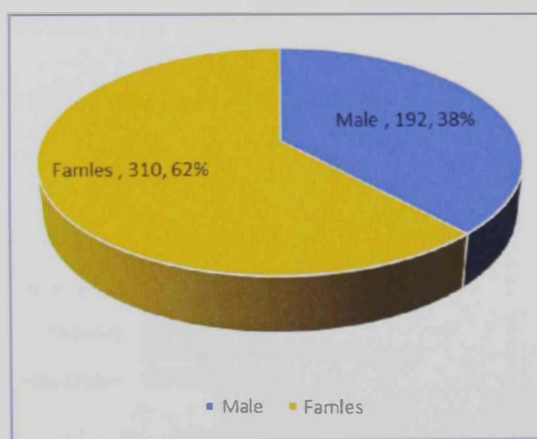
Figure 2: Research Sample by Gender

Around 40% held a bachelor's degree holders, while almost 20% of them had obtained a post graduate degree (master's degree or doctorate) and around 40% were high school certificate and diploma holders. In terms of their specialization, approximately 35% of the respondents were business and management graduates. Law, Islamic studies and media graphic designers each contributed around 6% of the specialisms, while engineers represented around 10%.

Figure 3: Highest Qualification obtained by Respondents

Around 45% of the respondents were working in Dubai, 24% in Abu Dhabi and 20% in Sharjah. But around 33% were residents of Dubai, 26% were residents of Sharjah and 23% residents of the capital (Abu Dhabi).
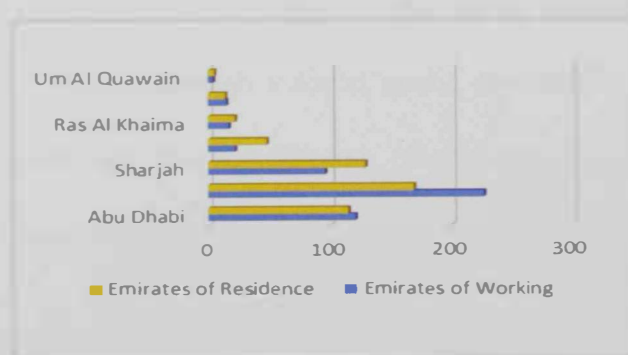
Figure 4: Emirates of Working/Residence

Looking at the employer type and working sector, most of the respondents were working for the local government (approximately 35%), while around 30% of the sample were employed by semi-government organizations. The private sector employed 22% of the respondents and only around 12% were working for the UAE federal government. From the business sector, Banking and Finance employed most – 33% of the respondents worked there, with the services sector group coming second. The sample had a good mix of different ranks in the organizations: around 40% of the respondents were managers, 30% were supervisors and 20% were at entry level.
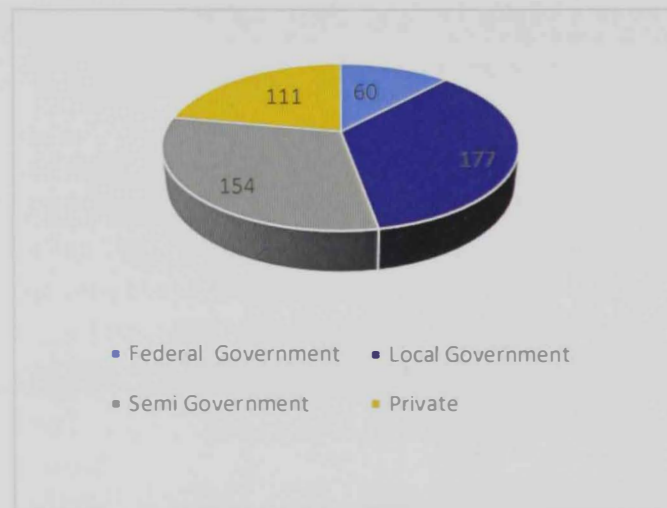
Figure 5: Employer Type

Almost 45% of the respondents received the survey through their employer, while around 23% received it through a social media channel (WhatsApp, Twitter, Facebook and Instagram) and the rest through other channels such as family and friends. The above summarizes the below table, which lists sample characteristics in details
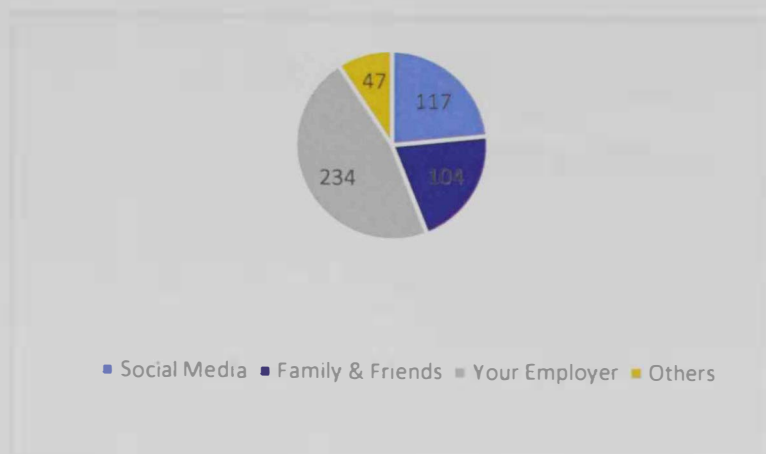
Figure 6: How did you receive the Survey?

Table 6: Sample Characteristics

Sample Details			
Item	**Description**	**Frequency**	**%**
	Male	192	38%
Gender	Females	310	62%
	Before 1965 (Baby Boomers)	17	3%
Year of Birth	Between 1965-1979 (Gen X)	163	32%
	From 1980-1997 (Gen Y)	322	64%
	Single	192	38%
Marital Status	Married	275	55%
	Others	35	7%
	High School	99	20%
Highest Qualification	Diploma &HD	89	18%
	BSC	220	44%
	MSC or PHD	94	19%
	Medical	18	4%
	Engineering	50	10%
	Graphic & Media	31	6%
Specialization	Social Studies	18	4%
	Law / Islamic studies	32	6%
	Business and Management	177	35%
	Others	176	35%
	Abu Dhabi	121	24%
	Dubai	227	45%
	Sharjah	96	19%
	Ajman	22	4%

Emirates of Working	RAK	17	3%
	Fujairah	15	3%
	UAQ	4	1%
Emirates of Residence	Abu Dhabi	115	23%
	Dubai	169	34%
	Sharjah	129	26%
	Ajman	48	10%
	RAK	22	4%
	Fujairah	14	3%
	UAQ	5	1%
Employer Type	Federal Government	60	12%
	Local Government	177	35%
	Semi Government	154	31%
	Private	111	22%
Employment Industry	Oil & Gas	21	4%
	Banking & Finance	166	33%
	Telecom	19	4%
	Services	96	19%
	Construction	11	2%
	Manufacturing	8	2%
	Trade	22	4%
	Others (e.g. Health, tourism, Media, Aviation ... etc.)	159	32%
Experience (Current Employer)	Less than 3 hours	153	31%
	4-6 years	120	24%
	7-10 Years	86	17%
	More than 10 years	143	29%
Total Years of Experience	Less than 3 years	93	19%
	4-9 Years	155	31%
	10-15 Years	144	29%
	More than 15 Years	110	21.9&
Organizational Rank	Entry Level	104	21%
	Supervisory Level	158	32%
	Managerial Level	200	40%
	Top Management	40	8%
	Social Media	117	23%
	Family & Friends	104	21%
	Your Employer	234	47%

How did you receive the survey?	Others	47	9%

3.6 Data Analysis Procedures

In order to examine the research hypotheses and answer the research questions, the responses (data) were first examined and arranged and then subjected to confirmatory factor analysis, followed by structural regression (using an SR model) and multiple regression analysis, which are described in detail in the next chapter.

3.7 Conclusion

After reviewing the literature in the context of the generational differences and work engagement and in alignment with the UAE culture and labor market challenges, a number of antecedents and consequences to work engagement were identified. The second stage involved identifying suitable measures for the research model constructs and translating them. On completion of the survey, a number of channels were approached, bringing the total participants to more than 500 responses in almost 60 days. The current sample, bearing in mind the identified characteristics is used in the next stage to examine the identified hypotheses with the aim of answering the research questions.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the data analyses and results obtained from these analyses. It aims to assess the readiness of data for statistical examination in several steps and then to use statistical tools to examine the research hypotheses with the aim of answering the research questions.

Preliminary Data Analyses were conducted to clean the data. This involved an analysis of missing values, detection of outliers and data normality assessment, along with common method bias (CMB) analysis. In the next step, structure equation models (SEM) analysis were applied, which included confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the constructs used in this study along with the calculation of convergent and discriminant validities, structural regression models (SR models) and multiple regression, which led to direct hypotheses testing. The moderation hypotheses were tested through the process macro of Preacher and Hayes (2013) in SPSS. Finally the demographic and socio economic characteristics of work engagement were examined, through post hoc analysis.

4.2 Preliminary Data Analyses

The preliminary data analyses in statistics use techniques to ensure that data are correct and appropriate for analysis (Wallace, 2006). In the present study, the preliminary data analysis involved analysis of missing values, aberrant values, normality, multicollinearity and common method bias (CMB), to prepare the data for further analysis in the next stage.

4.2.1 Missing Values Analysis

Enders (2010) indicates that missing values in the data sets used in the social, behavioral and medical sciences are quite common. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006), and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) believe that the quality of statistical analyses can be seriously affected by the impact of a large quantity of missing values, and accordingly can make the result of analyses unreliable and biased. Moreover, some statistical analyses cannot be performed when values are missing.

Taking the above into consideration, a careful analysis of missing values was conducted. The results revealed no cases of missing data, because the surveys with completed data were the only ones to be included (in both the hard copy and online responses received), since these yielded enough respondents. Our data set comprised 502 respondents, which supplied material for the following analyses.

4.2.2 Aberrant Values

Data input errors are referred to as aberrant values or impermissible values, which can be identified by analysing the maximum and minimum values of each variable. As most of the items in the present study were measured using a Likert scale from 1 to 5, any value below 1 or greater than 5 (outside this range) was considered to be an aberrant value, and given proper scrutiny and treatment. Detailed scrutiny detected no aberrant values in the data of the present study.

4.2.3 Normality of Data

Establishing normality is generally an important early step in almost every multivariate analysis (it refers to any statistical technique used to analyse data that arises from more than one variable). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), and Hair, Black,

Babin, and Anderson (2010) identify that the normality of continuous variables can be assessed by either statistical or graphical methods.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk's tests of normality in statistical assessment were used to assess the normality of the data, with further focus on the values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. This was because values of the Shapiro-Wilk test are consulted when data number less than 50, unlike the present study. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (see Table 7) showed that our data significantly differed from the normal distribution (low significance value of the test was below .05).

Table 7: Normality of Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
WE	.103	502	.000
OCB	.108	502	.000
OC	.108	502	.000
ITL	.101	502	.000
JA	.095	502	.000
WLB	.067	502	.000
PF	.091	502	.000
CSR	.075	502	.000
Rewards	.200	502	.000

However, the values of the skewness for all the variables except rewards were in the range of +1.5 to -1.5 (see Table 9). Skewness is a measure of symmetry, or more precisely, the lack of symmetry, where a distribution of data set is called symmetric if it looks the same to the left and right of the center point (Standards, Technology, Croarkin, Tobias, & Zey, 2001). Kurtosis can thus be used to measure whether the

obtained data are heavy-tailed or light-tailed relative to a normal distribution. That is, data sets with high kurtosis tend to have heavy tails, or outliers, whereas data sets with low kurtosis tend to have light tails, or a lack of outliers (Standards et al., 2001). Hair et al. (2010) identify that values of skewness and kurtosis between -1.5 and +1.5 are considered quasi normal. Table (8) below illustrates that all the variables in the present study have values between this range except one (rewards).

Table 8: Skewness & Kurtosis Values

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
WE	502	-.918	.109	1.215	.218
OCB	502	-.838	.109	.633	.218
OC	502	-.669	.109	-.249	.218
ITL	502	.207	.109	-1.095	.218
JA	502	-.325	.109	-.547	.218
WLB	502	-.292	.109	-.505	.218
PF	502	-.543	.109	-.031	.218
CSR	502	-.115	.109	-.568	.218
Rewards	502	-1.941	.109	3.999	.218

Since our data significantly differed from the normal distribution, detecting multivariate outliers' analysis was conducted using the Mahalanobis distance measuring method. This measure considers the position of each observation compared with the centre of all other observations in a set of variables. With the aim of examining if any multivariate outliers existed in our data, the Mahalanobis distances of all the cases/observations on all the items of the scales were calculated, and the cases with a chi-square probability of Mahalanobis distance, $p < 0.001$ were considered multivariate outliers.

Table 9: Multivariate Outliners

Sr. No.	Case ID	Mahalanobis Distance	Probability
1	437	63.39879	.0000
2	51	46.38143	.0000
3	533	42.97721	.0000
4	243	35.82092	.0000
5	55	34.09840	.0001
6	394	30.57063	.0004
7	112	30.50733	.0004
8	62	28.78150	.0007
9	56	28.39564	.0008
10	135	28.39564	.0008

Table (9) above suggests that there are 10 cases which had the probability of a Mahalanobis distance less than .001. In order to check whether it was suitable to remove these outliers from our data set or not, we excluded these cases from our data set and reassessed the normality through a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and also analysed the values of skewness and kurtosis. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed that there was no improvement in the normality of the data after removing the outliers $(p < .05)$. Similarly, an analysis of skewness and kurtosis values after removing the outliers was made and the values of skewness and kurtosis were found to be outside the range of +1.5 and -1.5. This showed that no significant improvement in the normality of the data was achieved by excluding the outliers. This made us decide not to remove these 10 cases from our data set but to conduct the remaining analysis with 502 cases.

Finally, the normality of the data in relation to the context of sample size in the social sciences has further implications. For instance, Pallant (2001) indicates that perfect distribution (a skewness and kurtosis value of 0) is uncommon in the social sciences. Similarly, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) believe that in reasonably large samples, skewness will not 'make a substantive difference in the analysis. Sometimes

kurtosis can result in an underestimate of the variance. but this risk is also reduced with a large sample (above 200 cases).

4.2.4 Multicollinearity

Collinearity in statistics refers to the phenomenon where two variables almost perfectly indicate linear combinations of each other. This effect is also called multicollinearity. when more than two variables are involved. and these two terms are also often used interchangeably.

Multicollinearity should be avoided in data because it escalates the regression model; where estimates are disturbed. there is a chance of inflating the standard errors of the coefficients. There are two important statistical tools for examining multicollinearity. Tolerance and The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). which should be checked for each predictor. The variance percentage of the independent variable that is not shared by the other predictors is termed the "Tolerance". but small coefficients of tolerance highlight that it is not a useful predictor and is rather redundant (with a value less than .10). Similarly. the variance inflation factor (VIF) should not be greater than 10. because it may reflect the issue of collinearity. In our case (see Table 4.14) the minimum value of Tolerance is .438 and maximum value of the VIF is 2.283. which shows that multicollinearity is not a major concern in our data set.

Table 10: Collinearity Statistics

	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
JA	.461	2.167
WLB	.689	1.451
PF	.438	2.283

CSR	.542	1.844
Rewards	.951	1.052

4.2.5 Common Method Bias (CMB)

Common Method Bias (CMB) is related to the amount of variance caused by the method of measurement in a study rather than the measures themselves (Podskoff, MacKenzi, Leen & Podskoff, 2003) term describes a scenario where measurement error is compounded by the sociability of respondents who want to provide positive answers (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). Podskoff et.al.,(2003) recommend researchers to analyze the effect of CMB in their data set if they have used the same questionnaire for measuring the dependent and independent variables of the study, and if all the data were collected on the same occasion (cross-sectional research design) since this could threaten the statistical inferences between the variables and thus the validity of the conclusions (Podskoff et.al., 2003).

To reduce the CMB effect in the present study and the data set obtained, the questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter which fully explained the purpose and objectives of the study. Additionally, the study incorporated the procedural remedy of "Anonymity" proposed by Podskoff et al. (2003), where no information is requested through which respondents could be traced via their response. Podskoff et al. (2003) maintain that the anonymity of respondents in research can reduce the common method bias. Moreover, to trace any effects of CMB in our data set, we performed two statistical procedures recommended by Podskoff et al. (2003): Harman's Single factor and the common latent factor.

4.2.5.1 Harman's Single Factor

Harman's Single factor assessment proceeds by including all the items from all the constructs to study factor analysis in order to determine whether most of the variance can be accounted for by one general factor (Podskoff et al.,2003).

The available procedure does not statistically control for common method variance, because there are no specific guidelines on how much variance in the first factor should be extracted before it is considered a general factor. The likelihood of obtaining more than one factor increases as the number of examined variables increases, thus making the procedure less conservative as the number of variables increases.

Harman's single factor test calculates that if there is a substantial amount of CMB present in the data then either a single factor will emerge in the course of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) or one general factor will account for most of the covariance among the variables (Podskoff et al.,2003).

For the purpose of examining the above, exploratory factor analysis (by principal component analysis, a covariance matrix, and varimax rotation) using SPSS 21 was conducted. The results of EFA revealed nine distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, instead of a single factor (Table 11). The nine factors explain a total of 65.6 % of variance whereas the first factor did not account for most of the variance (accounting for only 30 % of it). Therefore we can confirm that the results of Harman's single factor test suggested that CMB is not a major concern in this study.

Table 11: Harman's Single Factor Test

Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	20.487	30.248	30.248
2	6.215	9.176	39.424
3	5.450	8.047	47.471
4	3.030	4.474	51.945
5	2.630	3.883	55.828
6	1.848	2.729	58.557
7	1.734	2.560	61.117
8	1.630	2.406	63.524
9	1.432	2.115	65.639

4.2.5.2 Common Latent Factor

After Harman's single factor test, we conducted common latent factor analysis in CFA using AMOS 2 in order to test the percentage of variance explained by a common latent factor. We used our CFA model, which contained all the constructs and introduced a common latent factor (CFA is further explained in the next step). Accordingly this assessment was conducted after CFA, with the purpose of examining data readiness. We connected all the observed variables in the model with the common latent factor and constrained the paths to be equal. The results of AMOS demonstrated that this common latent factor explained only 14% of the shared variance in all the observed variables. Hence, the common latent factor analysis also confirmed that common method bias is not a major concern in the data used for the present study.

At the end of the above assessments, the 502 responses which created the research data were confirmed for use in further statistical assessment

4.3 Structure Equation Models (SEM)

Structural equation modeling (SEM) refers to "a diverse set of mathematical

models, computer algorithms, and statistical methods that fit networks of constructs to data" (Kaplan, 2008, pp. 77-89). SEM is often used to assess unobservable (latent) constructs: it assigns/relates relationships between latent variables (Kline, 2015). These links between the constructs of a structural equation model may be estimated with independent regression equations or through more involved approaches such as those employed in LISREL (linear structural relations, Kline (2015)).

SEM includes various tools such as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), path analysis, partial least squares path analysis, LISREL and latent growth modeling. LISREL is a proprietary statistical software package used in structural equation modeling (SEM) and was developed in the 1970s by Karl Jöreskog.

While interpreting the results of structural equation modeling, researchers have reported various fit indices, such as the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted GFI, Chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMESA), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), etc. (Table 12 lists LISREL fit statistics). Following the recommendations of Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, and King (2006), the present study reports the lists below the following indices: CMIN/df, CFI, TLI, and RMSEA

Table 12: LISREL Fit Statistics

Statistics	Value
RMSEA	0.029 (test of close fit)
Root mean square residual	0.048
Goodness of fit Index (GFI)	0.93
Adjusted GFI	0.93
Adjusted GFI	0.92
Parsimony GFI	0.80
Non-normed fit index	0.97
Parsimony normed fit index	0.84
Comparative Fit Index	0.97
Relative Fit Index	0.91

Through using SEM, researchers can specify confirmatory factor analysis models, regression models, and complex path models (Hox & Bechger, 1998). Structural equation modeling thereby provides a general and convenient framework for statistical analysis, which includes several traditional multivariate procedures (Hox & Bechger, 1998), such as factor analysis, regression analysis, discriminant analysis, and canonical correlation, as special cases (Hox & Bechger, 1998), and is often visualized by a graphic path diagram.

4.3.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After the preliminary data cleaning phase, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted using structural equation modelling in Amos 21. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a "statistical technique used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables" (Suhr, 2006). CFA allows the researcher to test the hypotheses that reflect the relationship between the observed variables and their underlying latent constructs. The researcher uses knowledge of the theory, empirical research, or both, to hypothesize the relationship pattern a priori and then tests the hypothesis statistically (Suhr, 2006). Similarly, Lawley and Maxwell (1973) and Knott and Bartholomew (1999) define CFA as a multivariate statistical technique used to assess the researcher's theory, which suggests the number of latent, or unobserved factors and their relation to the observed variables, or indicators.

Observing the nature of CFA use in the social sciences, we find that it is popular in cases where the researcher may not have access to direct measurements of the variables of interest, or in the absence of accurate measurements of the main variable of interest. Therefore, researchers operate with several proxy variables that share correlation with the latent variable; since these may contain measurement error,

as CFA is used to analyze problems of this kind.

The use of CFA rather than EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis) in the present context is mainly due to the fact that in EFA the number of factors and their relation to the observed variables is unknown in advance (Kolenikov, 2009). Moreover, as in present study, CFA requires a model of the structure to be specified in advance, which postulates the number of factors, along with the relations between these factors and observed variables (Kolenikov, 2009), where EFA can be defined as a "variable reduction technique which identifies the number of latent constructs and the underlying factor structure of a set of variables" (Suhr, 2006). EFA traditionally has been used to explore the possible underlying factor structure of a set of measured variables, without imposing any preconceived structure on the outcome (Child, 1990). Accordingly the main differences between CFA and EFA is that in EFA the number of factors and their relation to the observed variables are not known in advance (Kolenikov, 2009).

Recent articles appearing in the major organizational research journals (Brannick (1995); Stone-Romero, Weaver, and Glenar (1995)) reflect the wide use of CFA, which is steadily increasing, while the use of EFA is declining. Kelloway (1995) believes that EFA is more appropriate than CFA in the early stages of scale development, because CFA does not show how well the items load on the non-hypothesized factors.

Hurley et al. (1997) observed the continuous interest in the topic and assembled a panel of five experts in the 1996 Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) annual meeting in San Diego, California, to discuss the major features of each tool (CFA and EFA). Michael Brannick from the University of South

Florida recommended using EFA for scale development and evaluation, but recommended CFA in cases where specific hypotheses are available to be tested. EFA helps not only in scale development but also can define the factor internal consistency while minimizing overlap with other scales. Brannick summarized the use of both EFA and CFA by explaining that confirmatory techniques make it possible to test hypotheses about population factor structure, based on sample data. Whereas exploratory techniques attempt to describe, summarize or reduce data to make them more easily understood.

Hurley et al. (1997) in summarizing the major outputs of the panel indicate that each model is appropriate in different situations; experts in the field indicate that EFA may be appropriate for scale development, while CFA would be recommended where measurement models have a well-developed underlying theory for the hypothesized patterns of loadings. Hurley et al. (1997) further recommends that the use of exploratory or confirmatory factors in publications for scholarly journals should be supported by the ability of the researcher to defend the decision to use of EFA or CFA.

As all the previously identified measures are well established in the literature and have shown good reliability and discriminant validity in previous studies. The present research has used CFA as a method of testing hypotheses. CFA has been conducted in the present study in different phases: first, we analyzed the factor structure of the independent variables. This was followed by CFA performance for the outcomes and the mediator variables. Finally the reliabilities and the convergent and discriminant validities of the constructs were evaluated.

Validity in the context of CFA refers to the extent to which a scale captures the dimensions/components which it was supposed to measure (Harrington, 2009),

whereas reliability refers to the internal consistency of a measurement instrument. The validity of a measurement scale can be assessed by two methods, looking at discriminant and convergent validities (Koeske, 1994). Convergent validity measures the extent to which the items of a measurement scale have inter-item correlation and are measuring a similar concept. It also can be defined as the degree to which two measures of constructs that are theoretically related are related in fact. Discriminant validity evaluates the extent to which two constructs are distinct from each other (i.e., low inter-factor correlation). Campbell and Fiske (1959) developed the Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix to assess the construct validity of a set of measures in a study, stressing the need to use both discriminant and convergent validation techniques when making new assessments.

A list of the fit indices along with their threshold values is provided in the table below (Table 13); these are based on the recommendations of Byrne (2013). Further we highlight the procedure used in this study for analyzing the reliabilities and the convergent and discriminant validities of the constructs, as outlined by Hair (2010).

Table 13: Fit Indices & Their Threshold Values

Purpose	Name of Index	Threshold Value
Fit indices of CFA	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	> .95 great; > .90 good
	Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	> .95 great; > .90 good
	Normed-Chi square (CMIN/df)	< 2 great; < 3 good
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	< .05 great < .08 good
Reliability	Composite Reliability (CR)	> .90 great, > .80 good, > .70 fair
Convergent Validity	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	AVE > .50 & CR > .50
Discriminant validity	Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV) Average Shared Squared Variance (ASV)	MSV < AVE ASV < AVE

4.3.1.1 CFA for Independent Variables

The first CFA model (Model 1) was performed for confirming the measurement model of five predictor variables including job autonomy, performance feedback, work/life balance, CSR and rewards. The measures of job autonomy, rewards and CSR had four indicators each, whereas performance feedback had five indicators, and work/life balance had seven indicators. The results of initial CFA (model 1) showed poor fit to data (see Table 14). While we were checking for factor loadings of all the items, we observed that all the items had significant loadings on their relevant constructs. Then we looked at the value of the loadings which complied with the recommendations of Kline (2011), who says that the items with factor loading below the minimum threshold of .5 may be removed from the CFA model. However, all the values were within the threshold value (see Table 15). Further, a review of modification indices revealed that some error terms had high shared covariance with other error terms of the items of the same construct, upon which covariances were drawn between these error terms. In order to improve the model, the values above 10 were correlated, and then CFA model 2 (Table 14) was applied, which demonstrated a relatively good fit to data.

Table 14: Fit Indices of the Models of Independent Variables

Model	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	CMIN/df
Model 1: Five factor model (JA, PF, Rewards, CSR, WLB)	.076	.88	.89	3.91
Model 2: Five factor model (JA, PF, Rewards, CSR, WLB) with co-variances in error terms	.057	.94	.95	2.64

Table 15: Factor Loading of Independent Variables

Name of Indicator	Construct	Estimate
JA4	JA	.818

JA3	JA	.886
JA2	JA	.854
JA1	JA	.759
PF5	PF	.605
PF4	PF	.697
PF3	PF	.849
PF2	PF	.886
PF1	PF	.759
CSR4	CSR	.685
CSR3	CSR	.862
CSR2	CSR	.723
CSR1	CSR	.583
WLB7	WLB	.697
WLB6	WLB	.722
WLB5	WLB	.821
WLB4	WLB	.782
WLB3	WLB	.833
WLB2	WLB	.738
WLB1	WLB	.705
Reward4	Reward	.628
Reward3	Reward	.582
Reward2	Reward	.777
Reward1	Reward	.685

Figure (7) below shows the CFA model 2 of independent variables. All the indicators, error terms and correlations between the different constructs are exhibited in this figure. None of the constructs have very high correlations between them, a good sign of the discriminant validity which is assessed in the next section.
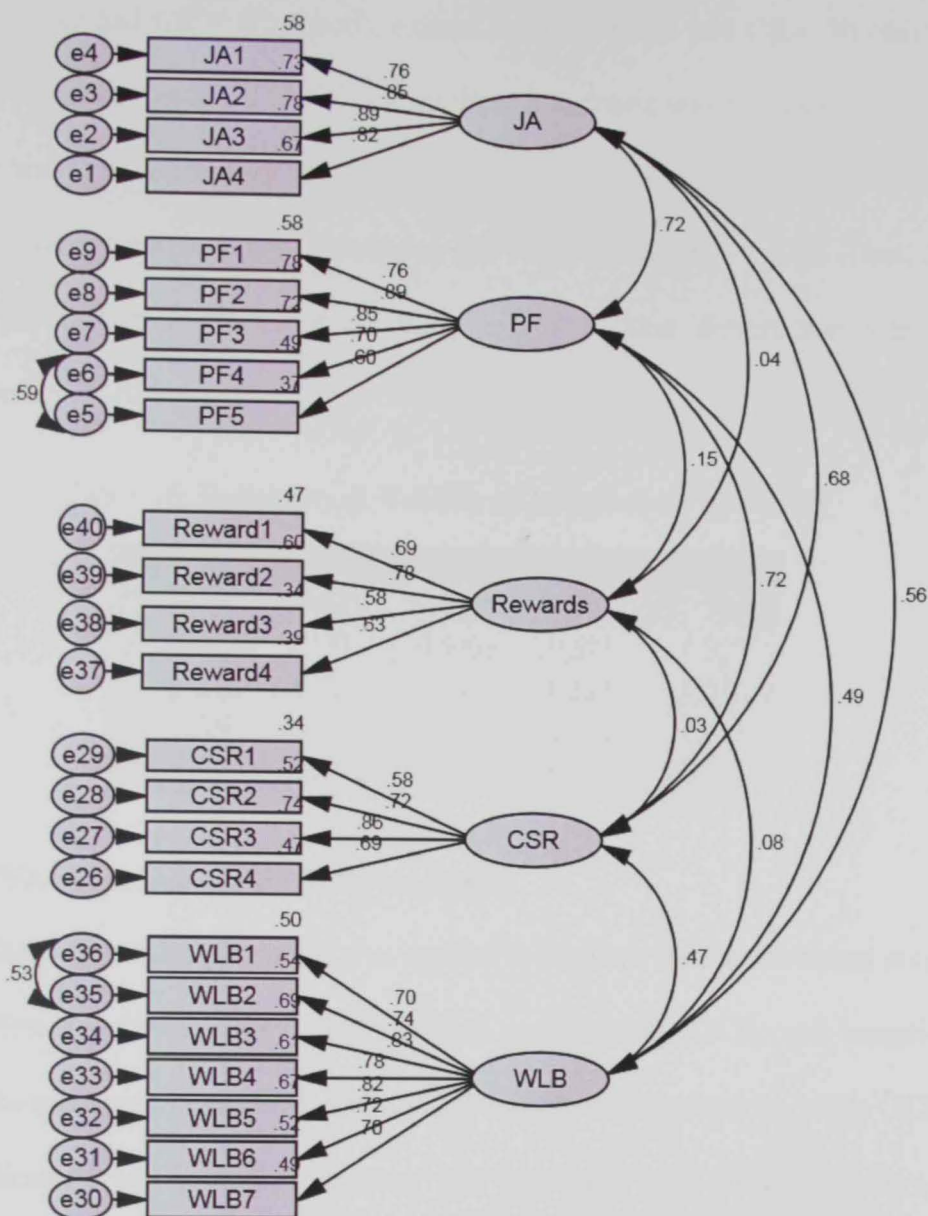
Figure 5: CFA Model of Indepedent Variables

4.3.1.2 Reliability and Validity of Independent Variables

When the independent variables factor structure had been completed, the reliability and validity of these constructs were examined. The assessment tools included the composite reliabilities (overall internal consistency) and the convergent and discriminant validities (Table 16 below). The composite reliability of the independent variables indicated that work/life balance had a CR > .90 (great) and all

other variables had CR > .80 (good), except rewards which had CR> .70 (fair). The

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for all these constructs was also established since

the AVE was > .50 except for rewards (0.452 close to 0.5). Finally, all the constructs

exhibited discriminant validity, possessing MSV < AVE & ASV < AVE (Hair, 2010).

So the psychometric properties of these scales in this dissertation were well

established.

Table 16: Reliability & Validity of Independent Variables

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
WLB	0.904	0.575	0.315	0.196
JA	0.899	0.690	0.523	0.327
PF	0.875	0.587	0.523	0.326
Rewards	0.765	0.452	0.022	0.008
CSR	0.809	0.519	0.517	0.301

4.3.1.3 CFA of Outcomes and WE (Mediator)

The CFA model (Figure 8) was applied to confirm the measurement model of

three different outcomes (i.e. organizational commitment, OCB, and intention to

leave). The measure of organizational commitment had six indicators, while OCB had

eight indicators, and intention to leave was measured with three indicators. The

mediator variable (work engagement) was measured with nine indicators. The results

of the initial CFA (Model 3, Table 17) showed poor fit to data. In checking the factor

loadings of all the items, it was observed that three items of work engagement and

three items of OCB had factor loadings below 0.5. Therefore, following the

recommendations of Kline (2011), the items with factor loadings below the minimum

threshold of 0.5 were removed from the CFA model. Further, a review of modification

indices revealed some error terms of the scales had high shared covariance. In order to

improve the model, the values above 10 were correlated, upon which CFA (Model 4,

Table 17) was applied, demonstrating a good fit to data.

Table 17: Fit Indices of Models of Outcomes & WE

Model	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	CMIN/df
Model 3: Four factor model (WE, OC, ITL, OCB)	.075	.85	.86	3.83
Model 4: Four factor model (WE, OC, ITL, OCB) after removing six items	.058	.95	.96	2.66

Table (18) below shows the retained items of all measures which had a factor

loading above than .5 on their respective constructs.

Table 18: Factor Loadings of Outcomes & WE

Name of	Construct	Estimate
WEng6	WE	.563
WEng5	WE	.709
WEng4	WE	.707
WEng3	WE	.644
WEng2	WE	.687
WEng1	WE	.604
OCB6	OCB	.501
OCB4	OCB	.735
OCB3	OCB	.816
OCB2	OCB	.695
OCB1	OCB	.730
OC6	OC	.882
OC5	OC	.820
OC4	OC	.817
OC3	OC	.784
OC2	OC	.902
OC1	OC	.829
I2L3	ITL	.834
I2L2	ITL	.853
I2L1	ITL	.867

The Figure (8) below shows that the CFA model 4 in which the outcomes of all the

indicators (after removing items 5,7 &8 of OCB and items 7, 8 & 9 of work

engagement), error terms and correlation between the different constructs are

exhibited. None of the constructs has very high correlations with any others, a good sign of the discriminant validity which is assessed in the next section.
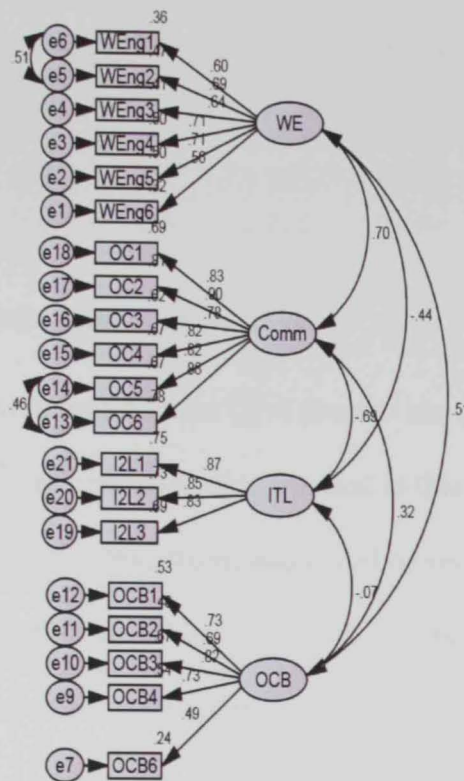
Figure 6: CFA Model of Outcomes & WE

4.3.1.4 Reliability and Validity of Outcomes and WE (Mediator)

Upon finalizing the model outcomes along with the mediator variable, the reliability and validity of these constructs/variables were assessed. We analyzed the composite reliabilities (overall internal consistency) and the convergent and discriminant validities for these constructs (as we did in the case of the independent variables) which are shown in Table (19) below. The composite reliability of OC was CR > .90 (great), while OCB, WE and ITL had CR > .80 (good). The convergent validity for all these constructs was also established; they had values of AVE > .50 except WE, which had a value below .50 (0.429, just less than 0.5). Finally, all three

outcome variables exhibited discriminant validity, with MSV < AVE & ASV < AVE

(Hair et al., 2010), while the discriminant validity for WE was not established.

Table 19: Reliability & Validity of Outcomes & WE

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
OCB	0.826	0.501	0.259	0.123
WE	0.817	0.429	0.490	0.314
OC	0.935	0.706	0.490	0.355
ITL	0.888	0.725	0.469	0.223

4.3.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The above steps demonstrate the CFA process along with the measurement

structure of all the variables/constructs that are used in this study. In the next step we

calculated; the mean, standard deviations, and correlations between all the study

variables, which are presented in Table (20) below. All the variables in the study

show significant correlation between them.

Table 20: Descriptive Statistics & Correlation

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. WE	3.96	0.73								
2. OCB	4.12	0.71	.441**							
3. OC	3.65	1.05	.592**	.327**						
4. ITL	2.80	1.28	-.363**	-.082	-.622**					
5. JA	3.25	1.06	.410**	.247**	.525**	-.410**				
6. WLB	3.28	1.01	.258**	.116**	.330**	-.243**	.525**			
7. PF	3.46	0.95	.463**	.237**	.537**	-.418**	.676**	.479**		
8. CSR	3.20	1.01	.408**	.223**	.562**	-.439**	.590**	.426**	.636**	
9. Rewards	4.59	0.58	.193**	.218**	.089*	.050	.033	.053	.097*	.049

N = 502; * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; N/A = Not applicable

The high mean of work engagement in the study is the alignment of Saks (2006), who had means of 3.06 and 2.88 for job and organizational engagement means respectively.

4.3.3 Hypotheses Testing

When the preliminary data and confirmatory analysis came to an end, the next step was to test the research model through the pre-identified hypotheses. Direct hypothesis testing was performed using a structural regression model (SR model) in AMOS 21 and multiple regression analysis. Moderation hypothesis testing was done using the Macro process of Preacher and Hayes (2013).

4.3.3.1 Structural Regression (SR) Models

Structural Regression (SR) models, also called hybrid or LISREL models, can be viewed as synthesizing path and measurement models to allow hypothesis testing, since it is considered a combination of measurement models and path analysis. The SR model allows tests of hypotheses about patterns of causal effects, which involve both measured and latent variables. This is because an SR model also incorporates a measurement model, just as in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and is considered to be a tool of SEM.

SR models in the context of the present study were applied using AMOS version 21. The first step involved modeling all the hypothesized relationships in the SR model (Figure 9). The results of the model showed good fit to the data, and the same fit indices of CFA were used to analyze (CFI, TLI, CMIN/df, and RMSEA); threshold values are given in Table (13). The fit indices for SR model were acceptable (see Table 21).
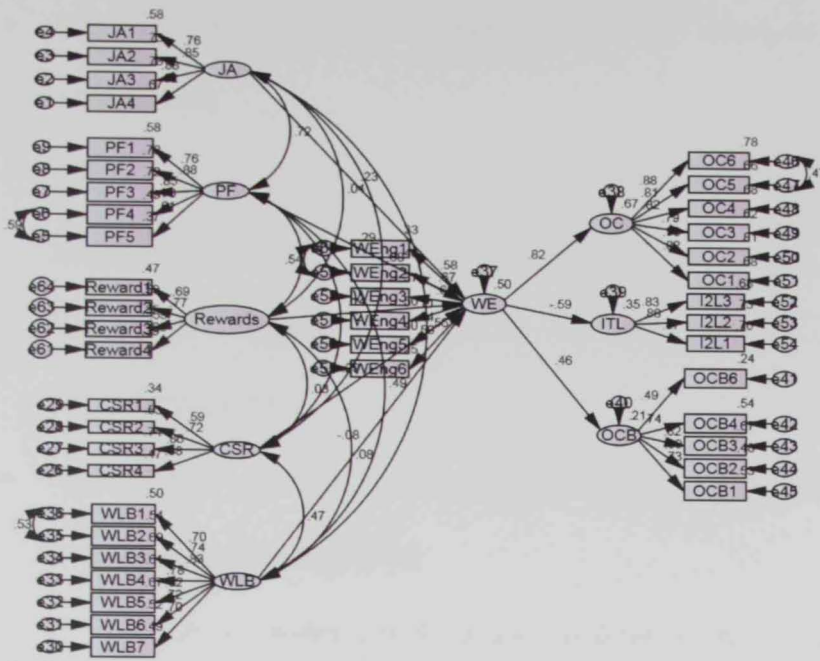
Figure 7: SR Model of Direct Hypotheses

Table 21: Fit Indices of SR Model

Model	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	CMIN/df
Model 1: All constructs Structural Regression Model	.047	.92	.93	2.01

4.3.3.2 Direct Effect Hypotheses

Eight direct hypotheses were identified on the basis of the research model (Figure 1|), aimed at examining the relationship between work engagement and the identified antecedents and consequences in the context of the generational differences, as shown below.

- H1: There is a positive relationship between Job Autonomy and Work Engagement.

- H3: There is a positive relationship between Performance Feedback and Work Engagement.

- H5: There is a positive relationship between Rewards and Work Engagement.

- H7: There is a positive relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Work Engagement.

- H9: There is a positive relationship between Work/life Balance and Work Engagement.

- H11: There is a positive relationship between Work Engagement and Organizational Commitment

- H13: There is a positive relationship between Work Engagement and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

- H15: There is a negative relationship between Work Engagement and Intention to Leave

Structural Regression (SR) modeling via AMOS 21 indicated that the regression weights shown below, which are illustrated through the P value in the table below (Table 22), indicated that all the identified antecedents and consequences are significant (P values less than 0.05), which supports the identified hypothesis except for work/life balance (where the P values was 0.142), indicating that the relationship between WLB and WE was not significant in the present study.

Table 22: Direct Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Independent	Dependent		Standardized	P
H1	JA	→	WE	.226	.002
H3	PF	→	WE	.287	.000
H5	Rewards	→	WE	.142	.003
H7	CSR	→	WE	.290	.000
H9	WLB	→	WE	-.073	**.142**

H11	WE	→	OC	.808	.000
H13	WE	→	OCB	.469	.000
H15	WE	→	ITL	-.578	.000

The above results indicate that two elements of job characteristics, job autonomy and performance feedback, are positively correlated with work engagement, since the relationships are significant (β = .226, p = .002) (β = .287, p = .000) respectively. Similarly, both rewards and cooperate social responsibility are positively correlated with work engagement, where the relationships are significant (β = .142, p = .003) (β = .290, p = .000) respectively. Work/life balance, however, is negatively correlated with work engagement in the context of the present study (β = -.073, p = .142).

Among the consequences, work engagement is positively correlated with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, with significant relationships (β = .808, p = .000) (β = .469, p = .000) respectively. Finally work engagement, as expected, is negatively correlated with intention to leave (β = -.57873, p=.00) (Table 22).

4.3.3.3 Moderation Hypotheses

The statistics literature illustrates that there are three main types of hypothesis, incremental validity, moderation and mediation hypotheses. As a field matures the types of question that scientists are trying to answer tend to become more nuanced and specific. Hence direct effects hypotheses using incremental validity (direct hypotheses) can be exciting in the early stages of research to show the existence of a new effect. As the field matures, moderation hypotheses become more popular, as they propose that "the size of a relationship between two variables changes depending upon

the value of a third variable, known as a moderator." Finally, mediating hypotheses present a scenario where we may know that X leads to Y, but a mediation hypothesis proposes a mediating, or intervening variable, that is, X leads to M, which in turn leads to Y (Sean, 2013).

In the present study Hypotheses 1,3,5,7,9,11,13, and 15 are considered incremental validity hypotheses, which aim to measure the direct effect between the identified work engagement antecedents and its consequences. They have been used to examine the cause and effect relationship in the context of the UAE's culture. Although the field has matured and the relationship between these variables is been well established in the literature, very few researchers have examined these relationships in the above context. The impact of culture on different HR practices was highlighted earlier, indicating the importance for this research of examining hypotheses in their cultural context. For this reason, the moderation hypotheses (2,4,6,8,10,12,14 and 16) in the present study are used to examine the nature of the relationship between work engagement and its antecedents in the presence of a third variable, namely, generational moderation. Here, generational membership acts as a moderator.

Baron and Kenny (1986) define a moderation relationship or mechanism as "The moderator function of third variables, which partitions a focal independent variable into subgroups that establish its domains of maximal effectiveness in regard to a given dependent variable". Barone and Keeny (1986) illustrate that, generally speaking, in social science studies a moderator is a qualitative (e.g., gender, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or

criterion variable. Mediator mechanisms are defined as "the mediator function of a third variable, which represents the generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest" (Barone and Keeny, 1986). Using generational membership as a mediator, the moderation hypotheses of the present study were tested through the Macro process of Preacher and Hayes (2013), a macro which is very useful for testing models with indirect or interaction effects.

Hypotheses 2, 4, 6, 8, 10.12.14 and 16 of the present study predict the moderating effect of generational membership (GM) on the relationship between the identified antecedents (job autonomy, performance feedback, rewards, work/life balance and CSR) and work engagement, together with the moderating effect of generational membership on the identified relationship between work engagement and the identified consequences (OCB, intention to leave and affective organizational commitment) as set out below:

- H2: The positive relationship between Job Autonomy and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Y Generation employees as compared to X Generation and Baby Boomers.

- H4: The positive relationship between Performance Feedback and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Y Generation employees than for members of the X Generation and for Baby Boomers.

- H6: The positive relationship between Rewards and Work Engagement is not moderated by generational membership, such that this

relationship is constant among Baby Boomers employees as it is among the X and Y Generations.

- H8: The positive relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership; it is stronger for Y Generation employees than for members of the X Generation and Baby Boomers.

- H10: The positive relationship between Work/Life Balance and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for: Y Generation employees than for members of the X Generation and Baby Boomers.

- H12: The positive relationship between Organizational Commitment and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for Baby Boomer employees than for the X and Y Generations.

- H14: The positive relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for: Baby Boomers employees than for members of the X and Y Generations.

- H16: The negative relationship between Intention to Leave and Work Engagement is moderated by generational membership, such that this relationship is stronger for: Baby Boomers employees than for X and Y Generations.

The results of the analysis (Table 23) reveal that generational membership (GM) does not moderate most of these relationships, hence, using generational relationship as a moderator, most of the hypotheses were not supported for most

relationships. except for that between work engagement and both OCB and intention to leave. Similarly, Hypothesis (6) was supported. because generational membership does not moderate the relationship between rewards and work engagement. In view of this, the relationship among Baby Boomer employees. as among the members of the X and Y Generations. is constant.

Table 23: Result of Moderation Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Variables	Estimate	SE	Sig. (*p*)
H2	GM	-.15	.03	.005
Dependent= Work Eng.	JA	.28	.05	.000
	JA x GM	.01	.05	.925
H4	GM	-.17	.05	.001
Dependent= Work Eng.	PF	.35	.03	.000
	PF x GM	.01	.06	.924
H6	GM	.08	.48	.876
Dependent= Work Eng.	Rewards	.41	.28	.147
	Rewards x GM	-.06	**.11**	**.566**
H8	GM	-.15	.05	.007
Dependent= Work Eng.	CSR	.29	.03	.000
	CSR x GM	.01	.05	.930
H10	GM	-.17	.06	.002
Dependent= Work Eng.	WLB	.18	.03	.000
	WLB x GM	.09	.06	.106
H12	GM	-.11	.07	.124
Dependent= OC	WE	.84	.05	.000
	WE x GM	-.08	.09	.403
H14	GM	.12	.05	.019
Dependent= OCB	WE	.45	.04	.000
	WE x GM	-.13	**.07**	**.065**
H16	GM	.09	.10	.361
Dependent= ITL	WE	-.64	.07	.000
	WE x GM	.25	**.13**	**.057**

The results of the table above (Table 23) provide support for Hypothesis (14) because the moderation effect was significant at a 90% confidence interval (unstandardized estimate = -.13. S.E. =.07. p = .065). On further probing (see Table 24), it was assessed that the moderation effect of GM is stronger in the case of Baby Boomers and weakest in the case of Generation Y, which is in accordance with the

hypothesized effects. We probed this relationship further with the help of graphs.
Figure (10) shows that the relationship is positively stronger for Baby Boomers (low
value of moderator) as compared to members of Generation X and Y (medium and
high values of moderator) which is also evident from Table (24).

The last hypothesis was related to the moderation effect of generational
membership on the relationship between work engagement and intention to leave
(Hypotheses 16). The results of the analysis also supported this relationship with a
90% confidence interval (unstandardized estimate = .25, S.E. =.13, p = .057).   On
further probing (see Table 23) it was assessed that the negative moderating effect of
GM is strongest in the case of Baby Boomers and weakest in the case of Generation
Y, which is in accordance with the hypothesized effects. We probed this relationship
further with the help of graphs. Figure 11 shows that the relationship is negatively
stronger for Baby Boomers (low value of moderator) than for Generation X and Y
(medium and high values of moderator) which is also evident from Table (24).
Hypothesis (6) is supported because an unstandardized estimate (= -.06, S.E. =.11, p
= .566) indicates that generational membership does not moderate the relationship
between work engagement and rewards, according to which the relationship is constant
in all three generations (Baby Boomers and the X and Y Generations).

Table 24: Moderation Effects on Values of Moderator

Values of Moderator	Dependent: OCB		Dependent: ITL	
	Effect	Sig.	Effect	Sig.
Low	.52	.000	-.78	.000
Medium	.45	.000	-.64	.000
High	.40	.000	-.54	.000
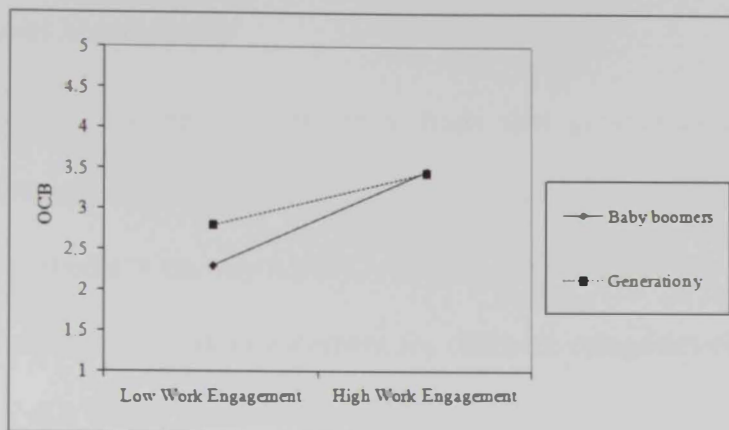
Figure 8: Moderating Effect of GM on the Relationship of WE & OCB
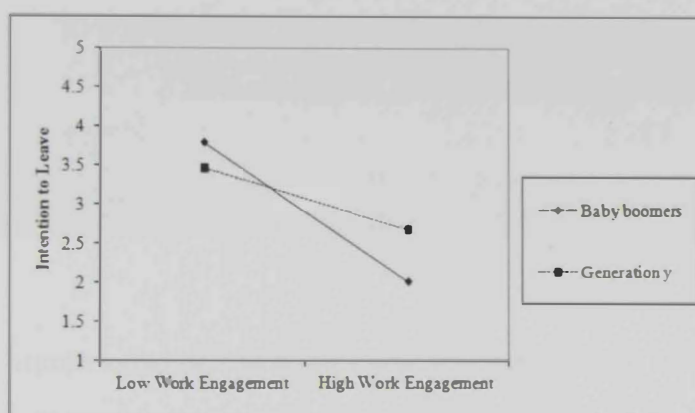
Figure 9: Moderating Effect of GM on the Relationship of WE & ITL

4.4 Post Hoc Analysis

The results of the analysis in the previous section provided support for most of the direct hypotheses and a few of the moderation hypotheses. We did not fully exploit the potential and variance of our data until then, but the last stage we performed some post hoc analysis including ANOVA and t-testing (wherever applicable) in order to understand the impact of demographic and socioeconomic variables on work engagement.

Post Hoc analysis involves looking at the study data for patterns that were not specified in advance; this kind of analysis is reported through the interpretation of p-values.

4.4.1 Generational Membership

As illustrated throughout, this study finds that generational membership contains three categories: Baby Boomers, the X Generation and the Y Generation. This being so, we performed a "One way ANOVA" which showed that there are significant difference in the values of work engagement for different categories of generational membership (P Value 0.005, Table 25).

Table 25: ANOVA Results of GM

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.523	2	2.761	5.283	.005
Within Groups	260.820	499	.523		
Total	266.343	501			

From the Sigma value of 0.005 we knew that significance difference existed, but to know which category was different we performed Bonferroni post hoc analysis in ANOVA and Tukey (Table 26). The results of the test showed that Baby Boomers do not differ significantly from the two other categories (X and Y) in work engagement, but Generation X and Generation Y do differ significantly from each other. X Generation has higher mean value (mean = 4.08) than Y Generation has (mean = 3.88) (Table 4.19), with P=0.011; that is X Generation are more engaged than Y Generation (Tables 26 & 27).

Table 26: Post Hoc Analysis For GM

	(I) Year of Birth	(J) Year of Birth	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	Baby Boomers	Gen X	.13491	.18426	.745	-.2982	.5681
		Gen Y	.33525	.17992	.151	-.0877	.7582

205

Tukey HSD	Gen X	Baby Boomers	-.13491	.18426	.745	-.5681	.2982
		Gen Y	.20034*	.06950	**.011**	.0370	.3637
	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	-.33525	.17992	.151	-.7582	.0877
		Gen X	-.20034*	.06950	**.011**	-.3637	-.0370
Bonferroni	Baby Boomers	Gen X	.13491	.18426	1.000	-.3077	.5775
		Gen Y	.33525	.17992	.189	-.0969	.7674
	Gen X	Baby Boomers	-.13491	.18426	1.000	-.5775	.3077
		Gen Y	.20034*	.06950	.012	.0334	.3673
	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	-.33525	.17992	.189	-.7674	.0969
		Gen X	-.20034*	.06950	.012	-.3673	-.0334

Table 27: Means of WE for Generational Categories

Generation	N	Mean
Baby Boomers	17	4.2157
Gen X	163	4.0808
Gen Y	322	3.8804
Total	502	3.9568

4.4.2 Qualification

There were four categories (high school, diploma and HD, BSC and MSC or PhD) of the final qualifications obtained by the respondent. To analyze if educational level impacts on work engagement, we performed a One way ANOVA which showed that there is significant difference in the values of work engagement for the different categories of qualification (P=0.024) (Table 28) .

Table 28: ANOVA Results of Qualification

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.003	3	1.668	3.178	.024
Within Groups	261.339	498	.525		
Total	266.343	501			

For the purpose of defining the most engaged category, we performed Tukey and Bonferroni post hoc analyses in ANOVA (Table 29). The results showed that high school is not significantly different from any other category regarding work engagement, whereas diploma and HD holders are significantly different from MSC or PhD ($p = .028$/ p=0.24 for Tukey) where diploma & HD has a mean value (mean = 3.84) lower than MSC or PhD (mean = 4.14). None of the other categories differed significantly from one another (see Table 29 & 30).

Table 29: Bonferroni & Post Hoc (Tukey) Results for Qualifications

	Highest Qualification (I)	Highest Qualification (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	High School	Diploma &HD	.04863	.10582	.968	-.2241	.3214
		BSC	-.07677	.08767	.817	-.3028	.1492
		MSC or PHD	-.25623	.10432	.068	-.5252	.0127
	Diploma &HD	High School	-.04863	.10582	.968	-.3214	.2241
		BSC	-.12540	.09100	.514	-.3600	.1092
		MSC or PHD	-.30486*	.10714	**.024**	-.5810	-.0287
	BSC	High School	.07677	.08767	.817	-.1492	.3028
		Diploma & HD	.12540	.09100	.514	-.1092	.3600
		MSC or PHD	-.17946	.08926	.185	-.4096	.0506
	MSC or PHD	High School	.25623	.10432	.068	-.0127	.5252
		Diploma &HD	.30486*	.10714	**.024**	.0287	.5810
		BSC	.17946	.08926	.185	-.0506	.4096

Bonferr oni	**High School**	Diploma &HD	.04863	.10582	1.00 0	-.2317	.3289
		BSC	-.07677	.08767	1.00 0	-.3090	.1555
		MSC or PHD	-.25623	.10432	.086	-.5326	.0201
	Diploma & HD	High School	-.04863	.10582	1.00 0	-.3289	.2317
		BSC	-.12540	.09100	1.00 0	-.3665	.1157
		MSC or PHD	-.30486*	.10714	.028	-.5887	-.0211
	BSC	High School	.07677	.08767	1.00 0	-.1555	.3090
		Diploma &HD	.12540	.09100	1.00 0	-.1157	.3665
		MSC or PHD	-.17946	.08926	.270	-.4159	.0570
	MSC or PHD	High School	.25623	.10432	.086	-.0201	.5326
		Diploma &HD	.30486*	.10714	.028	.0211	.5887
		BSC	.17946	.08926	.270	-.0570	.4159

Table 30: Mean of Work Engagement & Qualifications

Qualification	N	Mean
High School	99	3.8838
Diploma & HD	89	3.8352
BSC	220	3.9606
MSC or PHD	94	4.1401
Total	502	3.9568

4.4.3 Organizational Rank

The results of ANOVA showed that there is significant difference in work engagement across various organizational ranks (P = .001) (Table 31). The results of Tukey and Bonferroni tests (Table 32) indicated a difference between entry level employees and both managerial level and top management employees (P values= 0.003 and 0.006 respectively). Further analysis indicated that entry level employees

had a mean= 3.75, significantly different from the managerial level (mean = 4.06) and top management (mean = 4.20) (Table 33). This suggests that entry level employees have low work engagement as compared with the two other categories (managerial and top management), while supervisory level employees show no significant difference from those in other categories.

Table 31: ANOVA Results of WE for Organizational Rank

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.931	3	2.977	5.759	.001
Within Groups	257.412	498	.517		
Total	266.343	501			

Table 32: Bonferroni & Post Hoc (Tukey) of Organizational Rank

	(I) Organizational Rank	(J) Organizational Rank	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Entry Level	Supervisory Level	-.14920	.09078	.355	-.3832	.0848
		Managerial Level	-.30103*	.08692	.003	-.5251	-.0770
		Top Management	-.44103*	.13376	.006	-.7858	-.0962
	Supervisory Level	Entry Level	.14920	.09078	.355	-.0848	.3832
		Managerial Level	-.15182	.07652	.195	-.3491	.0454
		Top Management	-.29182	.12725	.101	-.6199	.0362
	Managerial Level	Entry Level	.30103*	.08692	.003	.0770	.5251
		Supervisory Level	.15182	.07652	.195	-.0454	.3491
		Top Management	-.14000	.12453	.675	-.4610	.1810
	Top Management	Entry Level	.44103*	.13376	.006	.0962	.7858
		Supervisory Level	.29182	.12725	.101	-.0362	.6199
		Managerial Level	.14000	.12453	.675	-.1810	.4610
Bonferroni	Entry Level	Supervisory Level	-.14920	.09078	.605	-.3897	.0913
		Managerial Level	-.30103*	.08692	.003	-.5313	-.0708
		Top Management	-.44103*	.13376	.006	-.7953	-.0867
	Supervisory Level	Entry Level	.14920	.09078	.605	-.0913	.3897
		Managerial Level	-.15182	.07652	.287	-.3545	.0509
		Top Management	-.29182	.12725	.134	-.6289	.0453
	Managerial Level	Entry Level	.30103*	.08692	.003	.0708	.5313
		Supervisory Level	.15182	.07652	.287	-.0509	.3545
		Top Management	-.14000	.12453	1.000	-.4698	.1898
	Top Management	Entry Level	.44103*	.13376	.006	.0867	.7953
		Supervisory Level	.29182	.12725	.134	-.0453	.6289
		Managerial Level	.14000	.12453	1.000	-.1898	.4698

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 33: Mean of WE of Organizational Rank

Organizational Rank	N	Mean
Entry Level	104	3.7548
Supervisory Level	158	3.9040
Managerial Level	200	4.0558
Top Management	40	4.1958
Total	502	3.9568

4.4.4 Experience

Experience with current employer was assessed in four categories (3 years or less, 4 to 6 years, 7 to 10 years, and more than 10 years). For this we performed a One-way ANOVA which showed that there is significant difference (Table 4.27) in the values of work engagement for different categories of qualification.

Table 34: ANOVA Results of Experience with Current Employer

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.635	3	2.212	4.241	.006
Within Groups	259.708	498	.522		
Total	266.343	501			

From the above table (P value=0.006) we know that significant difference exists but we do not know which category is different from any other. For this purpose we performed Bonferroni and Tukey post hoc analysis in ANOVA (Table 35). The results of this testing showed that employees with less than 7-10 years of experience with the current employer are more engaged than those with less than 3 years of experience and those with 4-6 years of experience (P = 0.044, P = 0.043, respectively, Table 35). No major differences were found between those who had completed more than 10 years of experience and those who had 4-6 years or 7-10 years or less than 3 years (Table 36).

Table 35: Bonferroni and Post Hoc (Tukey) Analysis of Time Spent with Current Employer

	(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	less than 3 years	4-6 years	.01255	.08806	.999	-.2144	.2395
		7-10 Years	-.25595*	.09733	**.044**	-.5068	-.0051
		more than 10 years	-.20222	.08400	.077	-.4187	.0143
	4-6 years	less than 3 years	-.01255	.08806	.999	-.2395	.2144
		7-10 Years	-.26851*	.10203	**.043**	-.5315	-.0055
		more than 10 years	-.21477	.08940	.078	-.4452	.0157
	7-10 Years	less than 3 years	.25595*	.09733	**.044**	.0051	.5068
		4-6 years	.26851*	.10203	**.043**	.0055	.5315
		more than 10 years	.05374	.09854	.948	-.2003	.3078
	More than 10 years	less than 3 years	.20222	.08400	.077	-.0143	.4187
		4-6 years	.21477	.08940	.078	-.0157	.4452
		7-10 Years	-.05374	.09854	.948	-.3078	.2003
Bonferroni	less than 3 years	4-6 years	.01255	.08806	1.000	-.2207	.2458
		7-10 Years	-.25595	.09733	.053	-.5138	.0018
		more than 10 years	-.20222	.08400	.099	-.4247	.0203
	4-6 years	less than 3 years	-.01255	.08806	1.000	-.2458	.2207
		7-10 Years	-.26851	.10203	.053	-.5388	.0017
		more than 10 years	-.21477	.08940	.100	-.4516	.0220
	7-10 Years	less than 3 years	.25595	.09733	.053	-.0018	.5138
		4-6 years	.26851	.10203	.053	-.0017	.5388
		more than 10 years	.05374	.09854	1.000	-.2073	.3148
	More than 10 years	less than 3 years	.20222	.08400	.099	-.0203	.4247
		4-6 years	.21477	.08940	.100	-.0220	.4516
		7-10 Years	-.05374	.09854	1.000	-.3148	.2073

Table 36: Mean of WE and Time Spent with Current Employer

Experience	N	Mean
less than 3 years	153	3.8584
4-6 years	120	3.8458
7-10 Years	86	4.1143

more than 10 years	143	4.0606
Total	502	3.9568

4.4.5 Gender and Marital Status

The t-test for Gender analysis indicated that no significant differences were found between the two genders in the level of work engagement (P= 0.274, Table 37). Hence the means of Females and Males were very close (the data in Table 38, below).

Table 37: T Test Results for Gender

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df.	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.199	**.274**	.897	500	.370	.06005	.06697	-.07153	.19164
Equal variances not assumed			.917	433.364	.360	.06005	.06552	-.06872	.18883

Table 38: Mean Average across Genders

Gender	N	Mean
Male	192	3.9939
Female	310	3.9339

Similarly no differences were found between employees of different marital status (single, married, others) according to the ANOVA results (P= 0.083, Table 39). Table (40) further illustrates the Tukey and Bonferroni results of marital status, while Table (41) identifies the means.

Table 39: ANOVA Results of Marital Status

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.650	2	1.325	2.507	.083
Within Groups	263.693	499	.528		
Total	266.343	501			

Table 40: Bonferroni & Post Hoc (Tukey) Analysis of Marital Status

	(I) Marital Status	(J) Marital Status	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Single	Married	-.15057	.06837	.072	-.3113	.0101
		Others	-.14018	.13361	.546	-.4543	.1739
	Married	Single	.15057	.06837	.072	-.0101	.3113
		Others	.01039	.13046	.997	-.2963	.3171
	Others	Single	.14018	.13361	.546	-.1739	.4543
		Married	-.01039	.13046	.997	-.3171	.2963
Bonferroni	Single	Married	-.15057	.06837	.084	-.3148	.0137
		Others	-.14018	.13361	.884	-.4611	.1808
	Married	Single	.15057	.06837	.084	-.0137	.3148
		Others	.01039	.13046	1.000	-.3030	.3238
	Others	Single	.14018	.13361	.884	-.1808	.4611
		Married	-.01039	.13046	1.000	-.3238	.3030

Table 41: Mean Analysis for WE & Marital Status

Marital Status	N	Mean
Single	192	3.8646
Married	275	4.0152
Others	35	4.0048
Total	502	3.9568

4.4.6 Other Demographic and Socioeconomic Elements

The results of Post Hoc analysis (ANOVA) indicated that none of the other identified socioeconomic and demographic elements (Specialization, Emirates of Working, Emirates of residence, employment sector) had implications for work engagement. For instance, people in different types of organization – Federal Government, Local Government, Semi-Government and Private – did not differ in

their work engagement (P= 0.652, Table 41).

Table 42: Employment Sector ANOVA Results

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.869	3	.290	.544	.652
Within Groups	265.018	498	.532		
Total	265.887	501			

Similarly, since there is understandably and naturally some uncertainty regarding the quality of responses in the social media, we analyzed work engagement in relation to the channel of communication to the respondents. However, this indicated no significant differences (P=0.899, Table 43).

Table 43: Method of Response ANOVA Results

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.314	3	.105	.196	.899
Within Groups	265.573	498	.533		
Total	265.887	501			

4.4.7 Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Intention to leave and Organizational Commitment in the context of Generations

4.4.7.1 Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

According to the ANOVA results, there are no differences in OCB among the three generations, as shown below (P=.816) (Tables 44 &45):

Table 44: ANOVA Results of OCB

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.207	2	.104	.203	.816

Within Groups	254.338	499	.510			
Total	254.546	501				

Table 45: Bonferroni & Post Hoc (Tukey) Analysis of OCB & GM

	(I) Year of Birth	(J) Year of Birth	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Baby Boomers	Gen X	.05283	.18196	.955	-.3749	.4806
		Gen Y	.01012	.17767	.998	-.4075	.4278
	Gen X	Baby Boomers	-.05283	.18196	.955	-.4806	.3749
		Gen Y	-.04271	.06863	.808	-.2040	.1186
	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	-.01012	.17767	.998	-.4278	.4075
		Gen X	.04271	.06863	.808	-.1186	.2040
Bonferroni	Baby Boomers	Gen X	.05283	.18196	1.000	-.3842	.4899
		Gen Y	.01012	.17767	1.000	-.4166	.4369
	Gen X	Baby Boomers	-.05283	.18196	1.000	-.4899	.3842
		Gen Y	-.04271	.06863	1.000	-.2076	.1221
	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	-.01012	.17767	1.000	-.4369	.4166
		Gen X	.04271	.06863	1.000	-.1221	.2076

4.4.7.2 Intention to leave

The results of ANOVA showed that there was significant difference between the three generational categories regarding intention to leave (P= .012) (Table 46). The results of post hoc analysis showed that Baby Boomers are significantly different from members of the X Generation and Y Generation (P= 0.31, P=0.10 respectively, Table 47).That is, Baby Boomers have a low turnover intention compared to the two other generations, although there is no significant difference between the X Generation and the Y Generation in terms of intention to leave. Furthermore, Baby Boomers have

lower means (mean =1.94) than members of the X and Y Generations (mean=2.87 and mean=2.76 respectively) indicating a lower intention to leave among Baby Boomers than in X and Y Generation employees (Table 48).

Table 46: ANOVA Results of Intention to Leave

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14.300	2	7.150	4.434	.012
Within Groups	804.711	499	1.613		
Total	819.011	501			

Table 47: Intention to Leave & GM

	(I) Year of Birth	(J) Year of Birth	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Baby Boomers	Gen X	-.81956*	.32366	**.031**	-1.5804	-.0587
		Gen Y	-.92735*	.31602	**.010**	-1.6702	-.1845
	Gen X	Baby Boomers	.81956*	.32366	**.031**	.0587	1.5804
		Gen Y	-.10779	.12207	.651	-.3948	.1792
	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	.92735*	.31602	**.010**	.1845	1.6702
		Gen X	.10779	.12207	.651	-.1792	.3948
Bonferroni	Baby Boomers	Gen X	-.81956*	.32366	.035	-1.5970	-.0421
		Gen Y	-.92735*	.31602	.010	-1.6865	-.1682
	Gen X	Baby Boomers	.81956*	.32366	.035	.0421	1.5970
		Gen Y	-.10779	.12207	1.000	-.4010	.1854
	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	.92735*	.31602	.010	.1682	1.6865
		Gen X	.10779	.12207	1.000	-.1854	.4010

Table 48: Mean of Intention to Leave across Generation

Generational Membership	N	Mean
Baby Boomers	17	1.9412
Gen X	163	2.7607
Gen Y	322	2.8685
Total	502	2.8021

4.4.7.3 Organizational Commitment

The results of ANOVA showed that there is significant difference between the three generational categories and organizational commitment (P = .001, Table 49). The results of post hoc analysis showed that Baby Boomers (mean = 4.54) are significantly different from the X Generation (P= 0.006, mean= 3.57) and Y Generation (P=0.001, mean = 3.73). Further, there is no significant difference between the X and Y Generations. Accordingly the results of the present study indicate that Baby Boomers are more organizationally committed than members of the two other generations (Tables 50 & 51).

Table 49: ANOVA Results of Organizational Commitment

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16.497	2	8.248	7.664	.001
Within Groups	535.979	499	1.076		
Total	522.475	501			

Table 50: Post Hoc Analysis for Organizational Commitment

	(I) Year of Birth	(J) Year of Birth	Mean Differen ce (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Baby Boomers	Gen X	.81082*	.32366	**.006**	.1891	1.4326
		Gen Y	.96934*	.31602	**.001**	.3624	1.5726
	Gen X	Baby Boomers	-.81082*	.32366	**.006**	-.014326	-1.891
		Gen Y	.15852	.12207	.252	-0.764	.3934
	Gen Y	Baby Boomers	-.96934	.31602	**.001**	-1.5726	-.3624
		Gen X	-.15852	.12207	.252	-.3934	.0764

Table 51: Mean Analysis of Organizational Commitment

Generational Membership	N	Mean
Baby Boomers	17	4.5392
Gen X	163	3.5699
Gen Y	322	3.7384
Total	502	

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter started by data cleaning, after eliminating the missing values, we checked for aberrant values and outliers, which were handled in line with the specified procedures. Similarly CMB was assessed through the identified procedures. Next, structure equation modeling was performed, starting with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to finalize the measurement models of the constructs used in this study, in which all the models showed a good fit to the data. We also calculated the composite reliabilities, convergent validities, and discriminant validities for all the scales and found them to be well established with a few exceptions. Through structural regression

and multiple regression we moved forward toward testing research hypotheses. The results supported most of the direct hypotheses and a few of the moderation ones. This was followed by post hoc analysis for the purpose of examining the effect different demographic and socioeconomic variables on work engagement.

Overall, the study results indicated that the Y Generation are more similar than different to elder generations, but this should also be analyzed in the UAE's cultural context and associated norms, which are embedded in its deeply rooted Islamic values. The findings therefore require us to pay more attention to individual differences and the recruitment processes and assessment tools.

All the results obtained in this section are elaborated further and discussed in detail in the theoretical framework in the next chapter, along with practical and managerial recommendations and suggestions for future lines of work, given the limitation of the present study.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The subject of generational differences has been researched by several researchers, not only in the field of human resources management (HRM), but also in many other fields such as marketing and consumer behavior. The topic has further implications in the context of GCC and the United Arab Emirates, with its young demographic structure, current employment challenges and ambitious 2021 vision. However, given the relatively infancy of scientific institutes and relevant research, little substantive research has actually analyzed generational differences using a comprehensive representative sample.

Still, work engagement has been one of the most important and prominent topics among HRM professionals, given its implications especially when it comes to building competitive advantage. The topic manifests further significant dimensions given the challenges in the UAE's labor market associated with attracting, developing and retaining young Emiratis particularly in the private sector, where nationals represent less than 1%, despite the ambitious governmental plans for enhancing their participation.

This chapter discusses and analyzes the results presented in the previous chapter, in relation to the theoretical framework and literature dealing with generational differences, work engagement antecedents and consequences, and the UAE's cultural dimensions. The chapter will thereby address the main findings and their implications for HRM practices in the UAE, having answered the questions identified in the present study, through the research hypotheses.

The chapter starts by reviewing the study's results on antecedents and consequences of work engagement in the literature. After this the moderating hypotheses are reviewed in relation to the literature in the context of generational differences. Finally the demographic and socioeconomic implications of work engagement are examined.

5.2 Work Engagement Antecedents and Consequences in the Context of UAE Culture

Although the literature provides a number of antecedents that are capable of enhancing work engagement, the differences in response to these antecedents across employees and their specified consequences are still the subject of much discussion and reflection because many factors play a critical role in this equation, such as the social culture and its norms, and organizational cultural and individual differences. Among these generational membership and its associated characteristics may feature this relationship. Something that has been further examined in this research, which focused on work engagement in relation to the UAE's culture and generational differences. The present research addresses four main questions:

1. What are the antecedents of work engagement in context of the UAE?

2. What are the consequences of work engagement in context of the UAE?

3. Does generational membership moderate the relationship between work engagement and its antecedents?

4. Does generational membership moderate the relationship between work engagement and its consequences?

After looking at the literature a number of work engagement antecedents and consequences were identified, which seemed to have relevant and significant implications for generational differences and the generational metabolism. These were hypothesized taking into consideration the literature in the context of generational differences and the culture of the UAE.

The first set of hypotheses were related to work engagement antecedents and consequences. Among these two elements of job characteristics; job autonomy and performance feedback, rewards, work/life balance, and corporate social responsibility (CSR) were examined for their relationship to work engagement as antecedents. Similarly, intention to leave, organizational commitment (affective commitment) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) were hypothesized as consequences of work engagement. These antecedents and consequences were replicated in context of the UAE, in order to assess their validity in relation to the associated cultural norms and dimensions.

The results showed that almost all the identified antecedents predicted work engagement in the context of UAE culture, and hence they are positively correlated with work engagement, because we found support for four of the hypotheses but not for the relationship between work/life balance and work engagement. However, all three hypotheses relating to the consequences of work engagement were supported. These findings are thus consistent with the literature available, except for work/life balance, which could be justified by the cultural norms, since work/life balance is more common in individualistic societies than in collective societies, and will be discussed in further detail below.

Our results of the significant correlation between the four identified

antecedents and work engagement in context of the UAE are therefore in alignment with the findings of Lim (2012). Who examines the life priorities and work preferences of the Emirati Y Generation and expatriates. Lim's (2012) results indicate that extrinsic tools, such as salary, status and the chance for promotion are the most important motivators for the targeted generation, justified by their importance in life stability, combined with the high rate of inflation in the UAE. They can be further justified through the principle of "Social Exchange Theory" (SET), which has been discussed in the context of Saks (2006) work engagement model.

5.2.1 Work Engagement Antecedents in the Context of UAE

The first two hypotheses were used to examine the implications of job autonomy and performance feedback for work engagement in the UAE. After applying Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to the data, using structural regression (SR), the two hypotheses were validated and hence there is strong reason to support the view that job autonomy and performance feedback are positively correlated with work engagement in the UAE culture (at a P value of 0.002 and 0.00 respectively) in alignment with the job characteristics theory (JCT) of Hackman and Oldham (1976), and the work engagement model of Maslach et al. (2001) together with most of the research in the field, such as Hakanen et al. (2008), Bakker and Geurts (2004) and Bakker et al. (2005).

Analyzing the significant relationship between job autonomy and work engagement in the context of UAE culture and Hofstede's cultural dimensions illustrates that, although the UAE scores low on the individualism versus collectivism index, representing a collective society, given the impact of globalization and exposure to Westernization it seems that the society is becoming less collective, and hence gives

more emphasis to job autonomy. Similarly, the significant relationship between job autonomy and work engagement may reflect the fact that the UAE's society is moving away from high/ large power distance. In that case, job autonomy would be expected to enhance job enrichment, recommending managers to provide further autonomy through various means and not ignore individual differences in the organizational culture and its norms.

Providing performance feedback plays a critical role in a culture of high uncertainty avoidance, where individuals try to avoid ambiguous situations. However performance feedback still needs to be given with some consciousness of cultural norms, especially where negative feedback is involved. Thus feedback should take on different forms and styles, bearing individual differences in mind.

Accordingly, managers who are willing to enhance job enrichment for their Emirati employees across all generations should remove some controls, allow for further autonomy. Job enrichment is a management concept which involves redesigning jobs with the aim of making them more challenging to the employees, and requiring less repetitive work. However, Aycan et al. (1999) believe that high power distance cultures provide less job enrichment, since managers believe that employees are more reactive than proactive; nevertheless it seems that UAE society is getting lower in power distance, and hence the above tools will enhance work engagement across the Emirati workforce.

The fifth hypothesis claimed that work engagement is positively correlated by rewards, a replicated hypothesis in the context of UAE. Our results supported the hypothesis; hence the present study confirms that rewards are positively correlated with work engagement (strong evidence/significance at a P value of 0.03), supporting

most of the literature on work engagement and rewards, such as Maslach et al. (2001) and Saks (2006), as well as aligning with Social Exchange Theory (SET).

Since rewards are defined as "anything that reinforces, maintains or strengthens behaviors in a firm" (Goodale et al., 1997), they consist of a combination of extrinsic and instinctual methods, which are presented under a single factor/variable/construct in the present research, no conclusion can be made regarding the differences of power between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards in the context of UAE culture. Where organizations are recommended to use creative tools to reward performance, providing a balance between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards.

Furthermore, given the present study results on the significance correlation between rewards and work engagement, it may seem that the UAE culture is becoming less collective, taking into consideration the justification by Palich and Bagby (1995) about reward and cultures, because they identify that individual rewards should have a stronger influence on commitment in individualistic societies than collective ones, offering an opportunity for personal achievement (taking organizational commitment as a consequences of work engagement)

Moreover the present study findings are in alignment with observations by Lim (2012) in the context of UAE culture, which are justified by the importance of different extrinsic rewards in maintaining life stability, where the inflation rate is high, as in the UAE.

The seventh hypothesis in the present research aimed at examining the relationship between the corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices of the employer and work engagement in the context of UAE culture. Our prediction was supported since CSR proved to be positively correlated with work engagement (at a P

value of 0.00) representing overwhelming support of this highly significant relationship.

The findings are in alignment with qualitative research by Lindorff and Peck (2010) on Australian financial institutions and with Andolsĕk and St'ebe (2004), which indicates that post materialistic job values such as helping others are more predictive of employees' commitment and thereby engagement (or vice versa) in collectivistic societies, such as the UAE.

Studies in the field indicate that organizations with high power distance are less likely to focus on CSR, and give their direct attention instead to the shareholders' needs. However it seems that the UAE is moving away from a high power distance culture, as noted above. Accordingly organizations are recommended to pay more attention to their CSR activities, and perhaps involve their employees in such community contributions.

The significant relation between employers' CSR practices and work engagement in the UAE can be further justified by the major steps taken by the UAE towards clean energy, and its role as an international donor of humanitarian aid. For instance in 2006 the Abu Dhabi Government under Mubadala established "Masdar" a complete city aimed at providing clean energy industry in Abu Dhabi and around the world. The UAE ranked as the greatest donor of humanitarian aid in relation to Gross National Income in 2014 (WAM, 2015). Such actions by the UAE government indicate the importance of adopting a range of CSR practices so as to enhance work engagement across UAE national employees.

In the last hypothesis about work engagement antecedents, work/life balance was examined in relation to work engagement in the context of UAE culture. The

results of the Structure Equation Modeling using structural regression and associated regression weights indicated that this relation is not significant (at a P value of 0.142), and hence our research demonstrated that the relationship between work/life balance and work engagement is not significant, i.e. that work/life balance is not positively correlated with work engagement in the UAE. This contradicts the identification by Wollard and Shuck (2011) of work engagement antecedents, and the findings of Mauno et al. (2007), but it can be supported by the findings of Timms et al. (2015) who found a negative relationship between the use of flexible work arrangements (FWA) and work engagement in their sample of eight Australian organizations; which can also be justified in the context of the associated organizational culture.

The efforts of Suh et al. (1998) in the context of HRM practices and national culture, however, indicate that work/life balance is a stronger satisfaction element in individualistic cultures than in collective ones. Similarly, Gelade et al. (2008) in their assessment of 50,000 applicants across the world indicated that tools and practices which enhance work/life balance are a better predictor of organizational commitment in individualistic than collective societies. Using organizational commitment as an antecedent rather than a consequence as Shuck et al. (2011) do in their analysis indicates that affective commitment comes even before work engagement, leading them to conclude that employees develop an affective bond with their organization before actually engaging in the behavioral state of work engagement.

The above results can be further analyzed in relation to the dynamic changes in the UAE and GCC, which have been exposed to various changes as part of the power of Westernization, globalization and economic growth, but reflect more culturally bounded societies. The younger people are still collective in character, although this

culture is being challenged by changes in contemporary lifestyles. The present study's findings are therefore in alignment with the findings of Trzesniewski, Donnellan, and Robins (2008b) whose results indicate that, although high narcissism is a trend among younger groups, cultures still have power in shaping and controlling narcissism.

Moreover the present study results may also reflect a high level of self-consciousness among young Emiratis (in the majority in the present research sample), who seem to be able to balance their work and family obligations, corroborating Halbesleben et al. (2009) in their interpretation of different categories in the USA.

Furthermore, the present study findings could be justified by the happiness rate in the UAE, being as the first nation in the Arab world, which me illustrate that organization are already offering suitable practices for enhancing work life balance such as, offered leaves and facilities.

Finally the negative correlation between work/life balance and work engagement in the present study could be analyzed in terms of the study sample, since many have not yet had major challenges in balancing life, work and family commitments: 38% are single and around 55% are married, but perhaps with small families. Studies indicate that UAE families are getting smaller than they used to be and one of the major trends among Emirati families is the decline in the birth rate (Green & Smith, 2007; Shawky, 2001). Only 18% of young Emirati women would like to have 6 or more children, perhaps allowing for a more balanced life style among young generations, while illustrating more self-awareness and thereby an effective management of different life roles, associated with the family and related commitment. Alternatively, young families in the UAE can benefit from the extended family networks, as they might help in building safety nets in times of family and personal

medical conditions, furthering the work/life balance.

Furthermore, the same could not be justified by the latest results of Bayat.com's research of January 2016; it and indicates that 75% of Middle Eastern employees are passionate about their jobs, while more than 90% of their sample believe that the job they perform adds to their life and 86.5% of the sample indicated in the study that their jobs allows them to discover themselves (Bayan, 2016a). This suggests that enthusiasm motivates employees in the region and hence they are capable of using their own personal resources in balancing their work and life demands and commitments. Additionally, Bayat.com's survey identifies that around 60% of their sample are happy with their employer and organizational culture, which may also indicate that organizations are already offering effective work/life enhancement tools, such as flexible working hours or distance working and so on, which are enabling employees to balance their commitments.

Similarly, Gallup's report (2013-2015) on "good jobs in the world", which includes more than 155 countries, ranks the UAE highest among the countries of the Middle East and North Africa. Its employees have an aggregated satisfaction rate of 63% (Bayan, 2016b).

To conclude, for work/life balance tools to enhance employees' work engagement, organizations should have the right culture, which allows the use of such tools without judgment, implying nothing about an employee's career. For instance Octopus.com in its 2016 study indicates that around 97% of its Middle Eastern and South African respondents become more productive when they are happy, and consequently happiness enhances their organization's profitability. When asked what makes them happy at work, more than half of the sample indicated a friendly working

environment, while around 10% chose flexibility in their working hours. Octopus.com further indicates that almost 90% of their sample preferred flexible working hours (Labadi, 2016).

5.2.2 Work Engagement Consequences in the Context of UAE

The present study addresses three organizational consequences of work engagement, examining three hypotheses on work engagement and its consequences in the UAE. The first hypothesis addresses the relationship between work engagement and effective organizational commitment. The hypothesis was confirmed (P value 0.000), showing that affective organizational commitment is positively correlated with work engagement in the present study, in alignment with the findings of Saks (2006), Shaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Sonnentag (2003).

The above correlation in the context of UAE cultural norms can be further justified by the declaration of Taras et al. (2010) that organizational commitment (OC) is more common in collective societies, since belonging in these societies is important. The UAE, as noted above, is classified as a collective society by Hofstede (1980), reflecting its deep Islamic and Arabic roots, and hence the relationship between work engagement and organizational commitment can be justified by the collective nature of UAE culture.

The findings in the present research about the relationship between work engagement and organizational commitment are also in alignment with the analysis by Gelade, Dobson, and Gilbert (2006) of affective organizational commitment in countries with a happy population. The 2017 Earth Institute report at Columbia University under the supervision of the UN ranked the UAE as the first country among

the Arab countries and the 21st globally in its happiness index, according to which a high level of affective commitment in the UAE's culture is expected.

Taking into consideration the positive relationship between work engagement and affective organizational commitment, organizations and HRM professionals are recommended to adopt suitable practices for enhancing organizational commitment, taking account of their own unique culture, associated features and individual differences. Among these, annual satisfaction surveys are recommended, because they can provide senior management with the required tools and changes to enhance their employees' satisfaction and hence their commitment and engagement.

The second hypothesis about work engagement and organizational consequences in context of the present study is related to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which includes behaviors that are not part of the employee's job description, but are performed by the employee as personal choices. The present study validates the hypothesis that work engagement is positively correlated with OCB in the UAE, in alignment with the most of the studies in the field, such as Saks (2006).

The relationship between work engagement and OCB can be further justified in terms of the UAE's cultural norms. The UAE is classified as a collective society by Hofstede (1980 a, 1980 b), being strongly rooted in its Islamic and Arabic origins, demonstrating close ties to the extended family in different areas and a marked sense of belonging.

The last direct hypothesis in the present research concerns the negative relation between work engagement and the intention to leave. The study's results validated the hypothesis (β = -.57873, P value 0.000), demonstrating a negative relationship between work engagement and the intention to leave, in alignment with major studies in the

field such as Harter et al. (2002), Saks (2006), Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Shuck et al. (2011).

The above negative relationship may be further justified in the context of Hofstede's cultural dimensions; he identifies that collective societies may have difficulties in changing employers, given the deep moral relationship between employer and employee. The low score by the UAE in the individual versus collective index reflects a collective society, where relations with one's employer are emphasized, reflecting a weak intention to leave. Here, priority is given to relations rather than tasks, making it difficult to change employer. The above findings can also be appreciated by recalling the high uncertainty avoidance in the UAE, reflecting greater career stability in order to avoid unknown situations and opt for security instead.

To conclude, the present study's results illustrate that, although the UAE culture is changing due to its exposure to new things combined with its economic growth and the power of globalization and Westernization, these changes are still too slow and hence may not be reflected in various employment behavior at present. The collective norms are further understandable in the current political conditions in the Middle East, the GCC in particular, which reinforce the reliance on collectiveness. The high uncertainty levels in region are justified by the effect of the fluctuations of the price of oil on the economy. Therefore the current political and economic conditions in the region emphasize the concern to reduce risks perhaps by staying with current employer and adopting practices and behaviors that enhance security and stability.

5.3 Moderating Effect of GM on WE Antecedents & Consequences

The second set of hypotheses examined these antecedents and consequences,

using generational membership as a moderating factor (generational membership is defined by a respondent's belonging to one of three generations: Baby Boomers, the X Generation or the Y Generation). The SEM analysis using the process macro of Preacher and Hayes (2013) indicate that generational membership moderates two of the relationships: intention to leave and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

The results of the present study are thereby in alignment with the findings of Wey Smola and Sutton (2002) and Trzesniewski and Donnellan (2010). Wey Smola and Sutton (2002) find that captured differences in work related behaviors among generations are mainly associated with age and career stage, rather than with generational membership and its associated differences. Trzesniewski and Donnellan (2010), however, argue that differences reported in the generational literature may be due to sampling inadequacy, since the samples chosen fail to represent the targeted group justly.

Taking the present study findings into consideration to answer the third research questions, we can conclude that the identified antecedents contribute to the same level of work engagement across these three generations in the UAE. That is, these three generations responded to the identified antecedents with the same level of work engagement. Hence the results of this study identify that the Y Generation in the UAE are more similar to the other generations than different, in alignment with the findings of Real et al. (2010), Wong et al. (2008) and Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008).

In answering the fourth research question, the present study findings indicate that generational membership moderates two of the three identified consequences, OCB and intention to leave. That is, engaged employees in the three generations do

exhibit differences in the associated consequences of work engagement. Engaged Baby Boomer employees reveal more OCB and less intention to leave to than X and Y Generation employees do, whereas generational membership does not moderate the relationship between work engagement and organizational commitment.

The present study therefore recommends HR departments to put more effort into tailoring HRM on the basis of individual differences, rather than trying to suit generational differences, supporting the recommendations of Becton et al. (2014).

The rest of this section further investigates each of the predefined hypothesis in the context of moderating effect of generational differences.

5.3.1 Analysis of the Moderating Effect of GM on the Antecedents of WE

The first hypothesis examined the relationship between job autonomy and work engagement under the moderating effect of generational membership. The results indicate that generational membership (GM) does not moderate this relationship. Accordingly the hypothesis was not supported (unstandardized estimate = .01, S.E. =.05, P= .925).

The present study results on job autonomy and work engagement can be justified by the fact that the three generations in the UAE demand the same level of autonomy at work, contradicting the findings of Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) and Hansen and Leuty (2012), based on data from New Zealand and the USA respectively. Although one might assume that cultural change affects people differently, according to their age (demographic metabolism), our findings nonetheless appear valid, confirming that the three generations in the UAE demand the same level of job autonomy.

With this in mind, organizations and HRM professionals are recommended to adopt extra tools for widening job autonomy at work as suggested above: the impact of doing so on work engagement will be observed among all the UAE nationals employed. Further attention should be given to the organizational culture, managers' skills and competencies, and individual differences.

The second hypothesis in this context examined the relationship between performance feedback and work engagement, using generational membership as a moderator. The results in the present study indicate that generational membership (GM) does not moderate this relationship, thus failing to support the hypothesis (unstandardized estimate = .01, S.E. =.06, P= .924).

The results of the present study on performance feedback and generational membership illustrate that although performance feedback is positively correlated with work engagement in the UAE, no differences are found between the three generations in terms of the significant impact of performance feedback on work engagement. Accordingly the three generations agree on the level of importance of performance feedback for enhancing their work engagement. The findings of the present study are therefore in alignment with Real et al. (2010).

The sixth hypothesis of the present study was related to the moderating role of GM on the relationship between rewards and work engagement. The results of the analysis supported this hypothesis (unstandardized estimate = -.06, S.E. =.11, p = .566); hence, generational membership does not moderate the relationship between rewards and work engagement. Accordingly the present study identifies that the positive relationship between rewards and work engagement is not moderated by generational membership; that is, the relationship is constant in the three generations.

The present study findings on the constant relationship between rewards and work engagement in terms of generations are therefore in alignment with the findings of the study by Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008) in New Zealand, reflecting the stable influence of rewards on work engagement on all three generations in the UAE.

The constant relationship between rewards and work engagement can be further justified given today's economic conditions. The current high inflation rates, and the rise of the consumer price index (CPI) in the UAE have constant implications for employees of all generations. The findings are therefore in alignment with the findings of Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Dries, et al. (2008), which acknowledge that salary is still an important work value helping to determine career success in all generations.

In view of the constant relationship between rewards and work engagement for these three generations in the UAE, HRM professionals are recommended to adopt creative rewarding strategies, for both extrinsic and intrinsic purposes. Further research may be useful in exposing the differences in the UAE culture between the three generations with regard to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, using a representative sample.

The last moderation hypothesis bout antecedents analyzed the impact of CSR on work engagement, using generational membership as a moderating factors (no analysis was made to the work/life balance hypotheses in relation to generational membership). The results did not support this hypothesis (unstandardized estimate = .01, S.E. =.05, p = .930). Hence the present study results identify that the members of the three generations have the same attitude towards their employer's CSR initiatives

in terms of their implications for the level of work engagement. This supports the findings of the MTF time-lag study, Twenge (2010) and Twenge et al. (2010).

The constant relationship between CSR and work engagement for all three generations in the UAE can be justified by submitting that the three generations have the same level of response to the national attitude to initiatives supporting environmental and human initiatives. UAE nationals of many age groups and generations embrace Islamic and Arabic values, among which one of the major practical precepts is to offer support to others.

5.3.2 Moderating Effect of GM on the Consequences of WE

Hypothesis 12 in the present study is the first hypothesis that examines the relationship between work engagement and three consequences, as identified above using generational membership as a moderating factor. The hypothesis examines the relationship between work engagement and affective organizational commitment, using generational membership as a moderating factor. The results did not provide support for this hypothesis (unstandardized estimate = -.08, S.E. =.09, P = .430), illustrating that work engagement yields the same level of affective organizational commitment to all three of the generations under scrutiny in the UAE.

The constant relationship between work engagement and affective organization commitment in the UAE may be justified by recent employment practices in the UAE labor market, among which downsizing, re-engineering, and managed services have emerged. While many of such cost reduction tools are effectively used in the UAE labor market, they do not impact on the UAE nationals of various sectors who employ staff directly, because of the controls and regulations imposed by the

Ministry of Human Resources and Emiratization (formerly known as the Ministry of Labor). For instance in 2009, during the economic recession the Ministry issued Article (176) of the UAE labor law, indicating that UAE nationals must not be dismissed for reasons beyond those named in Article (120), which protect UAE nationals in employment from cost cutting practices. Article (176) also stipulated that organizations need to inform the Ministry 30 days in advance about terminations of employment for UAE nationals, and further sanctions may be permitted if the Ministry finds that an expatriate is performing the same duties as the UAE national whose employment has been terminated. The USA's Department of Labor Statistics (2013) report indicates that the new trends to a lack of organizational commitment and to reductions in organizational tenure globally need to be analyzed in the context of employers' practices. The lack of commitment in the new generations reflects that its commitment is not simply a generational trend, but rather a reaction to some of the practices in the labor market. Hence, organizational commitment should be perceived as an investment by both employers and employees. Government support and control in such instances yields the same level of organizational commitment across the three generations in the UAE, according to the present study findings. Similarly, the results are in alignment with those of Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008).

Further evaluation of OC in context of the post hoc analysis gives results in the present study that indicate that Baby Boomer employees have a higher level of affective organizational commitment than either the X or Y Generation ($P=0.006$, $P=0.00$, respectively). However, as most of the research in the field indicates (e.g. Brousseau et al. (1996), Putnam (2001) and Robinson and Jackson (2001)) the high level of OC among Baby Boomers should be analyzed in the context of the current employment opportunities and available career options, as moderated by information

about the respondents' career stage.

The second hypothesis on work engagement consequences and the moderating effect of generational membership examines the relationship between work engagement and OCB using the moderation effect of generational membership (H14). OCB refers to those behaviors that are not part of the organizational performance system. but promote the efficient and effective functioning of the organization.

The results of the present study provided support for this hypothesis: the moderation effect was significant at a 90% confidence interval (unstandardized estimate = -.13. S.E. =.07. p = .065), demonstrating that generational membership moderates the relationship between work engagement and OCB, where the moderation effect of generational membership is strongest in case of Baby Boomer employees and weakest in the case of Y Generation employees. That is, work engagement results in a higher OCB level among Baby Boomers than in the X and Y Generations' employees: engaged Baby Boomer employees demonstrate their work engagement via various OCB related behaviors at a higher level than is found among the engaged employees of later generations.

The study findings are thereby in alignment with those of Kuehn and Al-Busaidi (2002) from the Omani labor market. Moreover. the findings of Gyekye and Haybatollahi (2015) in the Ghanaian industrial market justify the transference of work engagement effects to the further OCB practices of older workers as an age phenomenon: with age, people become less self-centered. and more socially responsible. acting more altruistically.

Regarding the level of OCB among the three generations in the UAE. the results of post hoc analysis indicate that there is no difference in OCB level among the

different generational categories; hence the three generations have the same level of OCB. This may reflect the collective norms of the society which transfer the same level of OCB across the three generations in question. This echoes the findings of Wanxian and Weiwu (2007) in a Chinese context, which indicate that OCB is more likely to occur in collective and high power distance cultures, given the importance of group acceptance and subordination in a hierarchy. Although many might assume that the UAE culture and similarly other GCC cultures are changing, such changes are very slow and all these societies are still mainly collective with high power distance, although these traits may be diminishing.

The last hypothesis was related to the moderating effect of generational membership on the relationship between work engagement and intention to leave among UAE employees. The results of the analysis supported the hypothesis at a 90% confidence interval (unstandardized estimate = .25, S.E. =.13, P = .057). Hence the present study results indicate that generational membership moderates the negative relationship between work engagement and intention to leave. This relationship is strongest in the case of Baby Boomer employees and weakest for Y Generation employees, as the hypothesis predicted. This indicates that, once engaged, Baby Boomer employees show less intention to leave than members of the X and Y Generations do, in alignment with the findings of Lu and Gursoy (2016) and Park and Gursoy (2012) writing about the American hospitality sector.

Post hoc analysis of the intention to leave shows that there is a significant difference between the generations in terms of intention to leave (P = .012). Baby Boomer employees (mean = 1.94) are significantly different from the X Generation (mean= 2.76, P= 0.31) and the Y Generation (mean = 2.87, P= 0.010), yielding no

significant difference in terms of intention to leave between the X and Y generations. Accordingly, engaged Baby Boomer employees have lower turnover intentions than either the X or the Y Generation, but X and Y engaged employees are similar in the level of their intention to leave, confirming the findings of Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al. (2008).

The low intention to leave among Baby Boomer employees should be further analyzed in the context of age, career stage, organizational rank, opportunities on offer and mobility. As younger employees, members of both the X and Y Generations, with their technological abilities, may be better able to display their skills and competencies than older employees can.

Moreover, the low intention to leave needs to be analyzed with market demand in mind: while the older generation may have the required experience, more employment opportunities may exist for fresh graduates. Furthermore, most of the Baby Boomer employees are already close to retirement age, making it more challenging for them to move from their comfort zone and join a new employer.

5.4 Implications of Demographic and Socioeconomic variables for WE

The results of the above analysis provided support for most of the direct hypotheses and few of the moderation hypotheses. This section looks at the study data for patterns that were not specified in advance, mainly related to the impact of the demographic and socioeconomic variables on work engagement.

Analyzing the work engagement level according to different generations indicates that Baby Boomer employees do not differ from X and Y Generation employees when it comes to work engagement. However a significant difference exists

between the two latter groups: where X Generation employees are more engaged than their successors. Hence our results in the UAE indicate that Y Generation employees are the least engaged, followed by the X Generation while the Baby Boomers are the most engaged.

The findings are in alignment with the findings of Park and Gursoy (2012) across the American hospitality industry, and in partial agreement with Hoole and Bonnema (2015) whose observations of Baby Boomers show them to be the most engaged cohort in the South African sample. In the present study, the differences of engagement level between X and Y Generation employees, and their equal level of work engagement in the context of African based cultures, may be justified by the cultural norms and regional influences, according to Hoole and Bonnema (2015).

The present study results on the work engagement level among these three generations can, as a cross sectional study, be further analyzed in terms of age and career stage, as indicated by Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006). These writers illustrate that work engagement is positively related to age, whereas Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) posit that burnout decreases with age. These results, however, need to be taken carefully and not generalized, since the relation was found by Schaufeli et al. (2006) to be so weak that it can hardly be considered meaningful.

Moreover, the low level of work engagement among Y Generation employees may be analyzed in the context of their increased level of narcissism, lack of work centrality and fewer social approval requirements; this applies to the same generation worldwide, as discussed above, in addition to the recent changes in the GCC culture, and affected by the power of globalization, technology and Westernization. Societies everywhere are getting less collective promoting further individualism.

Furthermore, although generational membership moderates two of the relations (OCB and Intention to leave), post hoc analysis illustrate that the three generations don't differ in their OCB level. Whereas organizational commitment level differs among generations, as the current study post hock analysis results indicate that Baby Boomers are more organizationally committed and have less intention to leave compared to X and Y generations. Supporting the findings of organizational commitment levels in in context of European culture, of Amato and Herzfeldt (2008), and the employment attrition trends in context of American cultures, as per the findings of Lu and Gursoy (2016).

The present study results in terms of the work engagement level related to the highest qualification obtained by the respondents, indicates a significant difference in work engagement levels between diploma and higher diploma holders and post-graduate degree holders (masters and doctors), the latter being more engaged than the diploma holders. That is, the present study results indicate that higher qualifications are positively correlated with work engagement, that is work engagement mean is positively correlated with qualifications (Table 30). This result conflicts with the findings of Maslach et al. (2001), which claim that educational level positively correlates with work burnout, as justified by the greater job responsibilities of post-graduate degree holders and hence higher associated stress levels, along with higher expectations.

The positive correlation between work engagement and higher qualifications in the present study can, however, be justified by the cultural norms of the UAE. UAE nationals with such qualifications occupy senior positions in view of their job related competencies, a finding which may need to be further analyzed to in alignment with

organizational rank. Furthermore, it might be pertinent to note that education allows for greater self-awareness, through which individuals can strengthen their self-control and thereby their work engagement.

Evaluating work engagement against organizational rank, the results of post hoc analysis using ANOVA showed that entry level employees have lower work engagement levels than managerial and top management level employees do, whereas supervisory level employees do not differ from those in other categories. The results of finding the mean of work engagement across the three generations demonstrate that work engagement in positively correlated with organizational rank; that is, the higher the organizational rank, the higher the work engagement level.

The findings of the present study are thereby in alignment with the findings of Karasek and Theorell (1990), K. Lee and Allen (2002), Lee et al. (2000) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990). Similarly, the present study results confirm the findings of Mauno et al. (2007) in their longitudinal study of health care personnel in Finland.

Experience with the current employer is another element that seems to have significant implications for work engagement in the present study. Its results establish that employees who have completed between 7-10 years with their current employer are more engaged than those who have less than 6 years' experience and even those with more than 10 years' experience. This suggests that work engagement levels reach their peak after about 7-10 years, where the highest average level of work engagement in the present study was recorded.

These numbers, however, need further analysis within the changing career patterns among different generations, even though the literature on work engagement urges that engagement is a physiological status, which does not depend on the length

of experience, yet can be enhanced over time.

Results of a T test indicate no differences between the work engagement level of male and female respondents in the present study (P= 0.274. The average mean for males is at 4, while that for females is at 3.9).

The findings are therefore in alignment with the findings of Shaufeli et al. (2006) and Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998). Yet the present study results may have further implications in the context of the UAE's culture, where women were concentrated in the medical and teaching professions in the 1970s and early 1980s. Although women in the UAE have progressed significantly and have proved themselves in various political roles (more than seven ministers were appointed in the last decree of the Federal Council in 2016), but the equality laws for the two genders and their levels of work engagement will further encourage the employment of females.

Additionally, no differences were found between work engagement levels among employees of different marital status; consequently, HR professionals should not use gender or marital status as a lens for selecting UAE nationals who apply for jobs.

Further post hoc analysis of the present study illustrates that none of the other demographic and socioeconomic factors have significant implications for work engagement. For instance, the present study could find that neither employment sector nor employment industry has implications for work engagement. Hence, government and private sector employees show no major differences, in terms of work engagement

Similarly, neither the emirates of residence nor the emirates of working implied

anything about work engagement, according to the data of the present study, illustrating that all the UAE nationals reflect the same level of work engagement, despite the economic differences between the seven emirates.

Finally, although many are still uncertain about responses obtained through the social media, our data indicate that no differences in work engagement levels were found between those who responded through their employer and those who received the survey through social media channels. The present study therefore recommends the use of social media for social studies in the UAE, along with effectively representative sampling. This is supported by a recent study by the Dubai Statistical Center about young Emiratis illustrates that around 91.7% of the sampled males use social media, and so does 91.8% of females, while almost 75% of the sample most often use the internet as a related means of communication The study further identifies that young Emiratis (between the ages of 15 and 28) are estimated to number around 63,000, making up 30% of Dubai's population (Hani, 2016).

5.5 Conclusion

The present study shed light on one of the major challenges for HRM professionals in the UAE, being considered one of the few that has examined generational differences in the context of the UAE culture.

The study started by identifying a number of antecedents and consequences for work engagement, which was analyzed in the context of UAE culture, after which the moderating effect of generational membership was examined. Overall, the study indicates that the Y Generation are more similar than different to one another, but employers should give more attention to individual differences, rather than adapting HR practices to generational membership.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This study aimed to analyze the antecedents and consequences of work engagement in the UAE, using generational membership as a moderating factor.

For this purpose 502 working Emiratis from the three generations under scrutiny responded to the survey; their representation was in alignment with their proportion in the population and their demographic contribution. Analysis of the results indicated that all the identified antecedents predicted work engagement in context of UAE, except work/life balance. Similarly, all the identified consequences were found to be significantly correlated with work engagement in the UAE's culture and its associated norms. When moderation impact of generational membership was examined, the present study results established that the relationship between the identified antecedents were constant in the context of work engagement. That is, three of the four identified work engagement antecedents – the job characteristics of job autonomy and performance feedback, rewards and corporate social responsibility (CSR) – contribute to the same level of work engagement across the three generations in the UAE. Moreover, the results of the present study indicate that generational membership moderates two of the identified work engagement consequences, OCB and Intention to leave. The relationship is stronger for the Baby Boomers and considered to be weakest for the Generation Y employees. That is, engaged Baby Boomer employees translate their work engagement into further OCB and a weaker intention to leave than the other generations exhibit. These findings, however, need to be examined in alignment with age and career stage.

The post hoc analysis in the present study demonstrates that Y Generation

employees are least engaged, followed by X Generation employees, while Baby Boomer employees are the most engaged. Moreover, entry level employees have lower work engagement than managerial and top management employees have. The study indicates that post-graduate degree holders (holders of Masters' and Doctorate degrees) are more engaged than diploma and HD holders are. Hence education and organizational rank are positively correlated with work engagement in the present study. Similarly, experience with one's current employer is a significant element in predicting work engagement; this reaches its peak in the group with 7-10 years of experience with the current employer. No differences, however, are found regarding gender, marital status employer type, employment sector, emirates of working/residence or method of receiving the questionnaire in relation to work engagement.

The study in general is one of the few examples of relevant research in the UAE and the Arabian Gulf region that sheds light on generational differences in relation to work engagement antecedents and consequences with a representative sample; hence it contributes to the literature on work engagement and generational differences in several ways. First, it examines the implications of the selected work engagement antecedents and consequences in the UAE. Second, it analyses the selected work antecedents and consequences of work engagement using generational membership as a moderating factor. Finally, it examines work engagement in the UAE workforce from both demographic and socioeconomic perspectives, in addition to the generational differences perspective.

Overall, the present study findings indicate that generational differences have a minor impact on antecedents and consequences of work engagement, showing differences only in the consequences of work engagement, where the members of the

Y Generation in the UAE are more similar than they are different. In consequence, the present study recommends giving further attention to individual differences, rather than constructing HR programs on the basis of generational membership.

Taking the identified results into consideration, this chapter further explores the implications of managerial and research practices, limitations and the direction of future research.

6.2 Managerial Implications

Leading Human Resources Management (HRM) specialists, managers and researchers are becoming interested in ways to manage and work with people from different generations (Macky, Gardner, Forsyth, Cennamo, et al., 2008). The present study demonstrates that the members of the Y Generation in the UAE are more similar than different, in alignment with the findings of Wey Smola and Sutton (2002). As a result it recommends giving further attention to organizational culture and individual differences rather than customizing HR practices to suit generational differences.

The present research findings indicate that all three generations demand job autonomy from their employers, according to which managers are recommended to remove some controls, allow for further autonomy, but retain accountability. Flexible working hours and Management by Objectives (MBO) will allow for further job enhancement and thereby work engagement.

Given the consistent relationship between performance feedback and work engagement across the three generations in the UAE, managers are recommended to give frequent, accurate, specific and timely feedback to all employees, regardless of their age. They should use such tools; as a performance management system (PMS), personal development plans (PDP), and various communication channels, to enhance

the work engagement of employees.

Moreover, the present study recommends HR managers to use creative rewarding tools, with an effective balance between financial and non-financial tools. In addition, they should use tools for rewarding individual performance and team based performance. The selection of such rewards should be in alignment with the organizational culture and individual preferences acknowledging current inflation rates and growth in gross domestic product (GDP). The last two considerations suggest that frequent salary increments, say, 1% every quarter, would be preferable to a 3% increase at the end of the year for people in the UAE.

The present study findings illustrate that work life balance is not positively correlated to work engagement in context of the UAE. Which has been further analyzed in context of the UAE culture and associated HR practices. In light of this the study indicates that for work/life balance tools such as flexible working hours, day care centers, gym facilities, distance working or part time and job sharing practices to yield the required impact on work engagement, organizations need to have the right culture and supportive management teams. These would allow for the use of such facilities without judgment or implications for an employee's career. Flexible working hours are the among the most strongly recommended practices for UAE employees, given the volume of road traffic especially in the emirates of Abu Dhabi, Dubai and Sharjah; it would enable employees to perform other activities, whether parental or sporting, before arriving at work. However, it should only be offered for those jobs that are not concerned with internal or external customers.

Furthermore, to enhance work engagement, given the significant relationship between it and CSR, HR managers and professionals are recommended to set aside per

month or per year a number of community support hours in each employee's working hours. In addition they should involve employees in a range of diverse initiatives extended by the organization to support the community in the UAE, or internationally, reflecting the organization's further responsibility to the extended community. Furthermore daily practices of managing waste and energy consumption need to be perceived by employers in all sectors of the UAE, given their implications for employees' engagement. Employers are thereby recommended to create the required employment brand to attract UAE nationals as employees and further enhance their work engagement through the adoption of various CSR initiatives.

To enhance work engagement across all their employees, organizations are recommended to invest more in their orientation programs in order to enhance their employees' engagement at entry level, with further focus on their junior employees.

Organizations are also recommended to invest in supporting their employees' attempts to obtain further qualifications, through both study leave and scholarship programs, in which the organization supports the employee financially. This would naturally commit the employee to complete the agreed number of years in service, building mutual advantage between the two parties. Moreover, because work engagement reaches its peak when employees have had 7 to 10 years of experience in the present workplace, and falls back afterwards (with experience of 10 years or more) organizations are recommended to invest in those employees who have completed more than 10 years of service. The deployment of various tools such as work rotation and job shadowing will enhance the work engagement of such employees, or perhaps they can serve as mentors and coaches.

Similarly, taking the affective organizational commitment level of Baby

Boomer employees, their ability to translate work engagement into organizational citizenship behaviors, and their weaker intention to leave suggest that organizations would be well advised to use them as raw models or mentors for young Emiratis, for the purpose of advertising their behavior and attitude at work.

Although the present study identifies that Y Generation employees have less organizational commitment and a stronger intention to leave than their elders, this result should be taken in conjunction with their career phase, organizational culture and their firms' downsizing practices. Organizations are therefore recommended to offer open HR clinics with the employees, annual engagement and satisfaction surveys, and the effective use of different communication tools including the social media, which will enable them to enhance their communication with their 24/7 connected generation. HR departments are thereby advised to create special accounts on the social media to be used as platforms between the management and their employees. Moreover, organizations are recommended to invest in developing young Emiratis' competencies, while offering suitable career plans that support their development, in order to build and maintain their mutual interests with this generation.

Finally, although much of the literature focuses on organizational practices, the present study indicates the importance of paying more attention to organizational selection and assessment tools. Among these, employers are recommended to look for self-based competencies such as self-awareness, emotional intelligence, openness to experience, interpersonal sensitivity, ambition, extraversion, adjustment and conscientiousness, optimism, self-esteem, resilience and all sorts of active coping styles that help individuals to control and influence their own work environment and achieve career success; they should be developed in new recruits via corporate training programs, including on line training and on the job training. Assessment tools should

be able to use UAE based norms, or the assessment tools that have been developed in the region, or even those that have proved their validity in the context of the GCC, in order to allow for the required competencies to be effectively assessed.

Moreover, since no differences are found between females level of work engagement, further attention should be given to the above competencies rather than using gender to screen Emirati job applicants.

To conclude, work engagement is an investment by both parties; the employee and the employer. This relationship is perhaps becoming increasingly complicated for both, but managers and HR professionals need to understand that there is no "one size fits all" approach, since each organization is unique, with its own culture and needs, not to mention the unique of individual employees. Moreover, for work engagement levels to improve, much time is needed before any adopted practices or strategy yield the required benefits and reveal their implications. Human behavior is so complicated that organizations need to take the time element into consideration and take longer to reflect.

6.3 Research Implication and Future Directions

The present research is one of the few studies that addresses generational differences and work engagement in relation to the UAE culture. Further research is needed in the domain of generational differences, which are better observed over time through longitudinal rather than cross sectional studies.

The main findings of the study lie in its identification of the Y Generation in the UAE, whose members seem to be more similar than different. Among the major contributions of this study is the analysis of work engagement antecedents and consequences in the context of UAE culture. Among these antecedents and

consequences the non-significant relationship between work/life balance and work engagement needs to be further assessed.

Similarly, the cultural dimensions of the UAE should be reassessed, having undergone the effect of globalization, Westernization, and the power of technological advance. To encourage further social research in the context of the UAE, examining the exploitation of the social media is recommended: the present study demonstrates that no differences are observed in work engagement level when the different methods of receiving and enhancing the use of these media in related social domains are compared.

The present study sheds light on the generational differences theory or what is known as "Demographic Metabolism" (Ryder, 1965) and "Collective Memories" (Schuman and Scott 1989). The findings of Ryder and Schumann and Scott point out that, although such theories may impact on different life and work-related behavioral elements, their implications for the antecedents and consequences of work engagement in the UAE culture is limited. Hence, further research is suggested on kindred HR topics, including rewarding, developing and training and even studies such as those on marketing and consumer behavior. Similarly, although the selected antecedents are in alignment with the available literature regarding generational differences, more consideration needs to be given to the UAE's culture and related norms. Here, an experimental (qualitative) study is recommended that would give more insight into the related antecedents and consequences in the UAE. Once these antecedents and consequences are identified in a qualitative approach, a quantitative study is recommended, using a bigger scale survey (with a larger sample) that effectively represents the three generations. Studies of generational differences may further involve HR professionals and line managers, through which generational behavior can

be further investigated by examining HR practices and coaching and developing approaches from those who recruit, manage and develop young employees.

Moreover, a customized study is recommended for each sector, which takes account of their HR practices. For instance, a study might target private sector employees alone or those who are working in the financial, medical or educational sectors, since these are the major sectors targeted by the UAE government for Emiratization.

Although a number of antecedents and consequences are defined by work engagement theories and models, each culture is unique and hence many of the defined antecedents may have different implications in the context of different cultures; this means that examining the identified antecedents and consequences of this study in context of other cultures is to be recommended. Further analysis would also be useful for comparing cultures, in order to examine the impact of generational differences on each.

Our study thereby raises a number of opportunities for future research, both in terms of theory development and concept. Further investigation of the concepts of "Demographic Metabolism" and "Collective Memories" is recommended under the aegis on social science and the associated cultural norms.

6.4 Research Limitations

The following limitations need to be borne in mind in analyzing the associated results. Cross sectional and self-reporting is the major limitation of the present study, similar to other studies in the field (Park and Gursoy 2012; Saks, 2006; Oba and Yamashita, 2009). Age, life stage and career stage implications are not differentiated from generational membership and to counteract this a time lag study is recommended.

Furthermore, common methods bias is commonly observed in research based on self-reported measures, although a number of tools have been used in the present study to prevent it. For instance the survey was enclosed with a cover letter which explained the purpose of the research, while the purpose of each section was explained in detail before it could be answered. Similarly, the questionnaire took the "Anonymity" approach, as proposed by Podskoff et al. (2003) and no information was asked for that could identify the respondent. Additionally, the scale/measurement tool used in the survey had multi-items with high reliability being a well-established scale, avoiding ambiguity and complication.

Moreover although the present study used stratified random sampling to assess the proportions of each generation in the UAE demographic structure, the Baby Boomers' responses were limited (in sample size), suggesting that future research should use a bigger sample with fair representation of other two generations to correspond. Even so, this could be justified by claiming that most Baby Boomers in the UAE are already retired from work.

Robert Half, the world's first and largest specialized recruitment consultancy, through their annual study that involved more than 75 interviews with senior finance executives in the UAE, which took place in 2016 identifies that 84% of finance leaders in the UAE are concerned of a kills' gap occurring as retirement for baby boomers is getting closer. The concerns are mostly raised by the fact that Baby Boomers being as skilled and professional participants in the workforce. According to which interviewed finance executives believe that there will be a negative impact resulted from the departure of the Baby Boomers. As a remedy for this, Robert Half research identifies that 36% of UAE business are preparing for skills gap, by enhancing their training and development programs targeting younger generations. Whereas 32% of the sampled

companies are considering offering additional benefits to retain baby boomers, while 28% of their researched organizations started increasing mentoring programs with the aim of transferring knowledge. Other remedies included, hiring senior talents in order to replace retiring Baby Boomers employees and offering part time and flexible work arrangements to attract skilled and experienced Baby Boomers, a part from their succession planning strategies (Half, 2016). It is noted that laws in the UAE requires 20 years of service to retirement, whereas the age of receiving pension is 49 years. Whereas internationally, the Wall Street Journal highlighted on July 22nd of the year 2014, that each day 10,000 Baby Boomers retire, among around 76 billion that are exist in the world (Kessler, 2014).

Additionally, given the infancy of state-regulated education, few Baby Boomers in the UAE have the qualifications that would enable them to work in the participated organization. Though Baby Boomers are still part of the labor force, their contribution may be made in small to medium-sized enterprises (SME), often in their own businesses as entrepreneurs. According to Kaufman Foundation, Baby Boomers are the most powerful entrepreneurial group. Taking into consideration their financial, managerial and technical skills, along with their entrepreneurial abilities, Kaufman Foundation identify that they are twice likely to launch a new business in 2015 in comparison to Y Generation (Daisyme, 2015).

Moreover, though the present study found a significant moderating effect of generational membership on the relationship between work engagement and both organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and intention to leave, the findings of the study are limited to the UAE culture, which may limit their generalizability.

Finally, although the present research has used instruments/measures that have

been employed in different cultures, researchers commonly complain about the lack of generally acceptable instruments. For instance organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and organizational commitment may have different indicators/implications in the context of the UAE culture. While our study may be considered an early step in the research on OCB and work engagement in non-Western nations, as far as we understand, no UAE-based defined scale for any of the selected antecedents or consequences has been developed for the purposes of measurement and evaluation in the UAE culture.

6.5 Summary

Generational Differences and work engagement are major challenges for most organizations worldwide. The present study has tried to improve our understanding of both, and has thereby delivered a number of implications for both managerial and research aspects in a very quickly growing economy. Although a number of limitation are associated with the present research, it is an early attempt in its region, where further studies are recommended not only in the context of HRM and other areas of social science but also in other fields, such as marketing, consumer behavior and family science.

Studies of the young generations in the UAE are in alignment with recent government efforts. For instance in February 2016 the government appointed a Minister for Youth. H.E. Shamma Al Mazrui (22 years old) is believed to be the world's youngest minister; her mission is dedicated to bridging the gap between young UAE nationals and the leadership. Similarly, in October (2016) H.H. Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, UAE vice-president and prime minister, ruler of

Dubai, launched "Youth Retreat", an interactive brainstorming three-day session, which involved all the ministers and a large number of young Emiratis from different fields below the age of 25. The Youth Retreat was considered a remarkable step in building the nation's future vision on the basis of young people's dreams and aspirations.

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Appendix

Work Engagement Antecedents and Consequences across Generations in the United Arab Emirates

Dear Respondent:

I invite you to participate in a research study entitled (Work Engagement Antecedents and Consequences across Generations in the United Arab Emirates). **Please note that you can only participate in this study if you are 18 years or older.** I am currently enrolled in the Doctorate Program at the United Arab Emirates' University, and I am in the process of writing my doctorate dissertation. The purpose of the research is to determine the work engagement antecedents and associated consequences in context of three generations in the United Arab Emirates. Accordingly recommend suitable tools and policies to HR professionals and decision makers to; attract, maintain and retain young Emiratis, which shall enhances their participation.

Through your participation, I hope to understand how best to satisfy the needs of each generation in the work environment. Enclosed with this letter a brief questionnaire that asks a variety of questions about your attitude toward your current job. Please take few minutes to answer each question on the survey as completely and accurately as possible. Your responses will be processed with full confidentially and only group data will be made available. No one other than the researcher will know your individual answers to this questionnaire.

If you have any questions regarding the survey or would like a copy of the survey

عوامل الارتباط الوظيفي والنتائج المترتبة على مدى الأجيال في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة

عزيزي المشارك/ عزيزتي المشاركة :

أدعوك للمشاركة في دراسة بحثية بعنوان "عوامل الارتباط الوظيفي ونتائجه المترتبة على مدى الأجيال في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة".(يرجى ملاحظة أنه يمكنك المشاركة فقط في هذه الدراسة إذا كنت 18 سنة أو أكثر) . اعمل حالياً على نيل درجة الدكتوراه و بصدد كتابة اطروحتي الخاصة، و التي تهدف إلى تحديد عوامل الارتباط الوظيفي والنتائج المترتبة على مدى ثلاثة أجيال في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة. ووفقاً لذلك، سوف يتم استثمار نتائج هذا التقييم في تقديم التوصيات بالأدوات والسياسات المثمرة لخبراء الموارد البشرية وصناع القرار وذلك بهدف تعزيز مشاركة الموارد البشرية الإماراتية ،عن طريق خلق بيئة عمل جاذبة لهم، تعمل على المحافظة عليهم والاحتفاظ بهم.

من خلال مشاركتك القيمة، أمل في أن أتوصل إلى أفضل السبل التي تلبي احتياجات كل جيل في بيئة العمل، حيث ستجد مع هذه الرسالة استبيان يطرح مجموعة متنوعة من الأسئلة حول موقفك تجاه وظيفتك الحالية. أرجوا أن تمنحه بضع دقائق من وقتك للإجابة على كل سؤال في الاستبيان بشكل كامل ودقيق بقدر الإمكان. ولضمان خصوصيتكم، سيتم التعامل مع ردودكم بطريقة سرية، بينما سيتم تحليل البيانات على مستوى المجموعة فقط، كما أنه لن يقوم أي احد بالاطلاع على إجاباتك الفردية في هذا الاستبيان سوى الباحث .

إذا كانت لديك أية أسئلة بخصوص الدراسة، أو تريد الحصول على نسخة من نتائج الدراسة، يرجى التواصل على عنوان البريد الالكتروني : nahla.abdulla@yahoo.com.

يرجى الملاحظة أن المشاركة في الدراسة طوعية ، وفقا لذلك فقد يتم الانسحاب في أي وقت، إذا كنت قد قررت أن تكون جزءا من الدراسة يرجى التكرم بالرد على كل سؤال من الأسئلة التالية.

شكراً لمنحي وقتك و لمساعدتي في اتمام هذه الدراسة .

- القســــم الأول:

تتمحور العبارات التالية حول شعورك/ سلوكك في العمل. يرجى قراءة كل عبارة بعناية وتحديد ما اذا شعرت في أي وقت من الأوقات بهذا الشعور / قمت بهذا السلوك في عملك. اذا لم يسبق لك أن شعرت بهذا الشعور/ السلوك، ضع علامة ✓ أمام الرقم "1" (واحد) وإذا سبق وشعرت بهذا الشعور/السلوك، ضع علامة ✓ أمام الأرقام من 2-4 و التي تصف عدد المرات التي شعرت بها بهذا الشعور/ السلوك.

-Section1:

The following statements are about how you feel and behave at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel/ behave this way in your job. If you have never had this feeling/ behavior, cross the ✓"1" (one) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling/ behavior, indicate how often you felt it by crossing the number✓ (from 2 to 4) that best describes how frequently you feel/ behave that way.

إطلاقاً	نادراً	أحياناً	غالباً	دائماً
1	2	3	4	5
إطلاقاً	مرة أو أقل في الشهر	عدة مرات في الشهر	أسبوعياً	يومياً
Never	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Often**	**Always**
1	2	3	4	5
Never	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	Everyday

	Items	البنـــود	1 إطلاقا Never	2 نادرا Rarely	3 احيانا Sometimes	4 غالبا Often	5 دائما Always
1.	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	أثناء العمل، أشعر بأني أتدفق طاقةً.					
2.	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	في عملي ، أشعر بأنني مفعم بالحيوية ونشيط.					
3.	I am enthusiastic about my job.	أنا متحمس لوظيفتي.					
4.	My job inspires me.	وظيفتي تلهمني.					
5.	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	عندما استيقظ في الصباح، أشعر بأنني أرغب في الذهاب للعمل.					

Items	البنـــود	1 إطلاقا Never	2 نادرا Rarely	3 أحيانا Someti mes	4 غالبا Often	5 دائما Always
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	اشعر بالسعادة عندما اعمل بشكل مكثف.					
7. I am proud of the work that I do.	أنا فخور بالعمل الذي أقوم به.					
8. I am immersed in my work.	أنا أستغرق في عملي.					
9. I get carried away when I am working.	أسترسل عندما أعمل.					
10. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.	أمنح وقتي برغبتي لمساعدة الآخرين الذين يواجهون مشاكل تتعلق بالعمل.					
11. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	أضبط برنامج عملي لتلبية حاجات الموظفين الآخرين الراغبين في الحصول على إجازة.					
12. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.	أمنح وقتي لمساعدة الآخرين الذين لديهم مشاكل في العمل وخارجه.					
13. Assist others with their duties.	أساعد الآخرين في مهامهم.					
14. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.	احضر المناسبات التي قد تكون غير مطلوبة ولكنها تساعد على تحسين صورة المؤسسة.					
15. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.	أعرض أفكار من شأنها تحسين أداء المؤسسة.					
16. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.	اتخذ الإجراءات اللازمة لحماية المؤسسة من المشاكل المحتملة.					
17. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.	أدافع عن المؤسسة عند انتقاد الموظفين الآخرين لها.					

القسم الثاني:

يرجى تحديد مستوى موافقتك على العبارات أدناه التي تتعلق بعملك الحالي و مؤسستك و
قناعاتك   بوضع علامة ✓:

Section 2:

On a scale of 1-5 kindly indicate your level of agreement on the below statements

with relation to your current job and employer and general beliefs by ticking the

appropriate box✓:

1	2	3	4	5
لا أؤيد بشدة	لا أؤيد	عادي	أؤيد	أؤيد بشدة
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree SD	Disagree D	Neutral N	Agree A	Strongly Agree SA

	Items	البنـــود	1 لا أؤيد بشدة SD	2 لا أؤيد D	3 عادي N	4 أؤيد A	5 أؤيد بشدة SA
1.	I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire.	سأكون سعيدا جدا إذا عملت في هذه المؤسسة حتى سن التقاعد.					
2.	Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	العمل في هذه المؤسسة يعني الكثير بالنسبة لي شخصياً.					
3.	I really feel that problems faced by my organization are also my problems.	أشعر فعلاً كما لو أن مشاكل هذه المؤسسة هي مشاكلي أنا.					
4.	I feel personally attached to my work organization.	أشعر بأنني 'مرتبط عاطفياً "بهذه المؤسسة.					
5.	I am proud to tell others I work at my organization.	أشعر بالفخر عندما أخبر الآخرين أنني أعمل في هذه المؤسسة.					

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| 6. | I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization | أشعر بإحساس قوي بالانتماء إلى مؤسستي. | | | | | |

Items	البنـــود	1 لا أؤيد بشدة SD	2 لا أؤيد D	3 عادي N	4 أؤيد A	5 أؤيد بشدة SA
7. I frequently think of quitting my job	في كثير من الأحيان أفكر في الاستقالة من وظيفتي.					
8. I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months.	أنا أخطط للبحث عن وظيفة جديدة خلال الأشهر ال 12 المقبلة.					
9. If I have my own way, I will not be working for this organization one year from now.	إذا تركت الأمور لي ، فسوف لن أعمل لهذه المنظمة سنة واحدة من الآن.					
10. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own.	وظيفتي تسمح لي بأخذ الكثير من القرارات بنفسي.					
11. I have a lot of say over what happens on my job.	لدي متسع من الحرية لتقرير مجريات عملي.					
12. I have enough freedom as to how I do my work.	لدي ما يكفي من الحرية لكيفية ممارسة عملي					
13. I have enough authority to do my best.	لدي الصلاحية الكافية للقيام بما هو الأفضل في وظيفتي.					
14. My Personal life doesn't suffer because of my work.	لا أعاني في حياتي الشخصية بسبب عملي.					
15. My job doesn't make my personal life difficult.	وظيفتي لا تجعل من حياتي الشخصية صعبة.					
16. I don't neglect my personal needs because of my work.	لا أهمل احتياجاتي الشخصية بسبب عملي.					
17. I don't have to put personal life on hold for work.	لا أحتاج ان أضع حياتي الشخصية جانباً من أجل العمل.					
18. I don't miss personal activities because of my work.	لا أفوت أنشطتي الشخصية بسبب عملي.					

	Items	البنـــود					
19.	I don't struggle to juggle work and non-work.	لا أكافح للموازنه بين العمل و اللاعمل (المتعة).					
20.	I am happy with the amount of time for non-work activities.	أنا سعيد بكمية الوقت المتاحة للنشاطات المختلفة غير المتعلقة بالعمل.					
21.	The job itself provides feedback on my performance.	تقدم الوظيفة في حد ذاتها تغذية راجعة على أدائي.					

	Items	البنـــود	1 لا أويد بشدة SD	2 لا أويد D	3 عادي N	4 أويد A	5 أويد بشدة SA
22.	The job itself provides me with information about my performance.	تقدم لي الوظيفة في حد ذاتها معلومات عن أدائي					
23.	The work activities themselves provide direct and clear information about the effectiveness (e.g., quality and quantity) of my job performance.	تقدم أنشطة العمل نفسها معلومات مباشرة وواضحة حول فعالية أدائي الوظيفي (على سبيل المثال، النوعية والكمية).					
24.	My supervisor gives me useful feedback about my job performance.	أتلقى تغذية راجعة مفيدة من مشرف عملي حول أدائي الوظيفي.					
25.	I frequently receive positive feedback from my supervisor.	كثيرا ما أتلقى تغذية راجعة إيجابية من مشرف عملي.					
26.	Our company provides financial support for humanitarian causes and charities	تقدم شركتنا الدعم المالي للحالات الإنسانية والأعمال الخيرية.					
27.	Our company invests in clean technologies and renewable.	تستثمر شركتنا في التكنولوجيا النظيفة والمتجددة.					
28.	Our company implements policies that improve the well-being of its employees at work.	تطبق شركتنا السياسات التي تساعد على تحسين رفاهية وسعادة موظفيها في العمل.					

29.	Our company supports its employees' work and life balance (e.g., flextime, part time work, flexible working arrangements).	مؤسستنا تدعم عمل موظفيها والتوازن في حياتهم (مثلا، توفر أوقات عمل مرنة، عمل بدوام جزئي، ترتيبات عمل مرنة).					

القسم الثالث:

الأهمية : إلى أي مدى يشكل كل بند أولوية بالنسبة لك في عملك؟

يرجى الرد على المشار إليه أدناه لتوضيح أهميته بحسب الخانات الخمس ابتداءً من الأقل أهمية (1) للدلالة على انه ليس مهم على الإطلاق ووصولا إلى الأكثر أهمية (5) للدلالة على أنه مهم جداً وذلك عن طريق وضع علامة ✓.

Section 3:

Importance: To what extent is each item a priority for you in your work?

Kindy respond to the below indicating the importance of the same using a five-point Likert-type scale with anchors (1) to a small extent that is not at all important to (5) a large extent, that is very important using (✓).

1	2	3	4	5
ليس مهماً على الإطلاق	مهم قليلاً	مهم	مهم إلى حد ما	مهم جداً
Not at all important	Slightly important	Important	Fairly important	Very important

	Items	البنـــود	1 ليس مهم على الإطلاق Not at all important	2 مهم قليلاً Slightly important	3 مهم Important	4 مهم إلى حد ما Fairly important	5 مهم جداً Very important
1.	Job Responsibility.	المسؤولية الوظيفية.					
2.	Job security (permanent job).	الأمن الوظيفي (وظيفة دائمة).					
3.	Benefits and social conditions	الفوائد والظروف الاجتماعية					

	Items	البنـــود	1 ليس مهم على الأطلاق Not at all important	2 مهم قليلاً Slightly important	3 مهم Important	4 مهم إلى حد ما Fairly important	5 مهم جداً Very important
	(vacation, sick leave, pension).	(إجازة، إجازة مرضية، معاش تقاعدي).					
4.	Recognition for doing a good job.	التقدير عند القيام بعمل جيد.					
5.	Esteem—that you are valued as a person.	التبجيل - كونك شخص يتم تقديره و احترامه.					
6.	Influence in the organization.	القدرة على التأثير في المؤسسة.					
7.	Achievement in work.	الإنجاز في العمل.					
8.	Advancement (chances for promotion).	التقدم الوظيفي (فرص الترقية).					
9.	Influence in work.	القدرة في التأثير على الأعمال المناط بها.					
10.	Co-workers (fellow workers who are pleasant and agreeable).	زملاء العمل (زملاء العمل اللطفاء والمقبولين).					
11.	To do complete and meaningful work.	القيام بالعمل الكامل والهادف.					
12.	Supervisor (a fair and considerate boss).	المشرف (عادل ومحترم لرغبات و مشاعر الموظفين).					
13.	Job Status.	المكانة الوظيفة.					
14.	Independence in work	الاستقلالية في العمل.					

	Items	البنـــود	1 ليس مهم على الأطلاق Not at all important	2 مهم قليلاً Slightly important	3 مهم Important	4 مهم إلى حد ما Fairly important	5 مهم جداً Very important
15.	Flexible working hours	ساعات عمل مرنه.					
16.	Contribution to society.	المساهمة المجتمعية.					
17.	Company (to be employed by a company for which you are proud to work).	الشركة (أن تكون موظفا في شركة تفخر بالعمل فيها).					
18.	Use of ability and knowledge in your work.	استخدام القدرات والمعارف في العمل					
19.	Job interest (to do work which is interesting and well-liked by you.	الاستمتاع بالعمل (القيام بالأعمال التي تثير اهتمامك والمحبوبة لديك).					
20.	Pay (the amount of money you receive).	الأجر (مبلغ المال الذي تتلقاه).					
21.	Work conditions (comfortable and clean, absence of noise, heat, cold, odors, etc.)	ظروف العمل والبيئة الخارجية (مريحة ونظيفة خالية من الإزعاج والروائح و درجة حرارة مناسبة وغيرها).					

22.	Working form distance (working from home)	العمل عن بعد (العمل من المنزل)					
23	Day Care Center	مركز رعاية الأطفال					
24.	Gym Facilities	مرافق رياضية					
25.	Part Time Work	عمل جزئي					

القسم الرابع:

يرجى الإشارة على مدى موافقتكم على الأسئلة التالية

Section four:

Kindly indicate your agreement on the below statements

Items	البنـــود	1	2	3	4	5
		لا أويد بشدة	لا أويد	عادي	أويد	أويد بشدة
		SD	D	N	A	SA
I am concerned that my financial records might not be adequately protected if I shop online.	أنا متخوف من عدم حماية سجلات الحسابات المالية الخاصة بي بالشكل الكافي في حال قيامي بالتسوق عبر الانترنت.					
It is not safe to give my credit card number when I order online.	ليس من المأمون تقديم رقم بطاقتي الإئتمانية عندما أقوم بطلب منتج عبر الانترنت.					

Section Five:
Kindly select the appropriate box among the following using ✓:

القسم الخامس:
يرجى تحديد الخانة المناسبة من بين الآتي
عن طريق وضع علامة ✓:

Gender:	☐ أنثى	☐ ذكر	النـوع:
	☐ Female	☐ Male	

Year of Birth:	□ بين 1997-1980	□بين 1965 و 1979	□ قبل 1965	عام الميلاد:
	□Between 1980-1997	□ From 1965-1979	□Before 1965	
Marital Status:	□ أخرى	□ متزوج	□ أعزب	الحالة الاجتماعية:
	□ Others	□ Married	□Single	
Highest Qualification:	□بكالوريوس	□دبلوم/دبلوم عالي	□الثانوية العامة	أعلى مؤهل علمي:
	□Bachelor	□Diploma/HD	□High School	
	□ Higher Education Master/ Doctorate)	□الدراسات العليا (ماجستير/ دكتوراة)		
Specialization:	□الجرافيك و الأعلام	□الهندسة	□الطب	التخصص:
	□ Graphic & Media	□ Engineering	□ Medical	
	□الأعمال و الإدارة	□القانون / الدراسات الاسلامية	□الدراسات الاجتماعية	
	□ Business & Management	□ Law / Islamic Studies	□ Social Studies	
	□ Others		□أخرى	
Emirates of Working:	□الشارقة	□دبي	□ أبوظبي	إمارة العمل:
	□Sharjah	□ Dubai	□ Abu Dhabi	
	□الفجيرة	□رأس الخيمة	□عجمان	
	□ Fujairah	□RAK	□ Ajman	
	□ Um Al Quwain		□ أم القيوين	
Emirates of Residence:	□الشارقة	□دبي	□أبوظبي	إمارة الإقامة:
	□Sharjah	□ Dubai	□ Abu Dhabi	
	□ الفجيرة	رأس الخيمة □	عجمان□	
	□ Fujairah	□RAK	□ Ajman	
	7-□ Um Al Quwain	أم القيوين □-7		
Employer Type:	□مؤسسة خاصة	□حكومة محلية □ مؤسسة شبه خاصة	□حكومة اتحادية	نوع المؤسسة و تصنيفها:
	□Private	□ Local Gov	□Federal Gov	□ Semi Private	
Employment Industry:	□الخدمات	□ الاتصال	□ المصارف و التمويل	□النفط و الغاز	النشاط الاقتصادي:
	□ Services	□ Telecom	□ Banking & Finance	□ Oil & Gas	
	□ أخرى	□التجارة	□التصنيع	□ التشييد و البناء	
	□ Others	□ Trade	□ Manufacturing	□ Construction	
	□أكثر من 10 سنوات	□ 7-10 سنوات	□ 4-6 سنوات	□أقل من 3سنوات	

Experience (Current Employer):	☐ More than 10 Years	☐7-10 Years	☐4-6 Years	☐ Less than 3 Years	الخبرة (المؤسسة الحالية):
Total Years of Experience	☐أكثر عن 15سنة	☐10-15 سنوات	☐4-9 سنوات	☐أقل عن 3سنوات	مجموع سنوات الخبرة:
	☐ more than 15 years	☐ 10-15 Years	☐ 4-9 Years	☐ Less than 3 Years	
Organizational Rank:	☐الإدارة العليا	☐مستوى إداري	☐مستوى اشرافي	☐ مبتدئ	المرتبة المؤسسية:
	☐ Top Management	☐ Managerial Level	☐ Supervisory Level	☐ Entry Level	
How did you receive the survey?	☐ طرق أخرى	☐مؤسستك/ عملك	☐ الأصدقاء و الأهل	☐ وسائل التواصل الاجتماعي	كيف حصلت على الاستبيان؟
	☐ Others	☐ Your Employer	☐Family and Friends	☐ Social Media	

شـــكـــراً لمشـــاركـــتـــك Thanks for your participation